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The Week.

The preliminary developments at Kansas City do but emphasize two elements in the Democratic situation which were clear enough before—that Bryan has a hold upon the organization which is more powerful than any other leader has wielded in many years, and that the party has been left almost entirely without conservative influences. In 1896 there were men of great prominence and weight in various States who were ready to fight the free-coinage heresy with the utmost vigor. Now there are delegates to the Convention who think that it would be "good politics" to keep silver in the background in order to attract votes, but not one who opposes the policy as a matter of principle. Indeed, there has never been a national gathering of either of the two great parties which contained so few of the leaders who had won its great victories in the past by commending it to the sober judgment of the country. There are whole delegations which contain nobody who was prominent or influential before the upheaval of 1896. The considerations which ordinarily affect the action of national conventions, where radicalism encounters stout opposition from conservative influences, do not apply at Kansas City this week.

The etiquette of the Platt-Roosevelt breakfasts is again thrown into doubt and confusion. The boss has smilingly declined the Governor's invitation to resume the series of political love-feasts. He says: "I do not know of any important matter that should be discussed." But Col. Roosevelt is fairly bursting with important matters. He wants to know about his successor in the Governorship. He desires first-hand information respecting Platt's alleged scheme to so hedge about Gen. Greene with a hostile Executive Committee and other machine obstacles that he cannot take the Presidency of the County Committee, or, if he does, will be impotent. What so consonant with the frank, breezy manners of the gallant Colonel as to whisper with Platt again over the coffee-cups concerning all these affairs, and then come out pledged to secrecy? But the boss will no more of these breakfasts. They have ruined his political digestion. He has probably heard, too, of Roosevelt's boasting among his friends how he had been very firm and very fierce with the boss in these breakfast-table encounters, and had "used" him as an instrument for good government. Platt is now willing to let everybody see who was really being used. Having no further use himself for the Governor, the boss sends him word in true Shylock fashion, "I will not eat with you, drink with you, nor pray with you."

The unprecedented shuffling and recrimination about the Republican platform have had one laughable result; the party organs have been caught napping. The *Tribune*, for example, had on the Thursday following the Convention one of those noble panegyrics on the Philadelphia platform which the party hack knows so well how to write—though how he can do it without grinning we never could imagine. The platform was "straightforward," and set forth the "opinions" of the party on "all issues of broad national concern without timidity, but also without exaggeration," etc. We all know this kind of article; any man could write it in his sleep; it really might as well be kept stereotyped for service in successive years. As for the Philippine plank, the *Tribune* thought on June 21 that the platform had "wisely refrained from committing the party." But lo, the change after Grosvenor's revelation! Why, said the indignant *Tribune*, on June 24, "the platform, to everybody's astonishment, contains no word with reference to one of the most important questions on which the Republican party has been called upon to act." Yes, but how well the *Tribune* had concealed its own astonishment three days before! On Thursday the platform was "straightforward," "wise," everything that was proper and lofty and inspired; on Sunday it was "pettifogging," a failure to "face the issue squarely," and so on. The trials of organic journalism have seldom been more gratuitously exhibited.

Prohibition of the liquor traffic throughout the United States as a Governmental policy is about as absurd as a proposition that poverty should be abolished in all parts of the country by Federal statute, and that it would prove just about as effective is established by the experience of Maine, Kansas, and some other commonwealths which have tried the system. Nevertheless, a number of good people get together once every four years to nominate a candidate for President on this issue, and they succeed in arousing a good deal of enthusiasm in their assembly. The gathering of the party at Chicago last week manifested uncommon bitterness toward the occupant of the White House, and the platform goes to such lengths as to charge Mr. McKinley, Methodist brother of many delegates, with "having, by his conspicuous example as a wine-drinker at public banquets, and as a wine-serving host in the White House, done more to encourage the liquor business, to demoralize the temperance habits of the young men, and to bring Christian practices and requirements into disrepute than any other President this republic has had." There is more warrant for the severe condemnation of the Administration's nullification of the Anti-Canteen Law, and of the license which it has granted to liquor-selling in the Philippines. There is undoubtedly a strong feeling outside the ranks of the professional Prohibitionists regarding the attitude of our authorities toward the question. It is not a matter of an official's personal habits which in no way differentiate him from the ordinary practice of a President. The just ground for complaint is that an Executive who exercises all the power of a dictator under martial law, has permitted in Manila a policy which increases drunkenness, insanity, and crime. The indictment which must stand against Mr. McKinley is the one which was formulated by President Schurman of the first Philippine Commission, that under his authority "we introduced and established the saloon there, to corrupt the natives and to exhibit the vices of our race."

Dr. William Everett's Phi Beta Kappa oration at Harvard last week was not only inspiring in its high moral tone, but also unanswerable in its logic. His reasoning is so clear, and his statements so precise, as to make it hopeless to defend the base and selfish conception of patriotism which now passes current. He forces on those who insist that every citizen should stand by the Government of his country when it goes to war, the question, why? If the word "should" is used, does not that import moral obligation, and require us to say that we must give our support because it is right for us to do so? But if this is true, then the citizens of the country against whom we are fighting are also right in supporting their Government. We kill them because it is right, and they kill us for the same reason. Hence, if we succeed, we are overwhelming a righteous cause, and *vice versa*. This grotesque and primitive conception of morality is probably a survival of polytheism. When every nation believed it had its own tutelary divinity, it was, of course, impious for any citizen to recognize the authority of the tutelary deity of a hostile tribe. The false conception of patriotism with which we are encumbered may have been an ancestral virtue, but it is a disgrace to modern intelligence. If there is such a thing as a moral law, it transcends the bounds of countries and the color of human skins. The absurdity of maintaining that a number of moral standards might exist, led to the establishment of monotheism; but the atavistic conception of patriotism, which demands that the soldiers of two opposing armies should pray to the same God to help them annihilate one another, is enough to bring the very name of religion into contempt.

Peculiar force and timeliness attach to the appeal for "Consular-Service Reform" issued by the American Association of China. It was put forth at Shanghai on April 5, signed by missionaries and business men, and with unconscious prophecy it described the capital importance of having in China, in times of crisis, consuls of the highest character and competence. While not attacking the present force directly, it is easy to read between the lines the mortification which American residents in China feel at our consular representation there. Yet, as the appeal points out, foreigners in China are "especially dependent upon their consular representatives." This is because, under extra-territorial jurisdiction, their lives and property, with their commercial interests and other rights and privileges, are in the consul's hands. It is extremely important, therefore, that consuls should have had some legal training, know something of the rules of evidence, and of the laws which they are to administer. The Association's appeal clearly implies that our actual consuls have not such qualifications. It explicitly asserts that they know nothing of the language, and are in this respect at a "great disadvantage" as compared with British and other consuls. But proficiency in Chinese can be had only after years of study, and, as the American Association of China plaintively declares, "the frequent changes of our consular officers are peculiarly unfortunate." Thus we have the old Philippine lesson taught us over again—that army and navy are not the only means of protecting American interests abroad. A reformed consular service is as much needed as guns and flags; but McKinley has not lifted a finger to secure it, as is evident from his selections for the consulates in China.

Admiral Seymour's dispatch is the first official news we have had from the Chinese interior. While it leaves the central mystery at Pekin darker than ever, it throws a clear light on the extent and nature of the wild insurrection which prevails inland. On June 18, the Admiral says, Imperial troops joined the Boxers in attacking his slender column. This is the first indication that the Chinese Government, as such, had anything to do with the assaults upon the foreign troops, and, of course, it is by no means conclusive, as a section of the Imperial troops may have mutinied and joined the Boxers. These fanatics, with their characteristic contempt of death, appear to have done almost all the fighting, and to have been killed in heaps. Admiral Seymour certainly conducted both his advance and retreat with skill and gallantry. One ominous note in his dispatch is his discovery of immense stores of guns, arms, and ammunition of the latest pattern in the Chinese arsenal, which he seized. This confirms the report that the Chinese had been secretly importing vast quantities of rifles. Here is one sardonic aspect of the great increase in Chinese trade, of which we and other civilized nations have been boasting. The weapons we have sold China she now aims at us.

The strike at Chicago, which has been going on some eight months, has been virtually settled by an agreement between the bricklayers' union and the employers, which includes a further agreement to refer all other similar disputes hereafter to arbitration, with Judge Grosscup as umpire. This is in harmony with the English system of voluntary arbitration described in the last number of the Bulletin of the Bureau of Labor Statistics at Washington. It is not unlikely that this publication was the immediate cause of the settlement at Chicago. At all events, the settlement must be hailed with satisfaction in every industrial centre of the Union, and we feel sure that it will find imitators in many quarters where heretofore strikes and lockouts have caused enormous losses, and yielded nothing to either side that could not have been gained at the beginning as well as at the end of the struggle. It might as well be recognized now as later, that arbitration of some kind will be invoked by the State as a deliverance from intolerable evils like those which at this moment hold St. Louis in subjection. Unless the parties immediately concerned desire voluntary arbitration on the English plan, the community will give them compulsory arbitration on the New Zealand plan. It is needless to say that the former is the preferable system, since it is always in the control of the parties concerned, and can be modified by them from time to time as they are taught by experience.

In St. Louis the strike of the street-car men has reached the last stage, which is generally a very short one, where an attempt is made to boycott the cars after all the lines have resumed operation. The scheme to cut off the revenues of an offending corporation by persuading a sympathetic public to patronize other means of transportation, always starts off well, and for a few days it looks as though the company could be starved out. But the number of people who will long endure daily inconvenience to maintain a principle is not large, and it dwindles rapidly when even those who feel most strongly, reflect how hopeless is the enterprise in which they have engaged. So the men who at first found a boyish pleasure in riding on an uncomfortable seat in an express wagon, while an open car went past almost empty, last week concluded that they were behaving in a pretty silly way, and the vehicles which were hastily devoted to new uses and at first were packed, became the empty ones. In St. Louis, the men who struck have not only gained nothing, like those in Chicago, but they have also lost their places. Meanwhile immense damage has been done to property, the business of the city has been seriously disturbed, and a number of lives have been lost. Here, too, is a case where it seems as though civilization had failed of its duty.

The awful calamity which befell the North German Lloyd Steamship Company in Hoboken on Saturday is without parallel in its kind. A modern naval battle would scarcely involve so much destruction of life and property. Everybody exclaims that such an accident ought to be impossible, and nearly everybody has some advice to give in order to prevent future disasters of this kind. One suggestion is that our piers ought to be built of granite instead of timber, but evidently granite piers would not have prevented the burning of the cotton and other material on them or the communication of the fire to the ships alongside them. Rear-Admiral Melville, who witnessed the horrible affair, makes the wise suggestion that the port-holes in passenger ships ought to be large enough for the body of a man weighing 200 pounds to pass through, saying that if these ships had been thus port-holed, most of the lives of the imprisoned crew would have been saved. It is evident, also, that if the ships which were exposed to this fire had had sufficient steam on to move themselves, the fire might have been restricted to the piers, and there would have been less loss of life. But these giants were inert and helpless. They were fastened to the piers by their own weight, and could not be moved till tugboats could be signalled and brought to their aid. The event points to the peril daily undergone by those who frequent the long piers to welcome or bid good-by to their tourist friends.

There is a State in the Union which has in its Constitution to-day a section providing that no free negro or mulatto, who was not a resident when the Constitution was adopted, "shall ever come, reside, or be within this State"; and also prohibiting any negro or mulatto, except one who lived in the State when the Constitution was adopted, from holding any real estate, or making any contract, or maintaining any suit. This seems incredible, but it is not so remarkable as the fact that the people of the State have recently had an opportunity to expunge these discriminations from the Constitution, but have failed to improve it, so that the anachronism will be continued into the twentieth century. When the question of Oregon's admission to the Union was pending in 1857, the people were allowed to vote on the question whether slavery should be tolerated in the State, and it was decided in the negative, three to one; and also on the question whether the refusal of residence and other rights to the free negro or the mulatto should be fixed in the fundamental law, which was carried, 8,640 to 1,081. There it has remained ever since, with its further provision that the Legislative Assembly should provide by penal laws for the removal by public officers of all such persons, for their effectual exclusion from the State, and for the punishment of any one who should bring negroes or mulattoes into the State or employ or harbor them. Of course, when the Fourteenth Amendment to the Federal Constitution was adopted, after the civil war, declaring that no State should make or enforce any law abridging the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States, all these clauses of the Oregon Constitution became null and void. A proposition to wipe them out was submitted to the people at the recent State election, but it did not carry.

It is satisfactory to learn that the New York Chamber of Commerce has decided to create a standing Committee on State and Municipal Taxation. Such a committee will have a good deal of influence, not only on public opinion, but also on the Legislature, and it is unnecessary to state that such influence is demanded by the situation. The reasons assigned for this action in the report of the Chamber of Commerce constitute a severe arraignment of the present system. Expenditures for State and local administration are rapidly increasing, the rates of taxation are higher, and new taxes are continually imposed. The enterprises of individuals and corporations are driven from the State by unwise levies made upon them. The incorporation of joint-stock enterprises is hampered. Property is taxed, and the evidences of debt on the same are also taxed. Corporations of similar character are unequally taxed. There is a heavy tax on inheritances, and the collection of the tax is subject to extraordinary expenses, often apparently for political purposes. The taxation of franchises of a public sort proceeds on lines which may or may not be essentially just, but are certainly new, and require to be studied. It is by no means sure that taxes are collected with reasonable certainty. The basis of assessments is not constant, and the purposes for which the Board of Equalization was established are inadequately served by it. When it is considered that the tax rate often approximates to the interest rate, the attention of the most thoughtless observer should be arrested.

China has, for the moment, snuffed out South Africa, but events there still have great importance for the British Empire. There can be no doubt that the stubborn resistance of the Boers, and their settling down into guerrilla warfare, have been a disappointment to the English Ministry. The unexpectedly prolonged hostilities have had the effect of putting an end to the project, favored by Mr. Chamberlain, of having a general election in July. An autumn dissolution is still thought probable, in spite of, or because of, Mr. Balfour's evasion of a specific question on the subject in the House of Commons the other day. That even the military difficulties in South Africa are as yet by no means solved, is made evident by the Government's decision to hold all the troops there for the present. It would have been convenient to draw men from Lord Roberts's force to send to China, but they cannot be spared. And behind all is the question of pacification and final settlement. Two Ministers of the Crown spoke last week—one, the Duke of Devonshire, in a conciliatory vein, praising the Dutch and predicting their quiet acquiescence in English rule; Mr. Chamberlain was more truculent, declaring that a party existed in England willing to throw away the "fruits" of the war. But neither Conservatives nor Liberals can devise a plan of settlement which will succeed unless it follow the lines laid down by John Bright in 1849. He said:

> "People tell me I want to abandon our colonies; but I say, Do you intend to hold your colonies by the sword, by armies and ships of war? That is not a permanent hold upon them. I want to retain them by their affections."

The reports from India concerning the termination of the drought are cheering, but they furnish no reason for relaxing our efforts to relieve the starving people. Rains are indispensable, but human beings cannot live on water, and it will be many months before a new supply of food can be raised. In order to raise crops, the ground must be tilled and seed must be sown. The cattle employed in tillage have to a great extent died of starvation, and the grain required for seed has been applied to the relief of present hunger. The letter addressed by Lord George Hamilton, the Indian Secretary, to our Ambassador, shows that the Indian Government recognizes its responsibilities to the fullest extent. The task, however, can only be performed, as he says, wholesale. Nearly 6,000,000 persons are, in one way or another, maintained by the Indian Government, which has a sufficient fund for the purpose, and could rely on the Imperial Government for assistance should its own resources be exhausted. But the very magnitude of the scale on which official relief is carried on, shows the urgent need of private benevolence. Many classes and many individuals are not reached, and cannot be reached, by Government officers. Funds subscribed by private charity are administered by agencies in which the non-official element predominates, and money so distributed does more good than the subventions of the Government. Lord George Hamilton assures the benevolent that what they give will neither be wasted, nor tend to diminish the official contributions. It will relieve cases of individual distress that would otherwise be unavoidably disregarded or unnoticed. The statements contained in this letter do not constitute an appeal by the Indian Government, but are a dignified explanation of the character of the crisis, and they will stimulate the charitable to renewed exertions.

The extent of the efforts of the Indian Government appears from the letter of Lady Curzon to the Famine Relief Committee of Chicago. The dearth is more widely extended than on any previous occasion, and while it is believed that the deaths will be fewer, far more persons are suffering. The amounts expended in direct relief by the Government are $26,000,000, in suspensions and remissions of land revenue $10,000,000, in advances for the purchase of seed and cattle, $6,000,000, and $5,000,000 in loans to the distressed States. The Relief Committee has, through various channels, disbursed $2,500,000. These figures cannot be read, in spite of their deplorable cause, without a certain exultation. They show a better side of government, and of humanity, than wars professing to be benevolent. It would seem that such disbursements must seriously modify the financial estimates of the Indian Government. For the year now ending, the revenue was estimated to exceed that of the previous year, and the surplus was to be greater. The land revenue was to be nearly $5,000,000 less, and that from salt nearly $1,000,000. On the other hand, the revenue from opium, from stamps, from excise, and from railroads and the post, was to be materially increased. The relief of famine was expected to absorb over $10,000,000, which was to be nearly met by reducing appropriations for military purposes from $80,000,000 to less than $72,000,000. If the expenditure has been so great as Lady Curzon supposes, there must certainly be a large deficit in the Indian Treasury, even in the improbable event that the revenue comes up to the estimates. The amount of the deficit, however, will be much smaller than the cost of most frontier wars.

THE PLATFORM THAT FAILED.

In Saturday's *Tribune* Senator Foraker testified that he was not present at the last two meetings of the sub-committee on platform at the Philadelphia Convention, and does not know what was done at those meetings. He has a clear recollection that the first draft of the platform which the committee considered had been prepared by Mr. Charles Emory Smith and others; that the first part was an extended eulogy of President McKinley and his achievements, and that it was followed by planks on the financial question, the merchant marine (subsidy question), and the authority of Congress over the Territories. There were four meetings of the sub-committee. Foraker attended the first and second. At the first one he says that Mr. Quigg objected to the recitation of President McKinley's achievements as being too long, and not in good form, but that no one raised objection to the other planks, either then or at the next meeting. As he (Foraker) was "unavoidably absent" from the two later meetings, he cannot say anything about the changes made subsequently. In other words, Foraker fails to sustain Gen. Grosvenor's charges against Quigg, and leaves the victory with the latter, as we supposed would be the outcome when the charges were first made. Foraker contributes one item regarding his own mental attitude towards the platform. He says that in view of the fight over the power of Congress to govern Porto Rico, he thought it highly appropriate to insert a plank approving the position taken by Congress, and was very much disappointed to learn that it had been omitted.

That aggrieved rhetorician, Postmaster-General Smith, has at last caused to be published the splendid "Original Draft," of his composing. We do not wonder he feels hurt at its rejection. Such a "hoight of foine language" was never before offered in vain to a committee. This one evidently had no sense for style. Budding Burkes in the freshman class have often had their purple patches scissored out by the professor of rhetoric, with similar cruelty; but they usually hug their griefs in private. Freshman Smith bewails his in public. He acts much as Seward would have done if he had run to the press with a full account of the way in which Lincoln had cut to pieces his eloquent, but most imprudent, dispatch to Adams in 1861. "Leave out," "drop all this," wrote Lincoln freely on the margin of the Secretary's original draft; but Seward left it all to the historian. He, however, was not an editor with the "news sense"; perhaps he was not as proud of his style as Mr. Smith evidently is.

There was, for example, at the very beginning, a passage which would have won applause in any boys' debating society. Mr. Smith wrote of the Republican party, in a stately rhetoric that the youngest reporter on the staff of his newspaper might have envied:

> "Always the distinctive party of liberty and progress, it fulfils historic fitness that its crucial delivery should go forth from the sacred place where the Declaration of Independence was signed, and where the Constitution was framed. Its birth, midway in freedom's century, brought the emancipation of four millions of bondmen; and in the zenith of its career and power, the close of that century is crowned by the liberation of ten millions of the human family from the yoke of oppression."

Yet a rude and unfeeling committee left that all out.

But worse was to come—we do not mean worse writing, but worse treatment of Smith. He had determined to show the President the value of having a grateful and ready writer in the Cabinet, and had prepared a true and frank statement of McKinley's greatness, which he submitted to his chief, confident that it would meet with the approval of that modest man, as Smith says it did. This was the plank, of which the committee and the Convention left but a splinter:

> "In all this eventful and matchless history of success at home and triumphs abroad, our masterful leader has been the true patriot and the upright statesman, who has walked untried paths and faced unforeseen responsibilities with serene wisdom and lofty courage and patient fortitude. Clear in vision, strong in judgment, and firm in action, he has directed our momentous policies in the true spirit of American institutions and with abiding faith in the American people. His universally recognized nobility of mind and heart has inspired the confidence and won the affection of his countrymen, and for the completion of his great and unfinished work we invoke the coöperation of all patriotic citizens, without distinction of party, in the reëlection of President William McKinley."

Now we know what Smith means when he says that the platform he drew was the one "McKinley wanted to stand on." Any candidate might well desire to run for the Presidency on the proposition that he was so wise, good, and great that "all patriotic citizens" ought to vote for him. The obtuse platform committee, however, balked at that "masterful leader" business. Perhaps they thought people would consider it a joke, as applied to McKinley. Anyhow, the play of their knife about this pet plank of the adulatory Smith was as fearful as that of the man whom Thackeray saw dining on a Mississippi steamboat. Yet Smith is not without comfort. He records the fact that the President "scanned" and "approved" the restrained description of himself. The "masterful leader" smiles; what are the frowns of one ignorant committee?

There were many other interesting points of divergence between the "original draft," with the stamp of Executive approval upon it, and the form adopted by the Convention. There was a beautiful tribute to the Administration's "diplomatic achievements, without parallel in our annals," but it all went out except the barest mention of the "open door" in China. "We welcome the people of Hawaii, Porto Rico, and the Philippines to the fellowship of our republican institutions," wrote the expansive Smith. Pshaw! said the committee; what you meant to say is this: "We approve the annexation of the Hawaiian Islands." So the butchery of a masterpiece went on.

The committee must, in fairness, be judged by the amount of gush and adulation which they resisted and rejected. No one thought the official platform any great affair; but at least it was not that fulsome and flaunting thing which was devised in the Kitchen Cabinet. And the committee, moreover, distinctly strengthened the party deliverances in one or two points where McKinley would have infected them with his own indecision. The final platform squarely said, "We renew our allegiance to the principle of the gold standard." The version that pleased McKinley was simply a vague recitation of the fact that "the pledge of the gold standard has been fulfilled, . . . and we again announce our opposition to the free and unlimited coinage of silver *except by international agreement*." How Bryan will grin when he discovers McKinley's attempt to "hedge" again on the silver question, and what use he will make of it in his speeches! Nor had the President's platform one word to say about civil-service reform, or the appointment of natives to office in Cuba, Porto Rico, Hawaii, and the Philippines. In both these respects the committee supplied at least a perfunctory expression where the President would have been suspiciously silent. All told, with such a mushy mess as the committee had ladled out to it from Washington, the wonder is that the final result was as little nauseating as it proved.

HOW TO DEAL WITH TRUSTS.

That the Trust issue is to be of some importance in the coming campaign there is no doubt. Nor is it doubtful that, if votes are to be gained by merely harping on the word Trust, the Democrats will make a net gain, notwithstanding that the Tammany leaders have been detected in a very odious Trust of their own. The fact remains that the Republicans are more identified in the public mind with capital and combinations of capital than the Democrats are. The Ice Trust is local, and its damaging political effect will be limited mainly to its sphere of operations, while the Trusts in general are coextensive with the country. It remains to be seen whether the outcry against them can be maintained effectively through a Presidential campaign, and whether it will yield any important results at the polls.

That there is a vast deal of demagogy in the declamation and legislation against Trusts, it is needless to repeat. Yet there are some features of these latter-day inventions that call for grave attention, and are now obtaining it at the hands of the best thinkers in the United States. In this category Prof. J. B. Clark of Columbia University must be classed. He has gained distinction in the field already by contributing to the literature of the subject a good definition of the word Trust, as it presents itself to the public eye. He says that a Trust is "any combination of capital large enough to be dangerous."

Professor Clark continues his examination of the phenomenon which goes by the name of Trust, in the June number of the *Political Science Quarterly*, and he deals with it in a very vigorous way. His article is not in the least recondite or hard to understand. Although he recognizes all the difficulties which legislation must encounter in seeking to regulate Trusts and to curtail the evils which attach to them, and are, perhaps, inherent in them, he points out remedies for some of them. He has a thorough contempt for buncombe. The spirit in which he enters upon his task is shown in the following introductory paragraph:

> "More general than the opinion that the Trusts ought to be crushed is the conviction that they will not down. They are here to stay, and we know it. An explanation of the light-hearted way in which we put upon the statute-books laws that aim to crush them, is found in the fact that such laws do their principal work before they are enacted, when they are nothing but planks in political platforms. In the present temper of the public mind severe measures are at least good for the party that promises them; and if, by an experiment or two, it is shown that they are not workable, there is the less danger in continuing to enact them into laws. In general, political platforms have of late required prohibitive statutes, with pains and penalties attached to them; and though such statutes have frequently been enacted, so far as large results are concerned, that has been the end of it."

The first remedy which Professor Clark proposes is publicity. In this he has been preceded by President Hadley, and the same remedy was suggested ten years ago by Abram S. Hewitt, in an address before the Institute of Mining Engineers, in which the reasons for publicity were expounded with great force and candor. "This principle," he said, "is already recognized and enforced with reference to savings and other banks, insurance and trust companies, and railway corporations. It has not yet been applied to industrial organizations, but these now exist on so large a scale and employ so many men, disputes with whom affect the public convenience and interests so seriously, that every safeguard should be applied to prevent the disturbance and dislocation of industry. Publicity as to profits and losses would at once remove the most serious cause of strikes," etc. The power of the press and of enlightened public opinion, Mr. Hewitt believed, would do away with most of the evils complained of, if all the facts regarding the operations of Trusts and combinations of capital were at all times accessible.

Professor Clark shows what is meant by publicity, and why the light should be turned on the Trusts. In the first place, there is nothing that the Trusts dread so much as public knowledge of their business. May we not say, then, that whatever weakens our enemy strengthens us? While we require a railroad company to publish all of its doings down to the minutest fraction, we require no publicity at all concerning those of a Trust. Yet a Trust is composed of a body of two classes, *i. e.*, stockholders and officers, whose interests are by no means identical. The officers may transact the business in a way to make money for themselves at the expense of the stockholders, as well as of the consumers of their goods. There have been instances where the officers were strongly suspected of sacrificing their stockholders by "selling short," and then frightening the latter and forcing their shares on the market. In the interest of the shareholders, therefore, the law may rightfully require publicity.

How, it may be asked, will this help the public? The public will then know, says Professor Clark, "what plants they own, what they gave for them, what they are worth at present, for how much they can be duplicated, what appliances they contain, whether antiquated or modern—in short, what is the substantial basis for the value of stocks and bonds that are placed on the market." When all the facts of the business are made public, then if the Trusts charge too much for their products, competition will be excited, new mills will be built, and prices will come down. We understand that in some Trusts not even the directors are allowed to know the "bottom facts"; only the managing officers are admitted to such knowledge. The first step in the way of reform must be the uncovering of facts connected with the business.

The next step which Professor Clark advises is to abolish customs duties on all articles manufactured by Trusts. It is true that Trusts exist in free-trade countries, but their power for harm is very slight, and their powers here would be much curtailed if this remedy were applied. Professor Clark is not, however, in favor of a general attack on the tariff system, and he sees difficulties in the way of this remedy arising from the solidarity of the tariff interests. He considers the question whether it is possible to regulate by law the prices of goods made by Trusts, and thinks that this cannot be done. He asks also whether the State may enter the field as a manufacturer, either to compete with the Trusts or to take their place, and decides that this plan "must stand or fall with the general cause of socialism." He has no confidence in that remedy.

There is one other means of curbing the Trusts, and that is to open the door to competition with them where they have closed it or sought to close it. Professor Clark would have laws to prevent and punish what are called "factors' agreements," which are in reality boycotts, by which dealers in their goods are required to buy exclusively from them, they giving certain advantages in return. They should be compelled also to sell to all persons and to all sections of the country at the same price. It is their practice, upon occasion, to crush competitors in one place by lowering their prices there, while keeping them up or even raising them in all other places. This they are enabled to do by their enormous capital and their greater command of the market. Professor Clark thinks that this is one of the most crying evils of the Trust problem, and that it is a remediable one. At all events he would attack it by all the powers of the State.

THE JUDICIAL FUNCTIONS OF THE GOVERNOR.

In his speech at the Republican Convention in Philadelphia, Gov. Roosevelt declared that the foremost leaders of the Democratic party in this State had been discovered in a Trust which was really of infamous, and perhaps of criminal character; a Trust in which they sought to wring fortunes from the dire need of their poorer brethren. At the time when these statements were made, charges were pending against one of these leaders, the Mayor of New York, because of his interest in this Trust, upon which it was in the power of the Governor to remove him from office. Charges were also pending against the Comptroller of the city, a man whom the Governor had openly recognized as his most formidable competitor, and whom he can also remove from office. The same power exists in the case of the District Attorney, against whom also charges are now pressed. As to the merits of the charges against the Comptroller and the District Attorney, the Governor, so far as we are informed, has expressed no opinion. But as to the case of the Mayor, Gov. Roosevelt's declarations at Philadelphia show that he has prejudged it. It is unnecessary to prove that the Ice Company is of a criminal character in order to enable the Governor to act. His power of removal, after a hearing, is unqualified, and he can hardly justify a refusal to remove an officer whom he declares to be guilty of infamous extortion.

One of our best constitutional traditions is the supreme importance of separating the executive from the judicial functions of government. In spite of the modern contempt for the limitations of "outworn" constitutions, we cannot admit that the reasons for this separation of functions, so clearly stated in the 'Federalist,' have lost any of their force. On the contrary, they are of greater importance than ever before, and the recent protest against the nomination of Mr. Hazel for the office of Judge of a United States Court shows the strength of the feeling, not only of the bar, but also of the more intelligent part of the community, upon this matter. For what was involved in that case was really the independence and impartiality of the judiciary. Mr. Hazel was known, and known only, as a "politician"; an active partisan, having much influence with the Republican Administration. It was felt that in cases where the interests of influential Republicans were concerned, even if no party considerations were directly involved, Mr. Hazel would be disqualified for judicial functions. Even with the best intentions, he could not suddenly change his point of view, and consider the controversies submitted to him solely in the dry light of legal precedent. No ardent partisan, in short, is fitted to be a judge, for nowadays "politics" crops out in numberless controversies.

It will hardly be disputed that in removing an elected officer the Governor exercises a judicial function. Although his power is absolute, it is called forth by the presentation of charges, and the Constitution at least implies that the Governor shall decide according to the evidence submitted for and against these charges. Were a judge to express himself publicly concerning the merits of a case which was to come before him, as Gov. Roosevelt has expressed himself concerning the participation of the Democratic leaders in the ice monopoly, it would be thought highly indecorous. It would be said that he had made up his mind that the defendant was guilty before he had heard both sides, and that his decision could not be unbiassed. Were the judge known to be a violent partisan, who held his adversaries in supreme contempt, when he came to sit in judgment on them, with no law to restrain him and no higher court to overrule him, his decision against them would have no moral weight. We apprehend that much the same will be true if Gov. Roosevelt removes Mayor Van Wyck. We have no desire to justify that functionary, whom the city would be well rid of; but he would certainly pose as the victim of political persecution, and he would probably appeal for sympathy with a good deal of success. In fact, it would probably be "bad politics" for the Governor to remove him now, simply because it would be said that the power of the Executive was employed for partisan ends.

No doubt a Governor of greater wisdom than the present incumbent possesses would not have pronounced judgment in advance of trial; but the question is not a personal one. The power of removal on charges must be recognized as essentially judicial, and regulated according to judicial requirements. From time immemorial the Executive has been empowered to remove sheriffs and mayors, but the power has been exercised very seldom, and perhaps never except in cases where the misconduct was so gross as to be undefended. The development of our party system was never dreamed of when this power was conferred, nor was it imagined that any mayor would direct the affairs of a city of 3,500,000 inhabitants. Now, the Governor of New York has become the representative of one political party; and the Mayor of New York city may be the leader of the other. To ignore these changes is no longer safe; for it is absurd to suppose that the practice of resorting to the Governor to remove city officers will not grow, now that its political advantages are understood. Of course, some way of removing our mayors must be provided; such a thing has never been done, but we should be shocked at the possibility that it could not be done. The proceeding, however, has now become so serious a matter as to require to be conducted judicially, and the Executive may properly demand to be relieved from such functions. At present any newspaper or any individual may drag the Mayor or the Comptroller before the Governor by making charges, and the Governor may be placed in a very embarrassing position. In penal statutes it is not enough to speak of "charges," or of "high crimes and misdemeanors." It is practicable to define the offences for which removal from office should be the punishment, and to provide for the proof of guilt by judicial methods. When the charter is revised, this matter should be attended to, for if it is not, we shall be in danger of serious conflicts in the future.

The editors [illegible]

CHINA AND IMPERIALISM.

The situation in China at the present time renders it possible to draw a clear distinction between the traditional American policy in cases where our citizens are put in peril while residing abroad, and the policy of Imperialism. The former would simply afford protection when it is demanded. The latter would improve any opportunity to seize territory of another country which might be afforded by the sending of troops within its limits, ostensibly for the simple purpose of saving the lives of citizens. The course of the United States hitherto, in all cases resembling the crisis in China now, has been consistent; there has been no attempt to utilize the chance advantage of a temporary lodgment to secure a permanent foothold. On the other hand, the Powers of Europe have repeatedly retained possession of territory by reason of the fact that their troops occupied it because of what was originally represented to be a mere exigency, certain soon to pass by.

When news came from China that American citizens and officials of the United States were in the greatest danger, it was the plain duty of the Administration at Washington to take immediate and effective measures for their protection. There was not an hour to lose, and the cost of the measures necessary was not to be considered. Inaction on the part of the Executive would have been a criminal breach of duty. Hair-splitting over the question whether the dispatch of troops would mean a state of war, and delaying to call Congress in special session a month later for consideration of that question would have been resented as the evasion of a plain and imperative obligation.

There can be no question that the nation supports the Administration in the prompt, efficient, and discreet action which it took when the emergency arose. It will continue this support so long as the policy pursued is consistent with these preliminary steps, and it appears that American fleets and troops are in China simply for the rescue of American citizens, and the assurance of their protection after the existing disturbances shall have been quelled. Just so long, moreover, shall we continue to enjoy the confidence of those Chinese who are familiar with our past history. A striking proof of this confidence is afforded in the dispatch from the Canton correspondent of the London *Telegraph*, who says:

> "Li Hung Chang trusts the Americans in this crisis, saying that they alone do not want territory, and he places himself almost without reserve in their hands. At an important conference on Monday, he reiterated that sentiment, and added that he was determined at all hazards to secure the best results for China and for the maintenance of the most friendly relations with the United States and other foreign Powers."

Li Hung Chang is entirely right in his belief that "the Americans do not want territory," so far as the people of this country are generally concerned. But there are undoubtedly interests in the United States which believe that it would be to their advantage, in case any proposition should be made by European Powers for a division of the Chinese Empire, that this nation should get its slice along with the rest. The strongest argument with these interests for the retention of the Philippines all along has been the claim that a vast deal of money was to be made by exploiting the islands.

There will be plenty of politicians quick to support such a movement in case it should be pressed. Already we find Republican Congressmen ready to break ground in favor of our seizing Chinese territory if we shall have a chance. Representative Bromwell of McKinley's own State, who is now serving his fourth term as member for the Cincinnati district, and who has been regarded as a conservative man, is quoted as talking in this strain on the subject:

> "If the Chinese Empire has to be divided, I am most certainly in favor of getting the proportion of territory that belongs to this country. The fact that we have the Phil-

> ippines will not insure us full commercial advantages if China goes into the hands of Europe. You may be sure that those countries are not risking anything to get some Chinese territory for the fun of the thing. It is commerce and trade they are after, and we cannot afford to be a minute behind in the same course, except that ours can be done under restrictions, and in keeping with our policy of going alone and independent of other nations."

When such a deliverance as this comes from a Congressman who is not considered a Jingo, it is evidently time for public opinion to express itself. The Administration should be left in no doubt as to the feeling of the people. The policy which Representative Bromwell advocates is rank Imperialism. It goes far beyond anything that has been done or recommended in the Philippines. The excuse for our staying there has been that we are forced to stay in order to discharge the obligations imposed by the treaty of peace with Spain. Here is the bald proposal to seize Chinese territory for no other purpose and with no other defence than to promote our commerce and trade. It will disgrace the American republic if what everybody in the world can recognize as out-and-out Imperialism, shall be adopted as tne policy of our Government in China. The Administration should be protected from all temptation in this matter by the prompt notification of the people, through all the recognized organs of public opinion, that they would never support such a policy.

LOCAL GOVERNMENT IN IRELAND.

DUBLIN, June 4, 1900.

The Local Government Act of 1898, replacing the non-elective governing bodies by local councils for which every householder, man or woman, had a vote, has now been in operation for a year and a half. The underlying principle of the scheme, that every ratepayer should be an elector for those bodies which spend the rates, is one to which no valid objection could be made; and none was made except by the small minority, mainly landowners, who had heretofore raised and spent the local rates without any responsibility to those who paid them. Their opposition was bought off by exempting them from all local rates on their rental. A landlord now pays rates only on the land he actually occupies, and, if be is an absentee, may draw a rental of ten or twenty thousand pounds a year from bis property without contributing to the local expenditure on roads, drainage, water supply, poor relief, etc., which are necessary to the maintenance of the value of his estate.

It is difficult to convey any idea of the appalling complexity of the Local Government Act. That is a special characteristic of all English legislation for Ireland. What is conceded in the way of reform is controlled, checked, and often taken away by qualifying and modifying sections. The Local Government Act contains about 50,000 words; but this is only a small fraction of the law, for the Act provides that a vast number of subjects are to be dealt with by orders of the Lord Lieutenant and the Local Government Board; and a mass of orders and rules, ten times more voluminous than the principal act, have been issued. Then no less than fifty-six English, Irish, and Scotch Acts of Parliament are incorporated wholly or "so far as they are capable of being applied." Sixteen Acts are wholly repealed, but there are eighty-six Acts of which sections, parts, and in some cases words only are repealed. All these must be read with the Local Government Act of 1898. Thus, the new Act, apart from some few principal provisions, is rather an index to 152 other Acts, and to an immense volume of orders and rules, than a law in itself. The obscurities and meanings of all these directly enacted, incorporated, and referred to provisions can be cleared up and explained only by judicial decisions; and a body of "case law" is already emerging from the many suits that have arisen. The interests of the poorest classes about the simplest matters are still in doubt. For instance, the liability of weekly tenants to pay yearly rates will either impose a new and unexpected burden on the many poor who rent cottages by the week, or occasion a loss to the rate-collecting body; for the person supposed to be liable may be here to-day and gone to-morrow. The attempt to levy rates for the year from persons who have hitherto paid them in their rent, week by week, has already raised local storms.

The local governing bodies now are County Councils, Borough Councils, Urban and Rural District Councils. For certain general purposes, such as main roads, public buildings, and general sanitary works, the County Councils can tax or obtain contributions from the included areas, and great difficulty has been found in ascertaining what the proper contributions are from the smaller areas. The Local Government Board, consisting of the Chief Secretary, the Under-Secretary, and four Commissioners in Dublin, is supreme over all the councils. It supervises, controls, directs, advises, and can enforce obedience on almost every question. Its members are appointed by the Lord Lieutenant; it is in no sense representative, and is on most questions opposed to popular feeling. It has unlimited powers of interference, subject only to the possibility of a refractory council appealing to the law courts. It approves or disallows the appointment of all employees of the local councils, claims the right to settle what salary each officer shall be paid, and the terms and tenure of his office. Some central control of the local councils is desirable, and rigid supervision is necessary to secure uniformity of administration, accuracy of accounts, and financial purity; but the interference of the Board goes far beyond general measures to secure these, and is already arousing the hostility of councils and ratepayers throughout the country. Extravagance was the main fault debited in advance by prophets of evil to the new councils; but the reverse proves to be the case. The councils, knowing the local circumstances, engage competent surveyors, secretaries, medical officers at what they deem sufficient salaries, which those officers are willing to accept; but the Central Board requires in one case that the surveyor's salary shall be £800 instead of £600, in another £550 instead of £500; that the road overseers in one county engaged at £100 a year shall be paid £150, and so on through all grades from chaplains to midwives. As a rule, the local councils are Catholic as well as representative; the Central Board is Protestant, unrepresentative, and unacquainted with local circumstances and requirements. It is supposed that Protestant officials use undue and secret influence with the Board for their private advantage. Such interference with the salaries and tenure of the officials of the local councils has aroused a mutinous spirit among them. They are inclined to set their employers and paymasters at defiance, trusting to the Central Board to support them. A medical officer obtained two weeks' leave of absence, his council undertaking to pay a substitute for that time. The Central Board decided he should have three weeks' leave, and that his substitute should be paid for that time; but on the case coming before the Court of Queen's Bench for recovery of the third week's pay, the judges decided in favor of the local council, condemning in the plainest terms the unwarrantable interference of the Central Board. It is only in rare cases that disputes between the councils and the Board can come before the courts, but already the Board has had some bad falls for illegal and unwarrantable interference. The tendency of unrepresentative bodies is to be overbearing and tyrannical. More friendly suggestion, guidance, and helpfulness, less censorship, control, and restraint are needed from the Central Board.

The best effects of the new Act are to be seen in the relations between the local councils and their constituents, the ratepayers. Notwithstanding the grant in aid of the local rates from the national exchequer, rates have risen, partly owing to the complexity of the Act and its administration; partly owing to increased salaries and liberal retiring pensions ordered by the Central Board, and partly owing to the increased requirements of the ratepayers. I live in a small urban district with a population of 3,000, managed by a council of twelve members. For thirty years before 1898 there had hardly ever been an election. There was a high property franchise, and the local Board usually coopted its own members. Now there is an election every year of three members, that number retiring by rotation every year, but being capable of reëlection. The old Board was practically a family party; its characteristic was unapproachableness. A ratepayer who was not on terms socially with the Board could hardly get attention or even a civil answer to a complaint. The sanitation of the poorer parts was as bad as could be. The new Board are, above all things, civil—any and every ratepayer will at least be listened to; the proceedings are carried on in public; we know what is going on, and who are the active and responsible members. In the space of a year the roads in the district have been properly kept—not, as in old days, only those which led to the houses of the Board. Many long-complained-of nuisances have been abated; the water supply and public lighting have been extended to neglected parts of the district, and the Council have built twenty good laborers' cottages to replace insanitary cabins. In fact, though much remains to be done, the district has been improved, and every ratepayer takes an intelligent interest in what is being done. Many things cannot be done because, for every public improvement which would involve the taking of land or rights over land compulsorily, it would be necessary to get the assent of Parliament at Westminster at a cost which might amount to a year's income of the district. It was the intention of the Act that all rates should be collected by one body, the local council contributing its proportion to other bodies for common purposes. As the Act, hurried like all Irish measures, and much of it passed after midnight by means of the closure, turned out, this intention was not carried out. I still have to pay three different rate-collectors and to pay for their office expenses and salaries. Rates have risen and are likely to be still higher, though there is room for much economy in collection and administration.

On the whole, the Local Government Act is an improvement, but one cannot but see how much better and simpler a measure would have been passed if it had been framed by Irishmen in Dublin and discussed there under daily local criticism, instead of being forced through Parliament in Westminster by the votes of a majority who knew nothing of Ireland, who cared nothing about the details of the measure, and who were under no sense whatever of responsibility to the persons affected by its operation.

A comparison of the Local Government Boards in England and Ireland illustrates one of the chief vices of the English government of Ireland. The central Board in England costs that country £197,000 a year, or about £6 per 1,000 inhabitants. It is managed by a President, a member of the Cabinet paid £2,000 a year, assisted by a Parliamentary and a permanent Secretary, whose salaries amount to £2,800. The Central Board in Ireland costs £140,000 a year, or £31 per 1,000 inhabitants. The President is the Chief Secretary, with no special salary for this office, and nominally the head of many other boards and general administrator of Ireland. The Under-Secretary for Ireland is an ex-officio member; the Vice-President receives £2,000 a year, the same salary as the English President. His duties are shared by three Commissioners receiving between them £3,600 a year, and this Board of six members is assisted by a suitable staff of secretaries and clerks. England has always been very generous in spending Irish taxes. Eighty years ago Sydney Smith said: "Our establishments are so enormous, and so utterly disproportioned to our population, that every second or third man you meet in society gains something from the public." No change has been made in that respect; it is one of the established methods of preserving "loyalty" in Ireland. Here we have a Board of six highly paid officials, out of harmony with public opinion, to do what would be much better done, and is better done at a fifth of the cost in England, by one man who represents and is responsible to the public for his administrative acts and policy. AN IRISHMAN.

THE PARIS EXPOSITION.—II.

FRENCH FINE-ARTS SECTION.—I.

PARIS, June, 1900.

Any one whose special interest at the Paris Exhibition is in the Fine-Arts Section must, I think, pass, as I did, through an interval of bewilderment and discouragement. The things one has come to see are everywhere. Statues line certain of the avenues and alleys, and form an essential element in the architectural scheme; paintings and mosaics and gesso adorn the façades of building after building, and, in many cases, the names of the artists figure in the catalogues as if their work were part of the collection in the galleries. Nor can you enter a building, from the Salle des Fêtes or any of the foreign pavilions, to the gayest little theatre in the grounds, without finding pictures or mural decorations of more or less importance. Finally, there are the two huge palaces devoted solely to art. There is more, really, than could be comfortably seen in a lifetime.

It was for this reason that, as a result of my first bewilderment, I determined to devote myself and my time chiefly to the art of the century. I do not mean that I did not go to the Petit Palais des Beaux-Arts and enjoy the marvellous Retrospective Exhibitions arranged by M. Molinier and M. Marcou. The interior of the building is still more successful than the exterior; the galleries are large and spacious; the decoration is simple, and it is only on looking into the central court that the eye is confused and wearied by the endless ornament, elsewhere the rule. And there is no overcrowding of exhibits. It seemed to me the most restful retreat in the Exposition—and, moreover, a retreat filled with beautiful things. The art of France from the earliest ages is represented. There are ivories, bronzes, and enamels; tapestries, armor, and embroideries; furniture, wood-carvings, and a few pictures, admirably arranged; and I have brought away with me an impression of rich stuffs and gorgeous color that I cannot quickly forget, and would not, if I could. But, after all, while many of the examples shown are of unusual interest, all these different arts and the periods they cover can be studied in other galleries, and I believe a permanent collection of the same kind is to find a place in the Petit Palais after the Exposition is over. On the other hand, the chances are that never again will there be such a complete display of the painting, sculpture, and engraving of the century as that which is now made in the Grand Palais, and, here and there, overflows into the gardens and smaller halls and pavilions.

This Palace consists of two long lateral wings, connected by two lines of galleries, the whole, in form, not unlike the letter H. You enter from the Avenue Nicolas II. into an oblong court, which, at the first glance, is so small in proportion to the façade that it becomes oppressive. A long hall leads from it to the charming circular court of the smaller wing which faces the Avenue d'Antin. In these two courts and the galleries enclosing them are three distinct collections: first, the Centennial, consisting of French paintings and sculpture, drawings and prints, from the beginning of the century down to the last International Exposition; the effort having been successfully made not to repeat the exhibits of 1889. And with this series a little furniture is shown—the first time furniture has been thus introduced. Second, the Decennial, composed of the work of French artists during the past ten years; and, third, the Foreign, which includes the productions during the same period of artists of all other countries.

There is no question that in France most of the great art movements of the century have originated. I do not belittle the part played by Bonington and Constable in its early years; I will even admit that Byron and Scott "made Romanticism in France." But it was only in that country that their influence became a vital factor, destined to move the whole world of art and literature. A centennial collection of French pictures is, therefore, an indispensable introduction to the study of contemporary schools and tendencies. Of course, there are the modern series in the Louvre and the Luxembourg, and scattered through French provincial museums. But in the Louvre serious gaps occur, and I know of no gallery so ill arranged as that to which you must go to study Ingres and Delacroix, Corot, and the men of Barbizon, while, to come down to living artists, the journey must be taken across the Seine to the Luxembourg. But here, in one long succession of pleasant, well-hung, and not over-decorated galleries, you pass from the dull and decorous conventions of the First Empire to the gallant crusade of the Restoration, from the fierce fight for independence of the seventies to the calm of to-day that threatens the inauguration of a new era of dull and decorous conventionalism. There is no period more interesting in the history of art in France—no period more romantic in the history of art in any country.

The first two or three rooms of the Centennial Collection are sufficient to justify the Romantic rebellion against the Classic, or, for that matter, to account for any excess or orgy of independence. Were it not for the importance of the work historically and the personal distinction of some of the painters, you would not have the patience to linger in these galleries. Greuze did not die until the century was five years old, but his pictures, as you see them here, cannot detain you with pleasure. His sentiment, at his best, is overdone; at anything less than his best, it is unbearable. Prudhon, an Independent before the time was ripe for independence, and a few others of minor note, share the first gallery with him. But Prudhon, though here and there a portrait by him is full of character—none so much so, however, as an almost Hals-like old woman by the now wholly forgotten Guiard—always seems to me to fall just short of the charm that ought, by rights, to be found in him. And after Prudhon come the painters who were looked upon as giants by their contemporaries, and with whom it is impossible for us to sympathize: David and the men so influenced by him—Gros, Gérard, Girodet, Guérin—that they either never dared to develop whatever originality was in them, or else, as with Gros, were quick to suppress it in obedience to orders. Their pictures are without depth, without atmosphere or light; the color—but there is no color; they are dull, murky, brown, dirty; not time itself can mellow them. They excite an interest, made up partly of wonder that they ever passed for masterpieces, partly for delight in their historical associations, and just a little for irritation because, being so capable, they are nothing more. For the pictures are capable, and the painters were accomplished after their fashion. There is one portrait here by David, of a young man, over whose striking face a high felt hat throws a strong shadow, that has something of the quality of an old master, and makes you resent the more the rigid classic convention to which he sacrificed all that was finest in him. But this portrait is an exception, and though you cannot help stopping before the sketch by Gros for the "Combat de Nazareth" (the picture never finished because Napoleon probably objected to the glorification of Junot), or before the large equestrian portrait of Napoleon himself after the battle of Marengo, from Compiègne, or the other Napoleonic records, there is scarcely a canvas that appeals to you as a picture. And it is curious, too, to note that, while it is the habit to praise the classic group for at least their technical knowledge and skill, the big *machines* of David and Gros—the huge "Distribution des Aigles," from Versailles, or the "Embarquement de Madame d'Angoulême," from Bordeaux—simply prove how much better that sort of thing is done by the still more skilful painters of to-day.

Into the midst of these emotionless classical exercises, Géricault breaks with a passion that is irresistible. There are only a few of his paintings—the sketch for the famous "Radeau de la *Méduse,*" another for a Race, a third for a portrait of a chasseur, a little "Trompette" and "Cheval arrêté par des Esclaves"—and these few are not over well hung. But they arrest you at once. They are as full of life and vitality as those that preceded them are inanimate. They have the very qualities the Classicists despise, depth, atmosphere, color; above all, emotion. Here, at last, you realize, is a man who has seen things for himself, and who has cared too much for the way he has seen them to adapt his method of expression to the cut-and-dried principles of any school. I think you must discover Géricault in such company to recognize the force of his genius, to understand why the "Radeau de la *Méduse,*" in the Salon of 1812, has been considered the first Proclamation of Romanticism. The advantage of an exhibition of this kind is that it not only shows you pictures you have hitherto known by reputation only, but shows them in their proper relation to contemporary work, which makes all the difference. I fancy to many people, as to me, Géricault in his present surroundings will come as a revelation.

Had Géricault lived, there is no doubt that he must have towered head and shoulders above the men of his generation whose names are now more widely honored. To be honest, there is a glamour about the Romantic movement, the gallant rebellion of *les Jeunes* of 1830, that blinds us to its true proportions. We borrow, despite ourselves, the enthusiasm, the flamboyancy, the exaggeration of the young men themselves—the most amusing, self-conscious, posing young men, surely, who ever lived. We, too, march under the banner of the Red Waistcoat, won over by the headlong eloquence of the critics of the day to whom Eugène Devéria—the man of one picture—was the modern Veronese, and Delaroche a cross between Van Dyck and Rembrandt, and Léopold Robert another Raphael! The drawback to Romanticism, Heine wrote of the Salon of 1831, was that every man was striving too hard to develop his own personality. But when it comes to facts, when you refuse to be blinded by the glamour, what a very poor thing that personality seems to have been in most cases! As you see their work in the Exposition, you are amazed at the commonplace—the characterless commonplace—of the Devérias, the Célestin-Nanteuils, the Roqueplans, the men of forgotten reputation, whose names, Heine thought, deserve the most distinguished consideration. The conditions were much the same then as now. It was natural, no doubt, that each young man who rebelled against the David tradition, looked upon himself as a genius, and was so honored by his friends. But the majority, then as now, were painters of mediocre talent; only one or two were artists of distinction.

In the period that immediately followed David, the two great names are Ingres and Delacroix. It requires another effort of honesty to admit that both, here, are in a measure a disappointment. Ingres was the perfect draughtsman, but his painting—even the renowned "Source" of the Louvre—has always left me cold and indifferent. Nor do I think there is anything in the Exposition as fine as the "Italian Lady," also in the Louvre. A partly effaced fresco by an artist unknown, on the wall opposite, has more character and life and sincerity than the whole array of his portraits, and, to me at all events, the two little versions of the "Francesca di Rimini" are marred by every sentimental fault of the age. The single picture in which I could take pleasure was the "Entry of Charles V. into Paris," a small canvas, in which he is more primitive than the Primitives, far surpassing the more deliberate efforts of later Pre-Raphaelites. To see Ingres as the master, as the great artist he is, you must go up stairs to the gallery of drawings, where there is a wonderful series of his portraits in pencil lent by M. Bonnat. It savors almost of heresy to bracket Ingres with Delacroix, for no two painters could have been more opposed in ideals and methods. But they are alike at the Exposition in the disappointment they have in store for the student. The trouble with Delacroix is that we know too much about him, and expect too much. We have read his journal and his letters, we have read the criticism of men who admired him with the intensity of Baudelaire, and before his pictures we can never forget the greatness of his intellect, the nobility of his ambition, the independence of his standpoint. But, I asked myself as I stood in the gallery where as many as sixteen of his canvases are hanging, had I chanced upon them unawares, would the color have struck me as very much richer and more beautiful than the color of the Classicists; would his personality have appeared so defiant; would his intellectual powers have proved so staggering, his emotions so stirring? I am afraid not. His larger pictures here, the "St. Sebastian" from the church at Nantua, the "Grèce expirante sur les Ruines de Missolonghi," are formal, almost academic. It is only in an occasional little sketch that a sudden splendor of color or the rhythmical expression of movement stirs you with an appreciation of what Delacroix wanted to do, but so seldom achieved, because, probably, of the intellectual qualities for which we admire him. I found myself turning from his work with relief to two sombre, stately landscapes by Decamps in the same room—landscapes, one empty save for the glory of the afterglow, one with a line of dark mysterious figures against a low rift of gold in a clouded sky, that seem to breathe the very spirit of Romanticism, to be filled with the beauty and mystery that just eluded the grasp of Delacroix. I found myself thinking that there was far more honest emotion in "Le Port de Dieppe" by Isabey; that even Chassériau could be, at times, as effective.

Really, after Géricault, the first man to arrest you in the midst of the Horace Vernets, and the Scheffers, and the Lamis, to overwhelm you with his originality, is Daumier, better and more widely known as lithographer and caricaturist than as painter. Now and then I have come across his pictures in the smaller London galleries that make a point of exhibiting nothing but the work of the masters, but never have I seen so many collected together. There are eighteen, and they are well chosen; characteristic studies of the lawyers he so often caricatured in black-and-white, strolling players as romantic and picturesque as Gautier's, the popular types he loved, Don Quixote, the hero of whom he never tired, the Republic, symbolized as a statuesque figure that explains why his friends compared him to Michelangelo—altogether a marvellous array. No painter of the day was so genuinely a Romanticist in his attitude. To the larger number of the ambitious youths of 1830, revolt against the Classic meant merely that they consulted Byron and Scott where the older school had searched their Plutarch. But to Daumier, subject was nothing; everything depended on the way of looking at it. To him there was romance in the washerwoman as in the Knight of La Mancha, in the emigrant as in Sancho Panza. His inspiration was not in the Laras and Mazeppas, the Pirates and Corsairs, the Fausts and Margarets, then so popular, but in the space of white wall transfigured in the sunlight, in the dramatic swing and rhythm of a crowd rushing through the street, in the character of a face. He was a poet in paint, and he thrilled to the harmony of color, the melody of line. I returned again and again to the gallery (No. VIII.) where these masterpieces are hanging; the near Lamis and Devérias disappear before them, and I do not believe it will any longer be possible not to give him the place that is his by rights among the painters of the century. I notice that the canvases come from private collections; it is time as representative a series should hang in a national museum.

In the Exposition, Courbet precedes Daumier, but I have waited to speak of him because he is more closely related to the Barbizon group that follows. Upon the men of this group no new light is thrown, nothing added to our knowledge of them. Fortunately, Courbet, Troyon, Millet, Rousseau, Diaz, Corot, Daubigny, Dupré, Jacque, Monticelli have not had to wait until now to be awarded their proper rank as artists. They had their struggles for recognition, as so many great artists have had and probably always will have; they had their years of official neglect when canvases, now found worthy to adorn the walls of the Louvre, were banished to the Salon des Refusés. But they outlived the first burst of scorn and contempt; even Millet, who, in his biographies, figures as the life-long martyr to academic and bourgeois ignorance. To-day, their pictures have but to be put up at auction to complete their vindication in the eyes of the collector; the artist, of course, always knew their value. I have seen finer single examples, but never a more representative series. There are, for instance, early landscapes by Corot, in Rome, in Chartres, in which his manner was lighter than in the more familiar and accomplished idyls of his maturity, and also many of his rare portraits and figure subjects. Monticelli also appears in his different periods, more completely in the noblest of all, when his fantasies were the painted music they have been called, full of the clangors of gold and scarlet and bronze. There are several of the portraits Courbet never tired of painting of himself—among them, the stilted, youthful, promising "Bonjour, Monsieur Courbet," from the museum at Montpellier; there is as curious an early portrait of an officer by Millet; while Daubigny, and Troyon, Dupré, Diaz, and Jacque can be as thoroughly studied. The several galleries devoted to these landscapes make virtually an exposition within the Exposition.

However much the men of the little group differed, in style and method, in one respect all were agreed—except, perhaps, at times, Courbet, I mean in their love for beauty, whether of tree forms or sunlight, of vast aerial distances or running water, of the quiet village by the lake or the mysterious forest depths, of cattle at pasture or peasants in the field. If they rose joyfully to the challenge of Constable and Bonington, they could not altogether forget Claude and Poussin. To pass from them at once to Manet, and Degas, and Monet, as you must if you adhere to the order of the Exposition and of time, is to feel less surprise at the universal condemnation with which the younger generation of painters, whom also the public has learned to accept, were, in their turn, greeted upon their first appearance. The two schools are as far apart as if centuries separated them; the reason, it may be, why the work of Manet, Degas, and Monet hangs in the upstairs galleries, an immediate prelude to the modern or Decennial Collection; certainly the reason why I wait to speak of it until I begin my account of this modern collection.

N. N.

SOME PIEDMONTESE SANCTUARIES.

ALASSIO, May, 1900.

Nearly all the Americans who have visited Italy will have memories of some sanctuary, a pilgrimage church, wherein the walls about a gaudily decorated altar are hung with hearts in beaten silver, interspersed with legs and arms in the same metal; all of them tokens of gratitude for miraculous cures or other graces of the Madonna or saint to whom the church is dedicated. Occasionally the church has some charm of architecture, of painting or sculpture, or of picturesque arrangement; but in general the impression left is of tasteless splendor, and, incidentally, of the boundlessness of human credulity.

But how many travellers are there who know anything about a little group of sanctuaries of an utterly different type—quite unlike, indeed, so far as I know, anything to be seen elsewhere—all gathered almost within sight of one another in a corner of Piedmont, which, in respect of art, is generally thought of as a sort of Cinderella among the divisions of north Italy! *Almost within sight* is a figure of speech; they are all within a radius of fifty kilometres from Novara, and this centre is visible from two, at least, of the sanctuaries. Of those who have seen their glories, few have celebrated, or ever felt, their value; partly, no doubt, because these have not as yet had the fortune to receive the stamp of approval of any of those popular writers who, in matters of art, inform the crowd where it is to place its enthusiasms; and also, it may be owned beforehand, because it is not always easy for the ignorant to separate the gold from the dross, and these jewels are of a sort not readily to be appreciated by them.

Moreover, the sanctuary of this group most frequently seen is lowest in artistic importance. In the times that preceded the introduction of railways, the passage over the Simplon was a favorite among the exits and entrances of Italy. In those days an even larger number of foreigners in proportion to the whole than now learned to appreciate the exquisite little lake of Orta, with its homonymous village, loveliest among those of north Italy. The summit of the hill behind the village is crowned by a grove of great trees that throw a checkered shade upon the turf beneath, and scattered here and there are about twenty chapels of late Renaissance architecture, many of them charming, and each one consecrated to a representation of some scene in the life of St. Francis of Assisi in colored terracotta statues of life size. These are set in a painted architecture or landscape. Unfortunately, the execution is not at the level of the intention; the groups are, almost without exception, tame and wax-figury. It is because the spot is so lovely, the chapels so pretty, and the views of lake and mountain of such beauty, that the visitor lingers and returns with pleasure.

No one need wonder, then, that the impression gained at Orta should affect the visitor's judgment in the other and less known places. "Chapels with colored statues in them like those of Orta." And this would be fairly true of one of the other sanctuaries, the Sacro Monte of Varese. Statues and painting are both largely by the same artists who worked at Orta, all seventeenth-century men. It there be a difference in their achievement, it is that at Orta the groups are academically tame and feeble, while at Varese they are more theatrical and violent. At the latter place the subject is the Mysteries of the Rosary, distributed through fourteen chapels bordering a steep ascent, whence is obtained a superb view over the lake country set in mountains towards the north, and southward over the plains of Lombardy and Piedmont. The spot is charming, and, if for no other reason, at least you are grateful to the chapels for having brought you there. However, one who has observed the groups more nearly than I can pretend to, declares that, even amid the pompous feebleness, there are now and again certain figures that stand out from among their fellows, as, often, a star actor from the troupe by whom he is surrounded.

But go to Varallo in the beautiful valley of the Sesia, where is the most important of these sanctuaries, and you may get to see that the colored statues were sometimes the work of artists whom it is no exaggeration to call great. One might go to Varallo for the landscapes alone, or for the picturesqueness and local color, which have their own peculiar place in the infinite variety of Italy, or for the fresh air and the summer resorts of Monte Rosa. One might even make of the way a Bacchic pilgrimage for wines unknown to the general traveller, or even to most Italians, and which make one wonder why the hotel-keepers never give anything like that to drink. I will say nothing of the vintages of Grignolino and Gattinara, for their names, if not their virtues, are known; but, if opportunity serve, I would recommend to the knowing to try Ghemme and Lessona and Sizzano, and then to venture upon others that I pass over in silence. He may enrich his experience and at the same time his store of pleasant memories; for Italy, thanks to the treadmill round that the ordinary tourist makes in it, is a land flowing with nameless nectars that minister an innocent gladness to those who succeed in finding them out. Finally, at Varallo, aside from the Sacro Monte, there are in and about the place treasures of art for the lovers of the unhackneyed. I mention one, at least, of these, as your Baedeker would leave you in ignorance of it and it is not one of the things to be neglected. At Quarona, an hour's walk from Varallo, there is in the village church an altarpiece, Madonna and child, attributed to Gaudenzio Ferrari, that would pay you for going five times as far.

But we must not forget that we have come to Varallo for the Sacro Monte, the precipitous height that towers above the town. On the top is a "New Jerusalem," said to have been founded toward the end of the fifteenth century in imitation of the sacred places of the elder Jerusalem. It has grown beyond the original intention, and is now occupied by some fifty chapels, all of them, with the exception of one devoted to a representation of the Temptation in the Garden of Eden, filled with scenes relating to the life and death of Jesus Christ. At the foot of the shaded road that mounts from the town to the summit is the church of Santa Maria delle Grazie, which may well occupy an hour either before or after the ascent. Between the nave and the choir is a screen that mounts to the roof, after the fashion of that in Santa Maria degli Angioli at Lugano, and, like that, covered with magnificent frescoes. These two screens—sole examples of their kind, so far as I now remember—are relatively examples of the two masters whom, in this region, one is so often tempted to compare, Luini and Gaudenzio Ferrari, the former at Lugano, the latter here at Varallo. The screen is divided into twenty-one compartments filled with scenes from the life of our Lord; the central one, the Crucifixion, being equal in space to four of the others. The work is all of one period, 1513, and is in excellent preservation. It has the peculiarities of Ferrari's earlier manner, the use of gold and of actual relief in many of the accessories (horse-trappings, armor, haloes, etc.—as also in Pinturicchio's frescoes in the Borgia rooms at the Vatican), the extremely long fingers on most of the hands, etc.; but at the same time it displays the artist's feeling for beauty and sincere religious sentiment in all their force, and is perhaps more completely representative of his genius than any other single work of his. In two of the chapels on the mountain above are frescoes of his maturity, but they are badly damaged, fragments and shadows of what they were. It may be remarked that in some of the mountain valleys about Varallo one meets occasionally beautiful faces of the types portrayed by Ferrari, just as one frequently meets the women of Luini in the streets of Milan.

At first sight the figures in the chapels on the mountain are disappointing. Not only has one to combat one's contempt for painted figures and one's reminiscences of wax-figure shows, but one finds a good deal at this particular show in shabby condition. The statues are frequently in a sad state of dilapidation, or they have been dressed in tawdry finery, or suffer from want of repainting or from too much of it, or have wigs of tow or horse-hair stuck on to their native baldness; but, if one be not discouraged by the first hasty glance, the seriousness, the force, the truth of many of the figures soon make themselves felt, and gradually comes a conviction that some of these statues are works of genius. Some of the groups are seen to be full of life, and even the painted backgrounds are often of great beauty. In two cases, that of the chapel of the Crucifixion, and especially in that of the Visit of the Magi, the frescoes were among the strongest and most beautiful efforts of Gaudenzio Ferrari at his full maturity. What remains of them justifies this assertion. In the former of the two chapels, the statues also are supposed to be by him. Of course, this is no place for an enumeration of the subjects and artists of the five and forty chapels. Many of the groups in them do not rise above the wax-work-show level; many of them are barely commonplace; but, aside from Gaudenzio Ferrari, there are two sculptors, at least, who stand out so from their fellows as to command our special attention.

One is struck at finding the greater part of the better groups ascribed to one man, Giovanni D'Enrico, who worked here for many years previous to 1645. Among the groups that bear his name are the Ecce Homo, Christ before Caiaphas, Christ before Herod, Christ condemned to death, Pilate washing his hands, and, finest of all, Christ being nailed to the cross. These are more than sufficient to put the great talent of the author beyond doubt, though on examination many of the figures are found to be inferior to the better ones, and you are glad of the explanation that D'Enrico, like Rubens, had the habit of leaving a great deal of his glory to be won by his pupils. Figures like that of Caiaphas, and some of those in the Nailing to the Cross and Ecce Homo chapels, make one regret that he was not content to produce less and do his work by himself.

But a far greater man than Giovanni D'Enrico has given here the measure of his power. In the Eve of the first chapel, in that of the Temptation in the Wilderness, of the first Vision of St. Joseph, and in the populous one of the Journey to Calvary, one is surprised by figures of a force and vitality that, through all the disguises and injuries of time, are clearly revealed as masterworks. On inquiry, they prove to be by a man of Flemish origin, Tabaquet, known in Italy as Tabachetti, who came here toward the end of the sixteenth century. The histories of art, not to be wanting to their fatal inadequacy, make little or no mention of Tabachetti, while celebrating many geniuses of not half his value. I would not go to the length of Mr. Samuel Butler, whose amusing and very clever book* ought to be in the hands of every visitor to Varallo, when he exalts Tabachetti above Michelangelo, and says that, were he given a choice whether to have created the figures in the Medici chapel or those of Tabachetti, he "would not for a moment hesitate about choosing Tabachetti's, though they drove their unhappy creator mad, which the Medicean chapel never did by Michelangelo." But, in the presence of some of Tabachetti's statues, one may share Mr. Butler's enthusiasm without repeating his language.

There are works by unknown men—the Massacre of the Innocents, for example—that will repay a good deal of study, and single figures, as that of a man tugging at a rope in the chapel of the Flagellation, or that in the chapel of the Descent from the Cross, known as Il Vecchietto, the little old man, which, if not done by Tabachetti, would prove that he had his peers among his fellow-artists. Perhaps it is more reasonable to suppose that Tabachetti himself was the unaccredited author of these marvellous statues. They are, like all the rest, of an uncompromising realism; indeed, it is hard to believe that the Vecchietto is not an unusually picturesque example of the flesh and blood of one of these mountain valleys. But the realism of Tabachetti and his fellow-artists does not content itself, *more hodierno*, with the reproduction of ugly or brutal types, though there are plenty of these, but occasionally gratifies our longing for the beautiful. Tabachetti's Eve, for example, is of a loveliness that, once seen, is not readily forgoten.

The architecture of the chapels is similar to that at Orta, and some of its combinations charming; but the buildings are so arranged that there is scarcely a peep out over the surrounding landscape, and, notwithstanding the abundance of great trees on the mountain, there is little, comparatively, of the sylvan character that delights the visitor at Orta.

This group of sacred mountains includes one more, that of Crea, least known of all, but in importance second only to Varallo. It may be visited either from Serralunga or from Moncalvo, both on the line between Casale-Monferrato and Asti. There is an inn among the buildings on the summit, but I know nothing of it. The probabilities are that, unless the visitor happens to be a guest in one of the castles that crown nearly all the innumerable hill-tops of the region, he will have to content himself with a single brief inspection of the treasures of the Sacro Monte. I have left myself so little space that I can indicate but three or four of these. In the main church, besides a very fine altar-piece by Macrino D'Alba, there is a chapel decorated on all sides by beautiful frescoes by Spanzoti (or Spanzotti), master of Sodoma, according to some; by an unknown painter of Pavia in the employ of the Duke of Monferrato, according to others. Unfortunately, the chapel is so dark that the frescoes are usually shown by candlelight. On one occasion, when the great doors of the church were wide open, the light of the western sun streamed in towards the chapel, and I had a twilight view of them. It is a mystery how they were ever painted, and a still greater one that they should have turned out so beautiful. Among the outside chapels, incontestably the most important is the first on the way up from Serralunga. The subject is the Martyrdom of St. Eusebius, who was stoned to death in front of the fine church of St. Andrew at Vercelli. The frescoes are by Guglielmo Caccia, known as Moncalvo, a post-Gaudenzian painter, and the statues, by Tabachetti, are extremely interesting. I shall never forget the powerful figure of one of the stoners—this said without prejudice to the others.

Crea has two or three chapels filled by sculptors of to-day, and one of them, the Journey to Calvary, by Bistolfo, counts among the most noteworthy achievements of recent Italian sculpture—or rather of modelling, since the figures are in plaster of Paris. Elegance, grace, distinction, and a certain gentle pathos are the chief characteristics of the work. These are quite enough to lift it above mediocrity, or indeed above any of the ancient groups, excepting those due to the genius of Tabachetti.

It only remains to be said that the hilltop of Crea is covered with a dense wood, in which one comes upon the chapels as surprises. There are outlooks, however, and from one (where, by the way, is an astonishing representation of Paradise) the panorama spread before one is superb, extending from Monte Rosa in the west to Milan in the northeast, with Vercelli and Novara as soft dark patches in the blue haze that overhangs the valley of the Po, and to the south the range of the Ligurian Apennines. At night the electric lights of Novi may be seen on the further edge of the plain underlying these mountains. S. K.

Correspondence.

INTRINSICATE, INTRINSECATE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Among the old dramatists who have this word, Shakespeare was neither the first nor the last. There exists, however, hitherto unnoticed, an earlier authority for it than any of them, namely, the translator of the Second Part of Macchiavelli's *Arte of warre:*

> "The exercises of warre, seeming unto them partly not necessary, partly an *intrinsicate* matter, whiche they understande not." Peter Whitehorne, *Certaine Wayes for the ordering of Souldioures in battleray*, etc. (1562), fol. 40 r. (ed. 1573).

Intrinsicate is irreflectively derived, by Theobald, from the Latin *intrinsecus*, or else from the Italian *intrinsecarsi*, though the context, wherever he had met with the strange term, plainly indicates what it was intended to signify. Dr. Johnson, drawing his bow at a venture, and that a wild one, is of opinion that it "seems to have been ignorantly formed between *intricate* and *intrinsecal*."

How did the dramatists come by *intrinsicate?*

Improbable, with near approach to impossibility, is the supposition that any two persons, whatever their notions as to its genesis, can have brought it forward independently. Must not, then, its adoption by Shakespeare and the rest, as substitutable for *intricate*, have originated from its use seen in the quotation given above, or occurring elsewhere? This view is surely colourable, in presence of the fact that "intrinsecate matter" renders *viluppo*, "intricacy." Had he essayed to enrich our mother-tongue by adopting a full-bodied synonym of "familiar" from the Italian, Whitehorne would not have missed the mark in his neoterizing. His *intrinsicate*, a fancied improvement on *intricate*, was, pretty clearly, due to somebody's misapprehending the sense of *intrinsicato* or *intrinsecato*.

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* *Ex Voto:* An Account of the Sacro Monte or New Jerusalem at Varallo-Sesia. London: Longmans. 1890.

Playfully and otherwise, Shakespeare has minted a good number of barbarisms, one of which is *intrinse*. This, being in *Lear*, is earlier than the equivalent *intrinsicate* of *Antony and Cleopatra*. Both words the Rev. Professor Skeat uninquiringly identifies with *intrinsic*.

Was Dr. Johnson acquainted with any unetymological monstrosity at all matching *intrinsicate* as he was disposed to account for it? Be this as it may, we of later times are acquainted with one in Mr. and Mrs. Browning's *adaptitude*, the lady leading the way. Pity it is that eccentrics, if they will produce such deformities as this, with *electrocute*, *imson*, *oratund*, *phillog*, *utian*, and the like, should perpetrate their felonies in the eye of the public.

Though it would have been no accession to our language to Anglicize *intrinsicato* in its proper acceptation, yet, as regards another Italian vocable, *scienziato*, Dr. Whewell, if he had proposed to invest it with an English dress, would, besides avoiding a breach of analogy, have precluded copious ink-spilth. That *scientiate* was once used here is the proof:

> "Such as will learne an Art or a Science, the first object that they set before them is not immediately that of the Art, or that of the Science, but an Artist, or a *Scientiate*, and that not the greatest neither but the nearest. . . . When the Artist or *Scientiat* hath arriv'd," etc. Anon., Translation of Malvezzi's *Pourtract of the Politicke Christian Favourite* (1647), p. 100.

F. H.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND, June 19, 1900.

Notes.

McClure, Phillips & Co. announce 'The Gavel and the Mace,' a guide to parliamentary practice by Frank W. Hackett, Assistant Secretary of the Navy; an 'Encyclopædia of Etiquette'; and 'The Trust Problem,' by Prof. Jeremiah W. Jenks of Cornell University.

Noyes, Platt & Co., Boston, give their imprint to a very tasteful little Official Catalogue of the American Fine Arts Exhibit at the current Paris Exposition. It contains the personnel of the Commission of the Department, the national juries convened on both sides of the water, biographical sketches of the American contributors, the catalogue of works, and half-tone examples of these.

'The Associate Hermits' carries on the altogether handsome uniform edition of Mr. Frank R. Stockton's ingenious fiction; and a companion volume is numbered one of "Stories," with "The Lady or the Tiger" at the fore, followed by its sequel and other short pieces (Scribners).

The Scribners have entered the lists where publishers contend for cheaper editions of Carlyle's 'French Revolution.' Theirs makes a plump octavo volume of 800 pages in fair type, and is provided with a certain number of illustrations after old prints, in rather odd selection, so far as portraits go. The index, as we remarked recently of a rival edition, is a copy, and of itself lends no distinction or special value to the reprint, as it might have done.

Mr. Moncure D. Conway's 'Thomas Paine,' to turn to a kindred work, has been done into French by Félix Rabbe (since deceased), and handsomely published by Plon-Nourrit & Cie., Paris. Mr. Conway's increasing exploitation of this theme is well known, and prepares one to learn that whoever wants his completest tale about his hero must resort to the present translation. Some excision has taken place also, however, and the French and English presentations are needed to supplement each other, even though the former be "en grande partie un ouvrage nouveau," as Mr. Conway explains in his preface. The author appropriately chooses for his frontispiece a portrait by Laurent Dabos, a painter of Toulouse.

A scholarly little book, printed very attractively in a first American (third English) edition, is W. Arnold Buffum's 'Tears of the Heliades,' an essay on amber as a gem; more particularly on Sicilian amber so used. The subject has seemingly been thoroughly ransacked on the historical side by one who is a collector as well as capable of bookish research. The agreeable chapters abound, too, in classical and vernacular poetical quotations, pretty descriptions, even romantic incident. There are one colored illustration and two photographic, besides a geological section of the Amber Coast.

'Appletons' Annual Cyclopædia' for 1899 differs in no essential feature from the long series of which it is the latest issue. It has a map of China to serve roughly for reference in the present extremity, and its three larger portraits are of the late Gen. Lawton, Paul Krüger, and President Loubet. The editor's pretension to "clearly set forth" "the causes, the processes, and the result so far as reached" of the wars in the Philippines and in South Africa is violently negatived by his account of the occupation of Manila and the subsequent outbreak of hostilities between Aguinaldo and his followers and our forces. It is not too much to call the statement on p. 695 a gross perversion of the facts. The survey of the year's literary output, American and foreign, being an uncritical listing of titles, would be more intelligibly and usefully reduced to a frank classified catalogue, so printed as to permit the eye to run over and take it in easily.

The Robert Clarke Co. of Cincinnati publish the 'Recollections of a Lifetime,' by Roeliff Brinkerhoff (8vo, pp. 448). Gen. Brinkerhoff is best known by his long devotion to prison reform and to the improvement of hospitals for the insane and idiotic. He has taken an interest also in archæology and genealogy (especially that of the Brinkerhoff family). The natural outcome of these tastes is the compilation of his own Recollections of a lifetime which has brought him in touch with interesting people and events. In very early life he was tutor in the Donelson and Jackson families in Tennessee. Returning home, he threw himself into the anti-Nebraska movement and into the new Republican party. During the civil war he was a quartermaster, having large responsibilities in depots for the purchase and distribution of supplies. He was later a revenue reformer and an independent in politics. He had personal acquaintance with many leading men in political life, and enlarged the circle to include those most prominent in the benevolent activities to which he has given his later years. The revision of his MS. for the press has been too careless, with the result that many minor errors have escaped his notice. The proof-reading is also very faulty. In paper, type, and presswork the volume is excellent, and the matter was worth greater care in the other respects mentioned.

In the fourth and last volume of 'How England Saved Europe' (Scribners), Dr. Fitchett reaches his most patriotic heights. His subject is the warfare on French soil in 1814-'15, leading up to the abdication at Fontainebleau and then to Waterloo. Chapters on St. Helena and Napoleon's historical character are also furnished. As it is Dr. Fitchett's thesis to show that England actually did save Europe from ruin, he is led to describe Bonaparte's malignity in the colors of the pit. "He scorned truth. He worshipped force. He was absolutely pitiless. He erected selfishness into a law. He counted himself apart from morality, or above it. Religion to him was a tool, and capable of being used for very irreligious ends. He poured out human blood like water. . . . He substituted 'glory' for 'duty' in human ethics. He slew his own conscience, and did much to slay the conscience of the world. Yet all this, when seen in retrospect, failed to stir him with a thrill of pity or prick him with a pang of self-blame." In a word, what Seeley is to Thiers that Dr. Fitchett is to Seeley. Every demerit of Napoleon, moreover, is turned to the glory of England. Such volumes do not contribute to the friendship of nations, but, on the other hand, we must applaud Dr. Fitchett for closing his series of red-covered and somewhat fiery volumes with a panegyric of peace.

Dr. Emmet Densmore's 'Consumption and Chronic Diseases' (New York: The Stillman Publishing Co.) shows one of the tendencies of the age to strike into paths not marked out under the authority of the schools, and as such it has its good and its objectionable sides. The writer describes vividly the remarkable results obtained in the treatment of pulmonary consumption in sanitaria where reliance is placed almost exclusively upon three influences, abundant food, rest or freedom from undue fatigue, fresh air. The book is written to demonstrate that the essentials of the treatment can be carried out at home. By "fresh air" is to be understood, however, not alone reasonable ventilation, but a life spent out of doors, or in rooms in which the windows are partly open summer and winter, day and night. By "food" is meant a quantity which will insure a rapid gain in weight, to be taken whether the patient wants it or does not. The author advocates the exclusive use of milk for this purpose, a dose being taken every forty-five minutes or so throughout the day. Valuable suggestions are made with regard to clothing, exercise, and other matters, yet they should not be adopted wholly at random. Fresh air, to be safe, should be almost continuous, and milk, as an exclusive article of diet, is certainly not without its objections, and we cannot avoid the suspicion that, when it is found so useful, it is because it shares the power that attaches to all exclusive extremes, to secure enthusiasm and confidence which reason and reasonable methods cannot inspire. Nevertheless, the principle advocated is of high importance.

New modes of locomotion call for a new class of guide-books. Miss Katharine M. Abbott, who began by showing what trolley trips were possible and interesting on the New England coast, from and to Boston, has now undertaken the same service for the District of Columbia, and publishes, through G. P. Putnam's Sons, an illustrated pocket volume entitled 'Trolley Trips in and about Fascinating Washington.' The open electric conveyance is thus made to conduct the stranger confidently to the chief sights of a city in the shortest possible time, with a minimum of fatigue and of expense. A map makes the routes easily comprehended in advance, and is an added insurance against "getting lost."

Students of the classics, as well as those interested in the history of the woman movement, will read with satisfaction a brochure by Prof. Ivo Bruns of Kiel: 'Frauenemancipation in Athen; Ein Beitrag zur attischen Kulturgeschichte des fünften und vierten Jahrhunderts' (Kiel: Schmidt & Klaunig). The first part of the treatise is a defence of Euripides against the accusation of misogyny, which in manner recalls Lessing's 'Rettung des Horaz.' The inferences which the well-known scholar draws from the Attic writers of the fifth and fourth centuries suggest the most striking analogies between our modern woman movement and the Athenian, which reaches its climax in Plato's 'Republic.' But the philosophers of the fourth century, so the writer argues, received all the postulates regarding the condition of woman from the preceding epoch, during which public opinion was greatly agitated over the problem. This pamphlet is of "culture-historical" interest, also, as indicating a transitional stage between the use of Latin and of German in university affairs. On the title-page and the last inside page we find, in Ciceronian Latin, the announcement of, and invitation to, the celebration, in the University aula, of the Emperor's (latest) birthday, on which occasion one of the professors was to express in a *German* oration the common sentiments of deep affection—"oratione *patrio sermone* habenda communia omnium vota auspicatissima pronuntiabit."

'Das herrschende Schulsystem und die nationale Schulreform,' by Prof. E. Dahn (Kiel and Leipzig: Lipsius & Fischer), is not a well-written book, but it may serve a useful purpose as a source of information supplementary to any or all English books on education in Germany. It deals almost exclusively with secondary schools, and the author, as director of one of these, and as editor of the *Pädagogisches Archiv*, knows much about inside affairs, about the weal and woe (especially the latter) of the teachers and pupils in these institutions, that no foreign visitor can ever find out.

Asher & Co., Berlin, have recently published a volume on the German workingmen's insurance system: 'Einrichtung und Wirkung der deutschen Arbeiterversicherung.' The magnitude and success (for so much must be acknowledged even by disbelievers in this kind of State Socialism) of the organization is shown by the fact that since 1885 more than two billions of marks have been paid in indemnities to workingmen and women through this Government institution; the amounts contributed to the insurance fund by the workingmen, the employers, and the Government being, respectively, 1,164, 1,099, and 150 million marks.

Three Bulletins of the Copyright Office at Washington afford the freshest guidance to owners of literary property. No. 1 (4th ed.) gives the Copyright Law of the United States in force July, 1900; No. 2 (part ii.) gives instruction for Registration for Copyright Protection within the British Dominions; No. 2 (part iii.) contains the Rules and Forms relating to Copyright Registration in Canada, together with the Canadian Copyright Law of 1886.

A special American-South African number of *Hollandia*, "a weekly illustrated paper for the Dutch-speaking world at large," is by exception wholly in English. It is an appeal for American intervention against the operations of the game of war which the Boers initiated. It arrives when all eyes in America, as in Europe, are turned Chinaward to a much more stupendous drama, and when the Roman occupation of the late South African republics has gone so far as to put intervention out of the question. In judging whether the war is glorious or inglorious for England, some of the argumentation of *Hollandia* will have weight; but that other question, whether the Boers have the same claim on the world's sympathies as baffled invaders of British territory that they would have had if they had simply resisted within their own borders, is not to be settled by historical retrospect carried back of October 9, 1899, the date of the Boers' ultimatum.

Consular Reports for June contains a comprehensive account, with numerous statistics, of last year's Russian petroleum trade, from which it appears that though more work has been done than in 1898 and the total production has increased, by nearly five million barrels, to sixty-three millions, the results have been less satisfactory. The wells have increased in number, but the daily average output from each well has fallen from 199 to 174 barrels, and the cost of production has seriously increased. "The limit of drilling operations," it is inferred, "has probably been reached." There is also a curious report of the French system of taxation, and a short but suggestive article by our Consul-General at Berlin on Germany's food supply. He notes that the population of the empire has nearly trebled during the past century, and the agricultural products, by reason of scientific culture and freedom from the destruction and waste of local wars, have nearly quadrupled. This is offset, however, by a "vast and increasing diversion of these products to other than life-sustaining purposes in the form of food. Nearly the whole of the barley crop is malted and used for the manufacture of beer; potatoes and maize in vast quantities are devoted to the production of alcohol, and the best lands of Germany are now devoted to the culture of beet-sugar, the greater portion of which is exported." Another report calls attention to the greatly increased cost of living in Germany and the disproportionate advance in wages.

The annual report of the Woman's Education Association of Massachusetts shows a wide range of useful work, from the provision of fellowships for foreign study, the maintenance of the American Women's Table at the Zoölogical Station at Naples, and the sending of twenty-nine travelling libraries and seven picture sets to the rural towns, to the promotion of vacation schools in Boston and the labelling of the trees and shrubs in the Back Bay Fens. The special subject to which the attention of the Association has been directed during the past year has been the place of moral education. The mere acquisition of knowledge should no longer be regarded as the chief purpose of education, but "the building up of character must be part of the teaching in our schools."

Was the Epistle to the Hebrews written by a woman? is the novel question raised by the brilliant church historian of the Berlin University, Professor Harnack, to which he gives the equally surprising answer that in all probability this is the case. His discussion of this problem, which constitutes the *pièce de résistance* in the first issue of the new *Zeitschrift für neutestamentliche Wissenschaft*, is a skilful combination of the condition of affairs as presupposed by this anonymous letter, with what we know of the character and history of the noteworthy couple, Aquila and Priscilla. He concludes that this letter is the product of their pen; the wife in all probability, chiefly on account of the total suppression of the author's name by even the earliest literature, having been the chief factor in the composition. Harnack does not pretend to have discovered any data in the literature of the Apostolic period that would directly or indirectly connect the name of Priscilla with the authorship of Hebrews. His argumentation is entirely along the line of inner literary and historical criticism, and is a model specimen of this kind of analytic and constructive research. The author frankly heads his article "Probabilia."

—The sixth volume of the 'Life and Correspondence of Rufus King' (Putnam) completes the work, and shows how active King was in the last eleven years of his life. The Federal party had committed suicide, as Gore said, and Monroe in the Presidential chair gave an administration that was commonplace, and more remarkable for the intrigues of members of his Cabinet for the succession than for its own merits and statesmanship. "The election of a Pope is purity, simplicity, and certainty when compared with the system of electing a President by a caucus. The conclave of Cardinals are closed, and soon walled up, while the caucus of Congress to elect a President is composed of members who separately confer with whom they please, and for one or two years carry on the intrigue to choose a President." So King wrote in 1823, when four candidates were in the field. He had been reëlected to the Senate in 1820 under conditions very flattering to himself, and still exercised much influence by his moderation, wide knowledge, and experience. In the muddy politics of New York he was active, favoring a convention to revise the Constitution, and much opposed to the Clinton faction. It is extraordinary to find him seriously recommending Van Buren for a position on the bench of the Supreme Court, and he does not seem to have understood that smooth and dexterous political manager. As a Federalist, he disliked John Quincy Adams; and when Monroe spoke slightingly of the Federalists, a coolness arose between King and the President.

—In domestic affairs much of importance was done. On the Missouri question King took a leading part, and he argued against slavery on the highest ground, that man could not enslave man. He did not believe, however, that the institution could be touched by Congress in States where it already existed. The passage of the compromise was fought ably, and, when accomplished, was looked upon as a defeat absolute and complete. "The pretended concession, for it is revocable at pleasure, is itself of no value, and has been provided as an apology to the members of the free States who have assisted in putting us under a Government of the privileged order of men who are henceforth to be and for ever to remain our masters." It was King who framed the Navigation Act of 1818, but the conditions of American commerce then seemed to justify such a law. These conditions have long since passed away, and the law should have been repealed. At the close of his term as Senator, when he was in his seventieth year, he was offered and accepted the English mission, but held it only for a year. In this last volume will be found an abundance of new and interesting materials on State and national issues and politics. The editing has been judicious, although complaint might be made of the long extracts from the annals of Congress and Adams's Diary, necessarily occupying space which could be filled with original matter. The "memoranda" on p. 427 should have been dated 1820, not 1821.

—The inaugural address of Professor Macdonald of the Hartford Theological Seminary has been reprinted under the title of 'Muslim Jurisprudence.' Since our advance into the Sulu archipelago, the difficult subject to which this pamphlet introduces us can no longer be regarded as purely academic. An original analysis is here given of the sources of Muslim Law, and a sketch of the four famous schools by which that law has been expounded and developed. The treatment is so lucid and so far from dry that he who runs, and even he who skips, may not only read, but be interested. At the base of these legal systems lies, first, what we may term Statute Law, namely, the revelations promulgated by Muhammad and embodied in the Qur'an; second, what may be called Case Law, consisting of precedents derived from Muhammad's usage as preserved by history or tradition. Upon that foundation, by means of what Austin calls "illations and deductions," and by skilfully added theories of their own, the ingenuity of countless generations of jurists has built up these elaborate structures. The dictum of Sir Henry Maine, that all law has been developed, first through legal fiction, next through equity, and lastly by legislation, is true only in part as applied to these systems; for legislation in the ordinary sense they have never known. The spectacle of a law expanded and modified by text-writers for more than a thousand years, yet not amenable to the will of any sovereign or any legislative body, is indeed calculated to astonish the Western mind. How then, we ask, has this law been amended so as to deal with the changing conditions of the vast Muslim world?

—That is the question answered by this essay. Each of the great jurists devised some progressive principle—which we may roughly denote by that "slippery expression" Equity—wherewith to override or mitigate the rigors of the older law. In the school of Abu Hanifa this equity was based on Preference—*i. e.*, the jurist's choice of what was fair and just. The equity of Malik was founded on what we should now call Public Policy—*i. e.*, the judge's view of what was to the public advantage. In the hands of ash-Shafi'i the remedial principle took the form of upholding rules settled by Agreement—*i. e.*, such as had been accepted by a consensus of Muslim opinion. The last principle was the most fruitful of the three. "The hope for the future lay, and lies, in the principle of the Agreement." Professor Macdonald points out that the Muslim jurists learnt their methods of legal interpretation from those opinions or general statements laid down by the Roman *jurisprudentes*, and of which Justinian's Digest so largely consists. The analogies are many and striking. So, also, the Muslim principle of Agreement reminds one of the rescript of Hadrian, which ordained that, if the opinions of the licensed *prudentes* all agreed, such common opinion had the force of statute; but, if they disagreed, the judge might follow which he chose. We trust that the author may some day expand this valuable essay, since shortness is its only shortcoming. The difficult task of producing compactness without density has been admirably performed.

—All the manifestations of State medicine have a common motive, the prevention of disease. It is near the root in principle, although late in development, to engage that the children assembled in schools be neither damaged nor put in risk thereby. But whether caused by the schools, or merely noted therein, it appears that "observation and special research show that a considerable percentage of the children in schools are in such a condition of ill-health that their physical development is vastly more in need of special attention than their intellectual development." There do not seem to be statistics to differentiate the conditions caused by improper furniture, overcrowding, poor construction, unreasonable hours, etc., due to the school as such, from those connected with the children as independent causes. But the large public schools of our cities may be choked with opportunities for the spread of the ordinarily recognized contagious diseases, and with continuing physical influences that depress susceptible youth. The latter are an atmosphere saturated with organic débris and with the general emanations from the body that create crowd-poisoning. These are independent of the physical evils generated in or fostered by the imperfect bodies in which so many of our souls abide. No school officer whose ordinary duty is instruction, however well trained, can do more than observe the concrete consequence. He may notice that a child is obviously ill or manifestly defective. His duties to the whole carry him beyond those that are sick. As a teacher he is charged with teaching, not with house-building, nor body-building, nor with the repair of either. There should, it is reasoned, be a responsible physical director, competent to detect, and possessing authority to remove, the cause of offence. To follow this to its conclusion involves a discussion as to the limits within which, if at all, the State should compel public or other medical service to be invoked, beyond merely affording opportunity for its voluntary use. If vaccination, as it certainly should be, is compulsory, and diphtheria must be isolated, must incipient consumption be segregated, and should the State destroy the mosquito host of the malarial parasite as it does the gypsy-moth and the scale-insect? These remarks are based upon an interesting but incompressible paper on "Health Inspection in Schools" by Prof. William H. Burnham of Clark University in the *Pedagogical Seminary* for April last.

—Perhaps no small fact is more pregnant with the character of our anæsthetic age than the decline in the popularity of the celebrated treatise of Boethius. It is not to philosophy that people who fancy themselves terribly stricken nowadays go for consolation. They more often, whether rich or poor, betake themselves to travel. They cannot any longer understand how such indisputable woe as that of the author of the 'De Consolatione Philosophiæ' could have the heart for such an artificial style of composition. The reason is, that the Gorgon terrors of adversity are no longer remembered. They are among those picturesque features of the good old times which the prosaic nineteenth century has expunged, except from seats of war. Nevertheless, we have to record the appearance of the third English edition of the 'De Consolatione' within as many years, and that without counting Middle-English or Anglo-Saxon recensions. Dr. Walter John Sedgefield, editor of King Alfred's version for the Clarendon Press, has now brought out, through the same press (New York: Henry Frowde), a translation into modern English. Nobody would seek acquaintance with the work itself in this volume. On the contrary, its interest lies precisely in its great departures from the original—the ruthless excision of many of its fine passages, which marks King Alfred as a regular blue-pencil editor, and the still more remarkable and numerous insertions, which certainly throw a great deal of curious light upon the character of the English hero. Dr. Sedgefield has provided the volume with an entertaining introduction of over forty pages, which, after dealing with Boethius and with Alfred, branches off upon the subject of the previous English versions of the book. It gives specimens of most of them which are decidedly curious, and are doubtless intended to be reprints literatim, which unfortunately they are not—quite. There are brief but sufficient notes, and an alphabetical index. The volume is even prettier than James's edition of 1897. Neither is equal to Lord Preston's of 1695, which, if one likes the grandiloquence of that generation, is the most agreeable English presentation of a book that affords food for various reflections.

—The Clarendon Press edition of Burnet's 'History of My Own Time,' issued under the care of Dr. Osmund Airy (New York: Henry Frowde), is already known through the excellent first volume, which brought the reign of Charles II. down to 1673. The second volume, which now appears after an interval of three years, carries on the Bishop's narrative to the accession of James II., and finishes one stage of the undertaking. For the convenience of those who wish to buy only this section of the work, a full analytical index is provided of the part that ends with the death of Charles. As a piece of printing, the edition is very beautiful. Dr. Airy's comments are learned and careful. The need of good notes is especially great in the case of a writer like Burnet, who entered into political life and had strong prepossessions about persons. The notes are of two classes: the first deals with the state of the MS., and the second contains matter of elucidation. Burnet made a considerable number of changes in language, etc., when he revised his composition, and his manner of work is at least partly reflected in the textual notes. For historical side-lights and corrections Dr. Airy has used not only the State papers, memoirs, and other writers contemporary with Burnet, but the most recently published monographs. Here is an example of the rapidity with which material accumulates. Dr. Airy states that "since the whole of the notes were in type, the Montagu papers have been edited by the Historical Manuscripts Commission, and that Miss Foxcroft has published her laborious and very exhaustive work upon Halifax. I name only two out of many fresh sources of information which have seen the light during the progress of the book through the press." A glance at the note (p. 20) on the marriage of the Duke of York with Maria D'Este will show the reader what pains Dr. Airy has bestowed upon his task. Here and at numerous other points he displays full command of recent Continental studies in the field which Burnet traverses. It is not likely that the Bishop of Sarum will require another editor in our day.

LANG'S HISTORY OF SCOTLAND.

A History of Scotland from the Roman Occupation. By Andrew Lang. In two volumes. Vol. I. With a frontispiece. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1900.

A good history of Scotland has for some time been needed. Tytler's, published more than sixty years ago, has been long out of date, and although it is a creditable piece of work, written with judgment and fairness, it is deficient in force and pictorial skill. John Hill Burton's book, now some thirty years old, marked an advance, and showed a considerable mastery of the post-mediæval sources. But the style and manner were not quite equal to the theme, nor were the salient features of the historical development of the nation brought out with adequate breadth and clearness of view. Mr. E. W. Robertson and Mr. W. F. Skene did much for the very obscure early period, of which they possessed an altogether exceptional knowledge, and have rendered the task of their successors much easier. More recently Dr. Hume Brown has written an excellent book coming down to the accession of Queen Mary. But the field was still open for a comprehensive treatment of the whole subject which should be on the one hand thoroughly critical as regards the earlier days of obscurity, and on the other hand broad and impartial as regards that period, covering the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, in which Scotland plays a considerable part in general European history, and which has given rise to so many passionate controversies involved not only with religious feeling, but with predilections for or aversions to figures like those of Queen Mary and John Knox, the later Stuart Kings and the Covenanters—dramatic figures, who excited a sympathy in their own time which has not died out of the Scottish mind.

Does Mr. Lang's book promise to fill the void and take rank as likely to be, for some time to come, the standard book on Scottish history? One can speak but tentatively, for we have before us only the first volume, which carries the story down from the beginning of things to the early days of the Reformation, when the murder of Cardinal Beaton in 1546 opened the long religious conflict which virtually ended with the battle of Killiecrankie in 1689. Mr. Lang has many qualifications for his enterprise. He is, to begin with, a Scot, yet a Scot who has lived long enough outside Scotland to have got rid of the narrower forms of Scottish patriotism. He is a skilful and practised writer, with much grace of style, though, as an acute critic has remarked, his sentences are better than his paragraphs. He is fortunate in possessing a strong taste for archæology and a complete mastery of folklore, gifts very helpful in dealing with the obscure early periods. He is industrious, generally accurate, and entirely abreast of the modern methods of historical criticism. With these gifts, and having evidently spent time and pains upon the historical sources, it was to be expected that he should produce a book of real merit. This he has done. This history promises, if it goes on as it has begun, to be on the whole the best account of Scottish affairs that has yet appeared. It honestly grapples with, if it does not always solve, the problems that are due to the deplorable paucity and brevity of the authorities for nearly all the earlier, and parts even of the later, periods. It shows an interest in the Celtic as well as the Angle or Saxon part of the Scottish nation which has been wanting in some Scotch historians, and it fairly assigns to each element its share in the building up of a Scottish people out of very diverse races. It does justice, but not more than justice, to the two national heroes of the war of independence, without attempting to decry the merits or to deny the case, such as it was, of their English antagonists. It is written with spirit throughout; wit is not wanting; and some of the descriptive passages, such as that of the fight of Flodden Field, are full of color and power, while the chapters on economic, social, and constitutional matters show real insight and grasp. They prove that though Mr. Lang may have become best known as a littérateur, he has the capacities of an historian.

The only defects which it seems necessary to note are the habit into which he sometimes falls, though it is one which a diligent student of Homer might have been expected to avoid, of occasionally telling a story by allusion rather than in a direct, straightforward way, and the tendency to let the broad results of a series or group of events become obscured by the multiplicity of details. He is so conscientious in giving the details, often in themselves tedious or perplexing, of a string of quarrels or intrigues, that we see only the details, and fail to catch a broad general impression of the trend of things, and the general result that emerged. This is especially the case in the two very tangled reigns of David the Second and James the Fifth, when the perfidies and tergiversations of the Scottish nobles attained their highly repellent maximum. More selfish or more treacherous leaders no country ever had; and Mr. Lang is not too strong in his denunciations of their conduct. It is certainly difficult to convey a clear impression of the main stream of events in such a period; yet we feel that more might have been achieved in this way than the book achieves. There is also another danger which Mr. Lang has to avoid. He evidently desires to do justice all around, and is (on the whole) commendably free from partisanship; but in his references to the Scottish reformers of the sixteenth century, and in particular to John Knox, there is a note of acridity, not so much in the substance of what is said as in the manner of saying it, which will expose him to the suspicion of partisan feeling. It is natural that the violence of the contemporary assailants of the old Church, and the unfairness of some of its most recent enemies, should drive him the other way. He is, for instance, well justified in his exposure of Mr. Froude's constant misrepresentations. That best known of recent British writers on the Reformation period might almost seem to have been born with a natural aversion to truth, an aversion sedulously cultivated during a long literary career. But the reign of Queen Mary, with which the second volume of this History will deal, has been a field for such embittered controversy that any one who touches it had better avoid the kind of tone which characterizes Mr. Lang's anticipatory references, in various parts of the first volume, to the Presbyterian reformers of the sixteenth century. Such faults as they committed can be just as effectively set forth and reprobated in a less biting and provocative fashion than that which Mr. Lang employs.

There is, in our author's treatment of his subject, perhaps not quite enough reference to the contemporary history of the rest of Europe, though it is no doubt true that down till the reign of James the Fourth Scotland stood rather out of the general stream of that history, and had few international relations except with France. There is also less use made than might have been expected of the physical structure of Scotland as a determining factor in the growth of the nation, and in those wars, foreign or intestine, which fill so large a part of her annals. There are some instances of carelessness, such as "Pont de Garde" for "Pont du Gard," "Egil Skallagrim," for "Egil, son of Skallagrim." But we forbear to dwell on such omissions or these small inaccuracies lest we should appear to disparage what is, take it all in all, a valuable and interesting piece of work, which throws much new light upon its subject, and contains many fine and striking passages.

No country in Europe has had a more romantic history than Scotland. No country has, in proportion to its population, produced a greater number of remarkable men, or contributed more to the general progress of letters, science, and abstract thought in the modern world. Yet no country of Western or Central Europe was, during the Middle Ages, more backward in what is called civilization. Scotland stood at the beginning of the sixteenth century much where England and France had stood at the beginning of the thirteenth. She was a prey to frightful disorders. The Celtic Highlands were, and remained for two centuries longer, under their primitive clan-system. The lowlands were hardly in better case, so far as law and order was concerned, for the nobles carried on almost incessant wars with one another or against the King. It was not till near the middle of the sixteenth century that James the Fifth created a regular system of central judicature, such as had been created for England by Henry the Second nearly 400 years before. The lines of the political Constitution were still unsettled, if indeed one can talk of a political constitution where war and violence were the rule. The people were poor and rude, speaking a form of English very unlike that of their Southern neighbors, and possessing few of the comforts, scarcely any of the luxuries of life. No doubt the nation already abounded with literary talent, and had begun to produce poets of distinction. But it was the struggles of the Reformation that were to give a definite form to that peculiar character by which it has asserted itself in the modern world, and retains, even after two centuries of union with its immensely larger and wealthier partner of the South, so much that is distinctive, so much that is interesting to the visitor from abroad. Already the long resistance to England from the days of Wallace downwards had braced up the spirit of the people, and united, all over the Lowlands, the dissimilar Celtic and Saxon elements into one nation. The long strife with Rome and Episcopacy, which filled the reigns of the last four Stuarts, was to complete the work. We trust that before many months Mr. Lang will give us his narrative of this period, which will test his powers even more fully than the difficult task which he has now accomplished of describing the birth and youth of the Scottish people.

Four Months Besieged: The Story of Ladysmith. By H. H. S. Pearse, the *Daily News* (London) Special Correspondent. With maps, and illustrations from sketches and photographs by the Author. The Macmillan Co. Crown 8vo, pp. xiv, 244.

This volume sustains the well-established reputation of the war correspondence of the *Daily News*, though it is not a compilation of letters published in that journal. Mr. Pearse, the special correspondent, kept careful current notes of events during the siege of Ladysmith, and wrote letters which miscarried, were suppressed by the censorship, or were belated, so that a valuable fund of original matter is here edited from his copies. He is a veteran in years as well as in service, who had two sons serving in the volunteers of General Buller's column. The father in the beleaguered town and the sons fighting with the relieving army lend a romantic interest to the story. The tone of experienced judgment in the book is warranted by the age and preparation of the writer, and quickly wins our confidence.

The little town of Ladysmith was a natural growth in the progress of South African colonization. It was the trading centre for the colonists of North Natal, where the road from Durban, the principal port on the Indian Ocean, to Johannesburg and Pretoria, approaches the Drachensberg range and throws off a westward branch towards Kroonstad and the centre of the Orange Free State. In such a broken country the watercourses are the natural lines of travel, and their valleys the desirable regions for settlement. The roads, therefore, follow the streams, and at the heads of the valleys cut by their erosion are found the passes in the mountains. Ladysmith lies in a fork of the Klip River, a tributary of the Tugela, and the branches of the Klip mark the north and west roads over the mountains. When the railroad was built, it naturally followed the easy grades of the wagon road, and Ladysmith was also at its junction. Thus the town became the base for a couple of military posts near the mountain passes; stores and munitions of war accumulated, its garrison was large, and it was regarded by Natal colonists as their protection from northern invasion.

This would have been true enough in a war of moderate proportions; but when the Transvaal and the Orange Free State united in a Landsturm against the British States, the proportions were not moderate. England needed time to collect a large army in South Africa, and the Boers did not mean to give it to her. They declared war in the hope of capturing all the British forces in South Africa before the large army could arrive. They organized two columns of invasion, one to operate against Natal on the east, the other against Cape Colony on the west. As they lived on horseback, they were an army of mounted riflemen with a small corps of well-trained artillery. But their two columns must operate independently, some four hundred miles apart. The circumstances indicated the true strategy for the British to be a stubborn resistance on one line by a comparatively small but active force, and a concentration on the other of the bulk of their army to crush the enemy—in short, to follow the plan which Lord Roberts adopted when he reached the theatre of war. This implies the probability that the weaker column may be forced back, and the region which suffers from this will cry out. Such discontent may become politically dangerous, and it is a question of statesmanship rather than of military art to decide between risks at such a juncture. It appears that the political officers of the Natal colony thought it imperative to hold Ladysmith, and the generals on the ground, White and Symons, either agreed with this or yielded their military judgment to the political one. Symons was killed in the first engagement, and White was surrounded at Ladysmith by the end of October.

Mr. Pearse was evidently of the opinion, at the time, that it was possible for Gen. White greatly to have delayed the investment and prolonged his control of the railway, by a more vigorous use of his forces. Ladysmith is not a fortress; it is only a position—an open village with considerable camps among the hills around it. The situation had a resemblance to that of Atlanta in our civil war. The attacking army was not big enough to march around that city at once, and the defenders, by extending their own works by the flank, delayed and prevented the complete investment, covered the railway behind them, and, after a month, slipped away to a new position in the rear. Could not Gen. White have done this at Ladysmith? If he had preserved his communications for even half a month, Buller would have joined him with the relieving column, making the army largely superior to the Boers. Time was evidently the essence of the problem, for the Boers do not seem to have greatly outnumbered White. A very vigorous defensive was in order, not by sending detachments out to attack the enemy by way of sortie, but by occupying connected positions in front of the town and making the Boers attack.

Once the place was invested, the patient stubbornness of defence is very warmly, but none too warmly, praised by Mr. Pearse. There was no thought of surrender, there was invincible determination not to yield a foot; there were several brilliant night attacks on the Boers' big guns, permanently disabling two of them. The growing scarcity of food was willingly borne, as was the disease which followed on the heels of partial starvation. The townspeople were hardly less brave than the soldiers. The exposure and the want were shared by both. Women and children became accustomed to the ordinary fire of the great guns, and went about their houses and through the streets in apparent indifference to the danger, seeking bombproof shelter only when the cannonade was most rapid and continuous.

The story of four months of this wearing and nerve-depressing life under fire is told in Mr. Pearse's journal, with circumstantial details which make the experience live before us. At nightfall on the last day of February, Buller's advance-guard of cavalry dashes into the town, and their welcome by soldiers and citizens, with cheers and with weeping, is made half hysterical by the reaction from the long nervous tension, the lack of food, and the widespread influence of fever. The deaths in battle and from wounds had not been very numerous; indeed, one of the curious lessons of the siege is the wonderful range and accuracy of aim of rifled cannon throwing hundredweight shells four or five miles, and the merely trifling mischief they do when reasonable precautions are taken not to expose men in masses or in large visible groups. The moral effects of ceaseless watching, constant danger, and unwholesome conditions would seem to be more destructive than the most active field fighting.

Mr. Pearse's excellent photographs form a connected panorama of the whole circuit of the town. The important features of the landscape are noted, and the pictures thus become a great help to the study of the situation.

Early Connecticut Houses: An Historical and Architectural Study. By Norman M. Isham, A.M., Architect, and Albert F. Brown, Architect. Providence, R. I.: The Preston & Rounds Co. 1900.

Four years ago there was reviewed in these columns the book entitled 'Early Rhode Island Houses,' the work of the same authors as the present one, which is in size and style nearly a sister book, but a little larger; and although there are minor differences in the way in which the subject is presented, they hardly call for detailed comment. There is again a completeness of record, a successful attempt to tell the whole story as far as it is important it should be told, upon which it is hard to comment in terms too favorable. Five seventeenth-century houses in Farmington, three in Hartford, one in Windsor, one in Berlin, and one in South Glastonbury are treated in chapters ii. and iii. The houses of the same epoch in "the New Haven colony" are two in New Haven, two in Branford, one in Guilford, one in Milford, and one in Southold; and these are treated in chapters v. and vi. Then there is a third geographical division of the subject, and it appears in chapter viii. that there is at least one seventeenth-century house in New London. The houses of the eighteenth century, not more numerous, are treated in chapters iv., vii., and viii. Each house is presented in a small, carefully made drawing, mainly in outline, without the slightest attempt at artistic effect; and the more artistic on that account, as revealing the work of architectural art without the interference of the draughtsman's fancies. It is clear that these little drawings of effect (stated to have been made with the aid of photographs) and the plans and explanatory sections are as trustworthy as it is possible to make drawings of the kind. Even if in any one case it should appear that something conjectural has been assumed rather too boldly, or that some indication has been misunderstood, the book would still be accurate and worthy of confidence far beyond the wont of archæological research.

As for the help which the authors have here given to the architectural student, the value of that depends so very largely upon the student himself, and his habits and bringing-up, that nothing absolute can be said of it. Fifteen years ago, when that interesting renascence in American frame houses was in its full glory, and when the clapboarded and shingled dwelling was the study and the delight of some of the most able and painstaking of our architects, these books would have been invaluable. With us in America, everything architectural goes by fashions, as offensively as does female costume, and at present the surface indications are that no one cares any longer for the naturally developed American wooden house. Without being sanguine, however, it may be assumed that the disappearance of interest in that single natural piece of American artistic evolution is not as complete as one feels or says in his despair; and so, as we recommended the book of four years ago, we recommend this one now to every person who cares about genuine tradition in fine art. And let us remember that tradition is the life and soul of fine art. No less an authority than John La Farge, and in no less careful writing than his 'Letters from Japan,' has told us that—and in good time, for there were critics who began to doubt whether tradition, which had managed to let itself be forgotten, could be of much avail. The tradition is as good as ever, and without it there is no safety. It is the restless and impatient spirit of the time, which, beginning with 1830, has created the art of autovivisection, and thereby replaced the somewhat nobler art of creation.

In the notice of the 'Rhode Island Houses,' attention was called to the drawings of the details of framing in solid timber, showing the systems of shaping uprights and horizontals, and of applying to these such simple decoration as notchings and stop-chamfers could supply. It was pointed out that, as it was stated in the authors' text, so was it evident from their drawings, that the earlier work of the New England carpenters was as strictly traditional, and that in the best sense—as completely Elizabethan or at least Jacobean in its significance—as if the workmen had never left the island of Great Britain. The same thing has to be said about these detail drawings from the Connecticut villages; and in this instance, at least, the authors have given to the reader for his satisfaction, and that he may himself use comparisons which will not be odious, drawings from such venerable English houses as Stokesay Gate House and Moreton Old Hall, and from half a dozen Jacobean houses besides. In connection with this the reader might study the interesting note on page 236, which consists chiefly of a letter from the author of the recent admirable 'History of Renaissance Architecture in England,' Reginald Blomfield.

If we could have another revival of interest in the native American wood-framed houses, perhaps the revivalists might be led to study solid timber a little more carefully. The carpenter of the present age is supposed to abhor solid timber. It is a tradition thirty years old that the house carpenter thinks himself above it, and jobs out all the handling of heavy sticks to the framer; but the framer has no idea of cutting, shaping, trimming, chamfering, treating architecturally the scantling which he tosses about. He looks upon that as joists, studs, and girders, and knows no architectural drawings but small-scale framing plans. Therefore, it will require some little patience and a great deal of enthusiasm on the part of the designer to get his solid woodwork properly done; but it is so well worth doing, and the result would be so delightful to everybody who cares for architecture, that the hope cannot quite die in the mind of the enthusiast. If the reader frequents exhibits of architectural drawings, or even if he takes one or another of our periodicals devoted to that subject, he will remember the long array of designs based upon English half-timbered country houses, and he will remember that it is often pointed out by contemporary writers on the subject that these modern buildings are nearly always fakes, nearly always mere simulacra of timber frame construction. Nearly always are they simply wooden houses of the common type, covered with smooth boarding and then "adorned" by a copy in thin boards of the skeleton of timber which the old English house displays. Now, it cannot be supposed that any architect who has designed such a thing approves of it or likes to be reminded of what he has been doing. One who has such an artistic conscience as that which we have here supposed common to the profession, would be glad of the chance, it is to be presumed, to do the thing in reality.

Life Beyond Death. By Minot J. Savage, D.D. (Harvard). G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1899.

Dr. Savage's old-fashioned title-page gives ample intimation of the contents and purpose of his book: "A Review of the world's beliefs on the subject [of Life Beyond Death], a consideration of present conditions of thought and feeling, leading to the question as to whether it can be demonstrated as a fact; to which is added an appendix containing some hints as to personal experiences and opinions." It is easy to understand the popular impression made by Dr. Savage as one reads these pages. They are singularly persuasive in their manner. One text might have answered for the whole collection: "Come and let us reason together." At every stage we have the effect of a man thinking *with* his hearers and not *for* them. One cannot but admire the daring of the preacher venturing to treat such subjects with no manuscript before him, while at the same time the disadvantages of such a method appear from time to time in forms of expression which leave something to desire, as being loosely framed or defective in some sort.

The dedication is a letter to Philip Henry Savage, Dr. Savage's son, the promising poet and librarian who was cut off untimely June 4, 1899. It is almost too tender for the public eye, but it gives a note of deeper and more touching significance to those portions of the book which deal with Dr. Savage's personal confidence in the spiritualistic argument for a future life. That his preface is concerned with this, and his appendix, and the last four chapters of the book, makes it plain that we are to look to this matter for the book's dominant inspiration. Those chapters which treat historically the beliefs of mankind touching a future life are necessarily too brief for any fulness of detail. It is a virtue of the first chapter, "Primitive Ideas," that it reflects the uncertainty of investigation in this quarter hitherto. Dr. Savage makes no concealment of the fact that a future life was generally, in the early stages of belief, something dreaded rather than something desired. Where he is dealing with the Old Testament teaching, he finds the dawning of a hope of deliverance from Sheol where a correct translation and exegesis admit no such construction; and, coming to the New Testament, his Pauline Universalism is not borne out by so competent a scholar as Prof. Cone, himself a Universalist.

The chapter called "The Agnostic Reaction" is full of generous appreciation of the doubters and deniers of our time, but is the following a true account of the agnostic party? "They simply reject, and are rejoiced that the evidence does not compel them to accept, the things that are inherited from the hideous barbarism of man half-way out of the animal—that is all." On the contrary, your genuine agnostic is as unable to affirm a good God and a good future as the worst yet conceived. Chapter ix., "The Spiritualistic Reaction," represents spiritualism, the doctrine of intermundane communication, as a reaction from Agnosticism. Shall we not keep closer to the facts if we say that spiritualism in this sense achieved its most notable popular victories *pari passu* with the agnostic and the materialistic advance? That there has been of late years a spiritualistic reaction there can be no doubt, but its spiritualism has been that of science and philosophy jointly discovering the insufficiency of matter as a final term. It has been that of the Neo-Kantians and Neo-Hegelians making their damaging criticism on that Spencerian philosophy which Dr. Savage esteems so highly. But the Spiritualists, with a capital letter, will not be satisfied with Dr. Savage's relation to them and their opinions. He declines being called a Spiritualist because there is so much in popular spiritualism of which he disapproves. He admits a preponderance of fraud in slate-writing and other manifestations. He sets down all materialization as fraudulent. Nevertheless he is persuaded that we have enough evidence to convince us of the truth of Spiritualism "as a provisional hypothesis."

The Society for Psychical Research has a chapter to itself, and Dr. Savage is convinced, with Prof. William James and others, that there are phenomena which point unmistakably to the action of extra-human intelligence. We get, however, from him an impression of more ample evidence than that of Professor James's "one white crow," Mrs. Piper, that all "psychics" are not black. In the appendix he takes us into his confidence in a most frank and simple fashion. Clearly his investigations have been very careful and severe, though it might not be difficult to imagine a temper yet more sternly scientific. And they are significant of a circle of phenomena which, if they do not prove another life, prove occult elements in this of marvellous depth, and very great importance.

English Political Philosophy, from Hobbes to Maine. By William Graham. London: Edward Arnold. 1899.

First Principles in Politics. By William Samuel Lilly. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1899.

The design of Prof. Graham's book is good. No country, except Athens, has produced so much political thinking of a high order as England. The writers selected for examination—Hobbes, Locke, Burke, Bentham, Mill, and Maine—were great men, whose influence on thought and on civilization well deserves to be estimated. The method adopted by Prof. Graham is to treat the chief writings of each of these philosophers analytically, supplying at the same time criticism and comment. He also attempts "to distinguish what is permanently true from what is doubtful or erroneous, to disengage the former, and, as far as may be, develop it further, with the hope that finally, from the exposition and criticism together, something like an Introduction to Political Science might result, resting on authority and reason combined." So far as exposition is concerned, a reasonable degree of success is attained. The arguments of the writers are carefully condensed and summarized, and the most important and typical views are given by quotation. The comment is occasionally helpful, but it is unavoidably tedious. We may save time, but it is at the sacrifice of pleasure; and it is doubtful if any one competent to appreciate the criticism would not do better to consult the originals for himself.

In his attempt to distinguish false from true, and to give some finality to political speculation, Prof. Graham undertakes a task requiring very exceptional powers, and one in which failure involves no reproach. Why we consider his attempt unsuccessful we can show most briefly by illustration. He reviews Burke's writings, and we are bound to say with the greatest care and with excellent judgment. Then he proceeds "to pronounce a final opinion on Burke's theory of things." He finds

> "a system of opinions that rejects the possibility of discovery in moral or political philosophy; that forbids honest inquiry on religious questions that might appear to lead further than its own conclusions; a mental temperament that would make a difference of speculative dogma in religion or politics a ground of a prolonged war with a neighboring nation, and one that is even out of sympathy with the new economical doctrines and the great new developments in manufactures and trade. . . . We find a system of politics that rests property mainly on prescription, whatever injustices and abuses may be connected with it, as in the case of the feudal burdens and dues in France; that rests government as well as property on prescription, and that accordingly approves of an irresponsible and corrupt oligarchy governing England. . . . We find a view of morals that rests right conduct on opinions, manners, habits, as external objective guides, or else on prejudice and mere strong feeling as internal instructors, instead of on conscience, reason, utility. . . . This stamp of mind that dislikes all change, at the Reformation would have condemned it, and would have been on the side of Philip II.; at the rise of Christianity, with the persecuting Emperors."

So much for Burke. Now if we refer to Prof. Graham's criticism of Locke's views on Toleration, we find him defending the persecution of the Christians as a political necessity; and as to Philip's policy of extirpating heresy by slaughtering the Netherlanders, Prof. Graham blandly observes that history will justify him in making the attempt. When he examines Mill's philosophy, he takes the position that, except in the field of invention, little more progress remains to be made by mankind. "Science is nearly completed, art in all its branches has probably already reached its highest culmination." We shall not get much further than Spinoza, Kant, or Hegel; but, perhaps, the social organization "can be somewhat improved." Prof. Graham's complacency exceeds that of Burke, and we cannot but deplore the lot of Newton in living when he did. Had he possessed our modern wisdom, instead of blindly thinking he was picking up a few pebbles on the boundless ocean of truth, he would have discovered that what confronted him was but a small pond, the opposite shore of which was in plain sight.

Mr. Lilly is a dogmatist. He dislikes the Utilitarians, and holds to Natural Right. He maintains that right and wrong in their nature are what they are from everlasting to everlasting, and are unchangeable even by the fiat of Omnipotence. At the same time he insists that reason is the characteristic endowment of man, that it is separated by a whole universe from instinct, and that the capacity for ethical development is possessed by the human race alone. Furthermore, Mr. Lilly declares that the State is not only an organism, but a person. It is also a superior person; "the rights of the organic whole come before the rights of any constituent part." Sadly enough, this superior person occasionally sins; but it seems rather presumptuous for beings of a lower order to venture on such criticism. Lèse-majesté is really flat blasphemy. Mere mortals should not define the duties of superior beings; especially since these beings either do not possess the faculty of speech, or disdain to use it in silencing human impertinence. While we cannot adopt Mr. Lilly's political metaphysics, we must do him the justice of saying that he is a vigorous writer, and that many of his observations on social questions are acute and suggestive.

Bird Studies with a Camera. With Introductory Chapters on the Outfit and Methods of the Bird Photographer. By Frank M. Chapman, Assistant Curator of Vertebrate Zoölogy in the American Museum of Natural History, etc. With over one hundred photographs from nature, by the author. D. Appleton & Co. 1900. 12mo, pp. viii, 218.

The utility of the camera as an aid in nature study is vividly demonstrated in 'Bird Studies'—a most charmingly written book, as well as a very important contribution to ornithology. The author happily combines scientific exactness with the keen insight and sympathetic touch of the born bird-lover, and ranks not only as an ornithologist of high standing in the technicalities of his science, but as one of our best popular writers on birds. He has had exceptionally wide experience in field work, and is easily the leading expert with the camera in its relation to bird life. To make the way easier for others who may wish to enter this fascinating field of both research and pleasure, about forty pages are devoted to instructions to the would-be bird photographer in reference to his outfit and methods of work, based on long experience in the use of the camera, and giving doubtless the best and fullest instructions regarding the technique of the subject ever presented to the public. The remaining 150 pages, with their 100 reproductions of the author's photographs, afford abundant incentive to effort on the part of beginners in this delightful field, and sufficient evidence of the success that has rewarded his own patient endeavors.

Photography, although so fascinating, is not merely a pastime, but, as our author well says, an invaluable substitute for any amount of description. In recording the character of a bird's haunts, its nesting site, nest, eggs, the appearance and development of its young, the camera is so far ahead of the pen in its power of graphic representation that it is a waste of time to use the latter when circumstances permit the utilization of the former. A photograph of a marsh or wood showing the favorite haunts of a species is worth more than pages of description. A picture of a bird's nesting site conveys a better idea of the situation than words can possibly give, while in place of vague phrases descriptive of a nest, we have a faithful delineation of the nest itself, etc. Especially is the camera to be prized as furnishing an indisputable register of conditions that are rapidly passing away, as in the case of the few large bird colonies still existing. We know that the Great Auk found one of its last resorts at Funk Island, where was once a prosperous colony; and how important an addition to this bird's history, Mr. Chapman asks, would be a series of photographs taken of this bird as it formerly existed on this island! The wild pigeon, less than a century ago, was so abundant as at times to darken the sun with its passing millions, but there was then no camera to record these flights and supply evidence of facts that now seem amost beyond belief. And such instances are innumerable.

Mr. Chapman's work consists of a series of chapters each focussed, as it were, on some particular species, or on some locality of special interest to the bird student; as for example, "The Chicadee, a Study in Black and White," with its eight pictures of old and young chicadee life, and accompanying text telling of the trials and patience required to secure the pictures, and giving us a hitherto unwritten chicadee biography. The chapter on the Least Bittern, with its six illustrations, is a revelation even to the ornithologist regarding this little known recluse. That entitled "Two Herons" tells of the housekeeping affairs of a large colony of night herons or quawks on Long Island, and of the haunts of the Great Blue Heron in Cayuga County, New York; in both cases the telephoto lens had to be used in securing the pictures here shown. "Where Swallows Roost" is a tale of the Hackensack marshes, where marsh mallows and wild rice are effectively in evidence as well as swallows. "Two Days with the Terns" recounts briefly the sad history of the all but annihilation of these lovely sea birds along our coast, and exhibits to the eye the various stages of growth of the young and the graceful form and pose of the old birds, as studied at Great Gull Island, New York, and on the Weepeekets in Buzzard's Bay. "The Bird Rocks of the Gulf of St. Lawrence" deals with the great colonies of sea birds—gannets, gulls, guillemots, and petrels, or Mother Carey chickens—still in existence, though with greatly reduced population, on Percé Rock, the Bird Rocks, Bonaventure Island, and the Magdalens, with many views of the islands themselves, of the hardy fishermen, the lighthouse and light-keeper's home and family on Great Bird Rock, and of bird life in all its varied kinds and phases. "Life on Pelican Island, with Some Speculations on the Origin of Bird Migration" concludes the book. Pelican Island is a small islet off the east coast of Florida, where all the pelicans of the neighboring region find a nesting-place. Ten pictures, with the usual delightful narrative of personal experience and events in the pelican metropolis, serve to make very real this little-known resort of a bird that has of late been slaughtered with reckless hand to supply the long quills recently so much in vogue for women's hats.

Mr. Chapman has a few words to say on "the charm of photography," as well as on its utility as an aid in bird study, a portion of which we cannot resist transcribing, since it shows how the camera is replacing the gun, even with earnest bird students:

> "As a one-time sportsman, who yielded to none in his enjoyment of the chase, I can affirm that there is a fascination about the hunting of wild animals with a camera as far ahead of the pleasure to be derived from their pursuit with shotgun or rifle as the sport found in shooting quail is beyond that of breaking clay 'pigeons.' Continuing the comparison, from a sportsman's standpoint, hunting with a camera is the highest development of man's inherent love of the chase. The killing of a bird with a gun seems little short of murder after one has attempted to capture its image with a lens. The demands on the skill and patience of the bird photographer are endless, and his pleasure is intensified in proportion to the nature of the difficulties to be overcome, and in the event of success it is perpetuated by the infinitely more satisfactory results obtained. He does not rejoice over a bag of mutilated flesh and feathers, but in the possession of a trophy—an eloquent token of his prowess as a hunter, a talisman which holds the power of revivifying the circumstances attending its acquisition."

The Orchestra. By Ebenezer Prout. Edward Schuberth & Co.

Germany cannot claim a monopoly of the great musical theorists and writers of works on composition. Dr. Prout has written at least a dozen treatises on harmony, counterpoint, fugue, and musical form, and his books, while no less thorough than those of the Germans, are usually more practical and up to date. The crowning work of his series is now before us—two volumes on the orchestra—which, with the exception, perhaps, of Gevaert's treatise, may be pronounced the most useful extant on the subject for students, composers, and amateurs who wish to know more about the components of orchestral coloring than their ears unaided tell them. Dr. Prout has devoted eleven years to his task, having made a list of some 1,400 passages in the works of the masters of all schools. From these he selected the most pertinent, and made such free use of them that his two volumes contain more pages of illustrations than of reading-matter; whereat surely no student will growl. It will save him much trouble or expense, especially as many of the author's references are to the less familiar and accessible works of such fine colorists as Schubert and Mozart, Auber and Cherubini.

One might quarrel with the author for practically ignoring Bach and Handel, and beginning with Haydn and Mozart as the originators of modern orchestration; but, though Bach and Handel were great colorists in their way, some of their instruments differed from ours, so that Dr. Prout's procedure is justifiable, and we may agree with him that "the science of orchestration, as practised at the present time, is the most recently developed branch of music, being not much more than a century old." Its history has been well told by Henri Lavoix. Our author also points out that just as no sensible man would ever think of trying to paint a picture before he had thoroughly learned drawing and perspective, so it is quite useless for any one to attempt to write for orchestra before he has obtained a complete mastery of the other branches of composition. So far as the art of tone-coloring can be taught on paper, it is done in Dr. Prout's book; but, as he admits, "the feeling for orchestral coloring must be, like the invention of melody, a natural gift, and not the result of mere calculation. . . . Further, just as every great painter has his own peculiar style of coloring, each great composer has his own method of scoring; and it would be no more possible for an experienced musician to mistake a score of Mozart for one of Wagner than it would for an art-connoisseur to mistake a painting by Titian for one by J. W. Turner." As a poet may torture his brain days or weeks for the right word to express his thought, so a composer may hunt a long time till he finds in his mind the proper instrumental coloring for the musical idea and mood he has in view. A great composer can call to his mind's ear peculiar tone colors as a poet or novelist can particular scenes to his mind's eye.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abney, Sir W. de W. Instruction in Photography. New ed. London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Brainerd, Eveline W. Quaint Nuggets. New York: Fords, Howard & Hulbert.
Colquhoun. A. R. Overland to China. Harpers. $3.
Davis, W. S. A Friend of Cæsar: A Tale of the Fall of the Roman Republic, 50-47 B. C. Macmillan. $1.50.
Hamilton, S. M. The Writings of James Monroe. Vol. III., 1796-1802. Putnams.
Liberty Poems Inspired by the Crisis of 1898-1900. Boston: The James H. West Co. 75c.
Mullins, Isla M. An Upward Look for Mothers: Poems. Philadelphia: The Griffith & Rowland Press.
Nelson, S. A. The A. B. C. of Wall Street. New York: S. A. Nelson. $1.
Pool, Maria L. The Meloon Farm: A Novel. Harpers. $1.50.
Stockton, Frank R. Novels and Stories. Vols. XIV. and XV. Scribners.
Tarr, Prof. R. S., and McMurry, Prof. F. M. North America. Second Book. Macmillan. 75c.
The Christ of Cynewulf: A Poem in Three Parts. Translated into English Prose by C. H. Whitman. Boston: Ginn & Co. 45c.
The Knight of the Grip. Reprinted from the "Iron Age." New York: David Williams Co. 60c.
Thiéry, J. Châteaux de Cartes. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie. 3 fr. 50c.
Whitby, Beatrice. Bequeathed: A Novel. Harpers. $1.50.

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Henry Holt & Co., New York

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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 12, 1900.

The Week.

The condition of the national finances as revealed in the annual balance sheet is extremely gratifying, showing a surplus of $81,229,777. Secretary Gage, in his last annual report, estimated the surplus at the end of the fiscal year 1900 at $40,000,000. The total receipts, exclusive of the postal service, are $568,988,948, and the expenditures $487,759,171. This showing will make the demand for a reduction of taxes imperative. With the gradual reduction of the expenses in the Philippines, the surplus of the year 1901 should be more than $100,000,000, provided we do not get into any new wars.

Representative Grosvenor of Ohio has explained that we have taken charge of the Philippine Islands for the money to be made out of them, and it is time to ascertain how our investment is turning out. The field was not a particularly promising one. Up to June 30, 1898, the value of our annual exports had seldom exceeded $150,000, if we may trust the Treasury Bureau of Statistics, but in the following year this value rose to $400,000, and in the eleven months ending May, 1900, it was $2,386,333. These figures may be compared with those given by the War Department concerning the imports at Manila during the calendar year 1899. The value of these imports is returned at $17,450,000, of which $1,330,350 represents the value of imports from the United States; about one-thirteenth of the total. If both sets of figures are accurate, it would appear that the imports at this port are about one-half of the total imports into the Philippine Islands, although we cannot tell how large a part of these imports is furnished by foreign countries, except in the case of the port of Manila. We may reasonably assume that the value of our exports to the Philippine Islands will not fall much short of $3,000,000, when the returns for the year are completed. The magnitude of these figures is not impressive, especially when we compare them with the figures for the rest of our export trade. That amounted to $1,400,000,000, of which the Manila trade would be somewhat more than one-fifth of one per cent. If we estimate the profit on this trade at ten per cent., it would amount to $300,000, or about one and one-half per cent. on the $20,000,000 which we paid for the islands. It would be a very moderate estimate of the total cost of this piece of property to put it at $300,000,000. If it has not cost us that already, it soon will have. We may, therefore, consider that the present return on our speculation is about one-tenth of one per cent. If we call our gains on our total exports $140,000,000, or ten per cent. of their value, we find that the whole of it is swallowed in the expenses of obtaining a trade from which we gain $300,000 a year.

We have to bear in mind that we are maintaining a great many thousand American soldiers in the Philippine Islands, and that the growth of our export may be due to their demands, and not to those of our new subjects. Such a growth of exports, it is hardly necessary to say, is abnormal and prejudicial. The more we have of such trade, the poorer we shall grow. We are willing to concede that in certain articles there is some evidence that we are building up a trade with the natives of these islands. We might have expected to increase our exports of agricultural implements, and we have done so. Year before last the value of these exports was $50; but this year it has risen to the great figure of $225. In cotton cloths, we have increased our exports till their value has reached nearly $14,000, and we sell nearly $10,000 worth of clothing and all other cotton manufactures. Our export of boots and shoes amount to $6,440; of leather and manufactures thereof, to $3,220; of mineral oils, to $7,921. Dairy products were shipped to the value of $1,904; and cheese to the value of $3,594. We also disposed of about $8,000 worth of furniture; and if we were giving the figures for a small interior town, instead of a great empire, we might say that we were doing a brisk business, in spite of the fact that the value of several articles exported has decreased. If, now, we turn to the articles required for the support of our troops and officers of all kinds, the explanation of our enlarged exports stares us in the face. We find no increase in the exports of cattle, or hogs, or sheep; but exports of horses have risen from *nil* to $211,550, and of course hay and grain are exported to feed them. Manufactures of tobacco increase from $795 to $12,493; coal from $70,000 to $143,000; fruits and nuts from $3,869 to $26,117; electric and other technical apparatus from $3,000 to $12,213; hams from $4,840 to $7,417; lard from $2,155 to $6,786. The greatest development of all is probably in the exports of alcoholic drinks; but the figures for this trade are not furnished for this year.

It is well known that the present head of the Treasury Bureau of Statistics is preparing the campaign text-book of the Republican party. Such a scandalous disregard of the proper duties and dignity of that bureau has never before been shown. There have been charges made of partisan use in the past, but these charges have never been proved to such an extent as to impugn the correctness of the returns issued by the Bureau. There have been issued, under official sanction, interpretations of commercial and industrial returns, favoring a particular policy or measure; and when Charles Foster was Secretary of the Treasury, the head of the Bureau permitted a violently protectionist interview to be circulated as a Treasury document, although it was well known at the time that the matter had been prepared by another hand. Such exhibitions of improper political activity by the Bureau have been rare, however, and have never failed to bring down criticism on those who were responsible. Certainly the conduct of the Bureau by such men as Gen. Walker and Mr. W. C. Ford did much to win the confidence of those who used the returns, and to attract favorable comment in foreign countries, where the same detailed and extensive system had not been applied. Secretary Gage must bear the full responsibility of causing the present scandal. He removed a man of experience to make room for a political hack, whose only qualification was his service during the campaign in running a "literary bureau" for the Republicans.

Such absolute control of a great political organization by one man as Bryan exercised last week has never before been seen in this country. All authorities at Kansas City agree that a large majority of the delegates were opposed to having a 16-to-1 plank in the platform. A majority of the Committee on Resolutions went into the meeting on Wednesday evening determined not to allow such a deliverance, and this majority included the representatives of every Northern State east of the Mississippi which was carried for the Democrats in the "tidal wave" of 1892—Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Indiana, Illinois, and Wisconsin, as well as Ohio, which was so close that Cleveland secured one of the electoral votes. Almost every leader of any consequence regarded a separate silver plank as fatal to the party's chances of success. In short, the conditions were such as apparently to assure the defeat of the scheme. But Bryan had made up his mind that there should be a 16-to-1 plank, as emphatic as language could make it; he made his influence felt in the committee-room, and the majority shifted to his side; and the same influence caused all opposition to his policy to die out among the mass of the delegates. The candidate thus forced his own issue upon a reluctant Convention by an exhibition of personal power which recalls the sway of Andrew Jackson, two generations ago.

Correspondents at Kansas City noted the absence of well-known men among the delegates to the Democratic Convention. With the exception of ex-Senator Hill of New York and Senator Jones of Arkansas, there were but few of those familiar figures whom one expects always to see on such an occasion—the men who have long been conspicuous as the leaders of their party in their various States, and who have attended its conventions so often that they are recognized wherever they appear. It is safe to say that never since the first national gathering of the party in 1832 has there been an assembly of those who were presumptively leading Democrats, which contained so few men who had ever been heard of outside their own towns. There were whole delegations which embraced hardly a person who had any standing in the organization half a dozen years ago. Doubtless one element in the great demonstrations over Hill was the satisfaction which the mass of delegates felt in having somebody whom they had ever heard of in the convention hall to shout over. Another, evidently, was their desire to rebuke Tammany, which is very unpopular in the South and West, for its discourtesy to Hill.

Croker has done his best to give Platt control of the State Government for the next two years. The course of the Tammany boss at Kansas City need not have been changed in the slightest degree if he had gone there with the deliberate purpose of rendering Democratic success in New York hopeless. His forcing of Van Wyck upon the Committee on Resolutions, in place of Hill, who was entitled to the place, was just what was needed to assure the triumph of the silver men, as it deprived the opposition of their strongest leader. His absurd selection of Keller as New York's candidate for Vice-President only emphasized the contemptible position which the Empire State occupied throughout the Convention. In order to assert his power, the Tammany boss consistently pursued a policy tending to certain defeat in this State. There were discreditable exhibitions of machine power in the Philadelphia Convention, but no national gathering of either party ever witnessed such a display of brute force exerted to satisfy personal grudges as Croker's performances at Kansas City.

It is easy enough to find incidents in the South which indicate that the relations between the races grow worse rather than better. Such a thing is the recent passage by the Mississippi Press Association of a resolution to expel the editors of all newspapers that employ *negroes as typesetters*. The only protest was made by a woman, who declared that the black man whom she employed did as good work as any white, and had as good a right to his job. This is certainly discouraging enough, as doubtless many of the editors who voted for this boycott along race lines have written articles complaining because the negroes do not learn trades. Happily, at almost the same time, another organization of white men was taking action toward abolishing the color line. Birmingham, the manufacturing city in Northern Alabama, has a Trades Council, organized several years ago, which has never admitted colored delegates to its meetings. There is another organization, the United Mine-Workers, to which members of both races belong. The Council recently asked the Mine-Workers to employ only union labor, but the colored members urged that it was grossly unjust to require them to give their work to white men when they were denied admission to trade unions and representation in the Council because they were black. The Council could not meet this argument, and did the only sensible thing by lifting the ban against colored delegates. Such action by carpenters, bricklayers, and other artisans renders the course of the editors the more discreditable by contrast.

The case of the Rumanian Jews, 175 in number, who have been refused permission to enter this country by the Commissioner of Immigration, presents features of peculiar hardship. It is stated that these unfortunate persons are the victims of persecution at the hands of the Government of Rumania, which has not only exiled them, but has provided them with passports forbidding them to return. They are thus prevented from going back there and from coming in here, and are suspended, like Mohammed's coffin, between heaven and earth. If it be true that they are not paupers, it will be not only cruel but illegal to drive them from our doors. Their cause is pleaded by men of responsibility, and it is impossible not to be affected by the statements made in their behalf. Their lives, it is said, "have heretofore been so miserable, and they have been caused to suffer and endure such hardships, that another disappointment, such as being denied entrance into the United States (pictured to them a heaven for the persecuted), may result in a number of suicides." Assuming the facts to be as represented, it is obvious that modern conditions require some extension of the restraints of international law. It must be recognized that if one State expels a citizen from its territory, it is the same as requiring some other State to admit him—a requirement which cannot be enforced, and which ought not to be attempted. The practice is similar to that which prevailed extensively in England, under the old poor-law, when every parish was actively engaged in "unloading" paupers on all the rest. It is not uncommon in this country for tramps and petty criminals to be passed along from town to town, although the practice is illegal and pernicious. We have passed far beyond the stage when outlawry or exile was permissible as a punishment, and the resort to it should be condemned as barbarous.

Belated evidence is pouring in that there were grave warnings of the China émeute that went unheeded. As long ago as last February the *North China Herald* declared that its information led it to fear that the spring would witness a rising such as foreigners had never seen in China. "The whole country, from the Yellow River to the Great Wall and beyond, will be a blaze of insurrection which . . . will drive every foreigner out of Pekin and Tientsin under conditions which it is not difficult to foresee." Yet more significant—absolutely startling in its exact forecast of what occurred—was a letter published in the same newspaper from its native correspondent in Pekin. This man said in the issue of the *North China Herald* of May 16: "I write in all seriousness and sincerity to inform you that there is a great secret scheme, having for its aim to crush all foreigners in China and wrest back the territories 'leased' to them." He went on to describe the persons, and factions, and military forces conspiring to this end, much as we now know them. All Chinese of the upper classes, he added, knew of the plot, and "those who count foreigners among their friends have warned them, but have, to my own knowledge, been laughed at for their pains." It seems to have been the same fatal contempt of the natives which lulled British officialdom to sleep on the crater of the Sepoy Mutiny.

There is a notion in some quarters that, when the disturbances in China are over, Japan can be compensated by a money indemnity for the services she is expected to render. Even if she were satisfied to accept such an indemnity, what likelihood is there that China could pay it? To meet the burden of debt imposed at the conclusion of the last war, she was forced not only to turn over to Europe the collection of her customs as security for interest on her bonds, but also to permit the foreigners to raise and dispose of a considerable portion of her *likin*, or provincial imposts on foreign goods. Later, to raise the supplementary indemnity which Russia forced Japan to accept in lieu of the coveted Liao-Tong Peninsula, China was obliged to pay for Russia's guarantee of the additional bonds by permitting her to deflect to the southward through Mantchuria the line of the trans-Siberian railway, and to occupy that province in order to build and protect the road. When the present disorders are over, there will certainly be heavy bills for damages that China will have to pay, in one way or another. Her potential revenue capacity is very great, but before she can pay heavy taxes her industries must be developed, and under Chinese methods of spoils government it is neither possible for taxes to reach the Treasury, nor for the resources of the country to increase. Even if the Mantchu Government survives the present crisis, the participation of Europeans in the administration of China will certainly be greater than before, and it is not unlikely that the ruling house will end by occupying a position like that long held by the Khedive of Egypt or the native princes in India under English rule—a figurehead behind which the real governing power may shelter itself.

Lord Salisbury's characteristically audacious address to the missionary meeting in London practically implied that the imprudence of missionaries in China was the cause of the existing troubles. At any rate, he strongly urged the need in mission work of "tempering zeal with Christian prudence." His inference was, all along, that modern missions far too often needlessly embroil civilized with barbarous nations. But one at least of the missionary boards has taken up this challenge of the British Premier. The Secretary of the China Inland Mission wrote to the press to explain how the rules of his society explicitly directed missionaries to refrain from appealing to British consuls to "demand the vindication of real or supposed rights." The regulations add: "Under no circumstances may any missionary on his own responsibility make any written appeal to the British or other foreign authorities." The China Inland Mission has been in existence thirty-five years, and in that time has planted one hundred and twenty-five stations in ten of the interior provinces. Its missionaries have gone far beyond the reach of gunboats; yet in all this time only one missionary has lost his life through the violence of the people. On the other hand, British consuls have testified in the most unmistakable terms to the value of the work of the Inland Mission in conciliating the natives, so that they observe a more friendly attitude towards all foreigners. If Lord Salisbury were to apply his cynical analysis to diplomacy in China, and to the seizure of Chinese territory by nominally Christian nations, he would come nearer the exciting cause of the outbreak.

Siberia is no longer to be a penal colony, the synonym of exile and despair. The imperial decree abolishing the former status is not so much a witness to the Czar's humanity as it is a tribute to the railroad and the pioneer. Nothing since the opening of our own Western lands by the Pacific Railways has been comparable to the rapid settlement of the vast Siberian plains by the inrushing farmers who have followed, not the flag, but the iron road. Such colonization and development are Russia's surest pledge of supremacy in the Far East. She advances over wastes to make them productive. What she has done by the Trans-Caucasus Railway, she yet means to do along the whole northern stretch to Vladivostok, and later in Mantchuria. It is not her army nor her fleets which make Russia truly formidable in the Orient, but her traders, her farmers, her missionaries, her civil officials, who swarm in to complete and solidify the conquests of the sword.

Two years ago, Gen. Pelloux succeeded to the embarrassments of the Rudinì Ministry in Italy. It was the time of the so-called bread riots in the great industrial towns. The new Premier faced the grave peril with courage and sagacity, restored the country to order, and entered upon his office with the confidence of the Italian people and the cordial support of the Chamber of Deputies. Yet for a year past, and more, he has struggled vainly against a small but fractious minority, to which he has at length succumbed. The handful of radicals known as the Extreme Left, reinforced from other anti-Ministerial factions, so persistently baffled Pelloux's large majority that, in the general election of June 3, the Premier appealed to the country against the obstructive tactics of the minority, thus making the question of order and discipline in the lower house a national issue. The country returned a sullen answer, the gain of some dozen seats to the Ministry hardly balancing the accession of a score to the turbulent Extreme Left. A significant incident was the defeat of the Speaker, Colombo, in two constituencies. On the second day of the new Parliament, June 18, Pelloux resigned, leaving to Saracco the ungrateful task of forming a new "moderate" Cabinet. Unprincipled obstruction has rarely scored so notably against the most respectable element of a Parliament. Only in the Austrian Reichsrath, where for three years successive premiers have struggled against obstruction, and where the worst racial enmities between German and Czech have arisen, has a like spectacle been seen; and it is doubtful whether the Italian Extreme Left could have pursued their campaign so relentlessly and successfully without the example of a Parliament where violent obstruction had become the *épée de chevet* of either party. Now the country cannot excuse the majority it returns for failing to use the power received from the electors. The people may elect Deputies—they cannot hold the gavel over them.

Not long ago, in an article in *McClure's Magazine* on the Transvaal Republic and its chief, by a writer who claimed personal acquaintance with President Krüger, this statesman was given the character of a blackmailer and a bribe-taker. Some testimony offered in a court of law at Brussels during the past month tends to confirm this estimate of Krüger's character, and also to convict some of his associates of similar charges. The action was brought by the Transvaal Government against the Franco-Belgian Railway Company, which had a contract for building a road in the Transvaal territory. The railway company was accused of fraud in over-charging for the construction of the line. The counsel for the defence affirmed that the company had been blackmailed to an enormous amount by the public authorities of the Transvaal, including Krüger, Gen. Smit, and Commandant Eloff. M. Oppenheim, a leading member of the company, testified that when he was in South Africa he was the victim of a regular system of blackmailing. He spent 600,000 francs in presents, and, believing that he was dealing with people of good faith, he usually asked for no receipts. To Mr. Eloff he handed a check for 100,000 francs, the receipt of which that person acknowledged.

Continuing to give his evidence, M. Oppenheim said that it was repugnant to him to speak of a present of 100,000 francs that he made to President Krüger. He mentioned also numerous presents to members of the Volksraad, although, he observed, these gifts did not prevent the recipients from voting against him. M. Oppenheim declared that if he had not satisfied the blackmailers, no business would have been done. Dr. Leyds, the Transvaal diplomatic agent, was present at the trial as a witness, and was cross-examined with regard to the names of the persons who were alleged to have received presents. He said that a list of those persons had been communicated to him, but he had not read it, and it had been mislaid. M. Graux, the company's counsel, remarked that it was singular that a diplomatist should not have read a document of such importance. Some interesting questions of law are likely to be raised before the decision is rendered. One is, whether a defendant can plead his own wrongful act (bribery) as an excuse for overcharging for work performed under contract. Another is, whether a plaintiff can recover in a case where his authorized agents have been guilty of extortion and corruption. The question whether the damages, if any, shall be paid to Great Britain as the successor of the Transvaal Republic, may possibly come up for determination also.

BRYANISM AT KANSAS CITY.

We do not intend to support William J. Bryan for President under any circumstances, but we intend to tell the truth about him and all other candidates, according as we are able to discern the truth. The revival, in an offensive form, of the silver issue in the present campaign is due to the personal efforts and influence of Mr. Bryan. His opinion has been repeatedly expressed that fully a million of the votes cast for him four years ago would be alienated if the money question, which held the foremost place in 1896, were made a subordinate issue now. The million votes referred to are those of Populists and Silver Republicans. That he has greatly overestimated the number of them is manifest from the fact that both Towne and Teller, who may be supposed to represent them fairly well, put no stress on 16 to 1 in their speeches at Kansas City on July 4, but confined themselves to generalities respecting bimetallism. There are Democrats who voted against Bryan in 1896 on account of the money question, who would vote for him now if the issue of 16 to 1 were subordinated to other issues, or if a preference for bimetallism were expressed in general terms. Mr. Bryan will not tolerate either of these changes. He has deliberately thrown over the electoral votes of New York and all of the East in exchange for the doubtful chance of carrying the trans-Missouri States, where silver is not nearly so popular as it was four years ago. Mr. Bryan's wishes prevailed, though by a narrow majority, in the Committee on Resolutions, and so whatever odium attaches to 16 to 1 and its proposed upset of the standard of value, will attach to Mr. Bryan this year. He has armed his opponents with a weapon for which they could have afforded to pay any price.

Of the platform, the first thing to be said is, that the planks which deal with Imperialism are extremely well written. If produced by one hand, it is the hand of a master. It opens with a felicitous reference to the beginnings of our own nationality, and proceeds to show that the idea upon which our institutions rest is in conflict with the idea of our holding other peoples in subjection, and that the two cannot coexist in one and the same nationality and place. This has been the "stock argument" of all who have opposed the annexation of the Philippines, and of all who have condemned the bill for the government of Porto Rico. There is nothing original in it. It is common property now, but for that very reason it strikes the reader with more force than if it were now for the first time applied to current events of great importance. The plank which defines the purpose of the Democratic party in dealing with the Philippines, demands special attention. It is the following:

> "We condemn and denounce the Philippine policy of the present Administration. It has involved the republic in unnecessary war, sacrificed the lives of many of our noblest sons, and placed the United States, previously known and applauded throughout the world as the champion of freedom, in the false and un-American position of crushing with military force the efforts of our former allies to achieve liberty and self-government. The Filipinos cannot be citizens without endangering our civilization; they cannot be subjects without imperilling our form of government; and as we are not willing to surrender our civilization or to convert the republic into an empire, we favor an immediate declaration of the nation's purpose to give to the Filipinos, first, a stable form of government; second, independence; and, third, protection from outside interference, such as has been given for nearly a century to the republics of Central and South America."

This declaration has a ringing sound, but there is one thing lacking. It favors an immediate declaration of our purpose to give the Filipinos, first, a stable form of government; second (which is more than the Republicans promise), independence, etc. This leaves the Government of the United States the sole judge of what constitutes a stable form of government, and also of the time within which independence should be granted. This defect could have been cured by saying "We favor an immediate declaration of the nation's purpose to give the Filipinos independence *as soon as they establish a government of their own.*" That would have been in accord with the American doctrine of self-government. That would have been our Declaration of Independence applied to the Philippine Islands. Anything less than this comes short of our ideals. Of course we should never give the inhabitants of Luzon the government of a Sultan, but if they want such a government for themselves, we ought to allow it and recognize it, just as we have allowed and recognized it in Sulu. "There is one thing better than good government," said Mr. Edwin Burritt Smith at the Chicago conference last October, "and that is self-government"—a sentiment that was fitly applauded, and has been the real keynote of Anti-Imperialism throughout. It has not only the merit of being a great political truth, but the advantage of being a ready answer to every argument based upon expediency that can be advanced by the other side.

Whether this lapse came into the platform by design or by inadvertence, it is a defect which cannot be overlooked. It is necessary to say, however, that the Anti-Imperialist planks of the platform will accomplish much good, even though Mr. Bryan is not elected President. They will put one-half of the people of the United States in a high school to learn the principles of free government, as a class learns a lesson by repetition and recitation. It cannot be affirmed that the Democratic party had any decided opinion on this subject six months ago. It is certain that the party did not, on July 3, regard the question as "the paramount issue in the campaign." Nevertheless, we look to see the Democratic party get an education which it is much in need of, by standing on and defending the Anti-Imperialist planks of its platform. It is not impossible that the Republican party also may profit by the discussion.

One might almost say of Mr. Stevenson's nomination for the Vice-Presidency that he was made the candidate for this office eight years ago without any particular reason, and that he was taken up at Kansas City because he had run once before. His first selection was due to the fact that he seemed the most available man when the friends of Mr. Cleveland wanted to escape having Gov. Gray of Indiana upon the ticket; while his second success came from the natural reaction against the truckling to Populists which had characterized the previous action at Kansas City. In truth, the Illinoisan is one of those colorless men who find it equally easy to support a Cleveland on a sound-money platform, and a Bryan on a 16-to-1 plank. The sole distinction which he ever achieved was as a thorough-going spoilsman under the first Cleveland Administration, when, as First Assistant Postmaster-General, he cut off the heads of fourth-class Republican postmasters at a rate which causes him still to be remembered with affection by "former Dimmycrats," and which was used as a strong argument in his behalf last week. Mr. Stevenson would stand on any platform, but it is highly appropriate that there should not be even so much as a line in favor of civil-service reform in the one on which he tries his luck this time.

KING CONVENTION.

"King Caucus" was the name which, in 1823-24, came to be given in opprobrium to the method of nominating Presidents by Congressional caucus. That King was finally dethroned in 1824. His nominee, Crawford, was contemptuously set aside by the people, "regular" though the nomination was, and the Congressional caucus itself thereafter took its place in the political lumber-room. It fell because it had become too close a corporation. A pushing and jealous democracy would not longer endure the dictation of candidates by a handful of intriguing managers at Washington. A wider consultation of the electorate and a freer expression of real party choice were insisted upon, and took shape in the National-Convention system.

Whether it, in its turn, has not now gone stale, and, having a name to live, is really dead, is a question which presses for answer. Certainly any sober mind, surveying the proceedings at Philadelphia and at Kansas City, cannot help asking if the National Convention has not already become one of those institutions with which, as Bagehot says, the whole history of civilization is strewn—institutions that were "invaluable at first and deadly afterwards." That such a possibility has hung on the horizon of our own political seers is shown by the confident prediction of Horace Greeley, years ago, that National Conventions would "doubtless in good time travel the same road and encounter the same fate" as the Congressional caucus, upon which, for having abused its power, the people set their heel. And the *Yale Review* for May last, pointing out the disquieting evidence that the National Convention was "sinking into a machine which registers decisions made elsewhere," declared that the crucial question for the American democracy might soon be "whether it can throw off this yoke as it did that of the Congressional caucus seventy-five years ago." This was written before either Convention, though the clank of the machinery of both parties was filling the air.

Now we have the finished product before our eyes; and the opinion of the calmest and most impartial observers, on the spot and at a distance, is that bossism made perfect and delegates made dummies were never before so conspicuously exhibited as at both Philadelphia and Kansas City. It is not simply that foolish things were done—not merely that the machine ground out results fitted to affront the general intelligence. They affronted even the partisan intelligence. The Conventions did not even represent party wishes. With all their air of large party representation, they were the prey of cliques, the helpless victims of sub-committees of committees, themselves made up in most unrepresentative ways. At Philadelphia the sense of restiveness among the delegates, of resentment at being treated like dumb, driven cattle, was perhaps the most marked. "Whom are you for as Vice-President?" "I don't know; I haven't been told yet." That was the kind of cynical and bitter question and answer which passed back and forth. What Hanna calls "organization" had done its perfect work; and the result was a convention in which the signs of life were only galvanic.

Take the matter of the two party platforms. These should represent the consensus of a deliberate majority of the party. What they really represent, in both cases, is hole-and-corner methods and the tyranny of the machine. Everybody knows now how the minority of a minority succeeded in imposing a platform upon the Philadelphia Convention. Not one delegate in ten knew what the document was until he had a chance to denounce it indignantly after it was adopted. Contrast the supineness of 1900 with the watchful jealousy of 1880, when a delegate rose in Convention and compelled the platform committee to add a civil-service reform plank. Delegates were delegates in those days, not lay-figures. And at Kansas City the platform adopted was openly and notoriously in the teeth of the prevailing sentiment of the party. It overrode the demonstrated preference of three-fourths of the Democratic voters. And even in the packed committee the decisive votes were those of delegates from Oklahoma and Hawaii, neither with an electoral vote! Talk about the tail wagging the dog! This is the grin of the Cheshire cat weighing more than the whole animal. This is the bray of a mule, set to pull a load in place of the mule.

Mind, we are not saying these things because we do not like what they did at Philadelphia and at Kansas City. The point we make is that the party convention is fast becoming a Frankenstein in the hands of the party that nominally creates and controls it. The absolute unanimity, the unopposed nominations—does any man believe that these are signs of party vitality? No, they are like the order that reigned in Warsaw, an evidence that all opposition had been ruthlessly crushed. The machine had done its work too deadly well. We think Hanna and Bryan were guilty of a blunder in making things so appallingly unanimous. They ought to have allowed a breath of opposition, so as to keep up the pretence of an open field and a free decision. The veriest simpleton could not fairly assert, looking at the Republican voters instead of at the Republican machine, that Mr. McKinley is their unanimous choice. Mr. Bryan shockingly misrepresents millions of the electors of his party; yet their accredited delegates vote and cheer for him as one man. There could be no clearer proof that the party machine has become the old man of the sea, instead of the obedient servant, of party sentiment. He who has the machine has the party. Who would contest the nomination against the master of so many legions of delegates as McKinley? And Bryan's extraordinary hold on his party, partly a wonderful personal sway as it undoubtedly is, is also partly a result of the way in which he and his followers seized upon the disrupted Democratic machine in 1896, and have since clung to it.

But where is the possibility of reform? What substitute for the National Convention is feasible? Where may we look for

> "—the imperishable change
> That renovates the world"?

We think a beginning of better things may be discerned in the spreading practice in the South of nominating United States Senators and Governors in a general primary election, rather than by conventions or caucuses. Not for delegates, but directly for candidates, do the party voters cast their ballots. The system has worked well, on the whole, and is growing in favor. It is an appeal back to the people again from the machine, allowing the members of the party freely to express their opinion, not as to who should be delegates (to be owned or bought by a boss), but as to who should be the nominee. Imagine the method applied to a national nomination. Does any man suppose that a free Republican primary would have returned McKinley as its unanimous choice and man whom the party delights to honor? How would Bryan have fared under such a test? We know that political conditions in the South are peculiar, and that what works well there cannot always be extended to other parts of the country. But what all can see is that the breath of life has gone out of the old system of Presidential nominations, and that, if it cannot be revivified, directer and surer methods must be found. The new way, if one has to be devised, will surely take the form of a larger and freer *mandat impératif* by the party; and direct voting in the primaries would seem to promise it. At any rate, by one means or another, the hideous oppression of the reign of King Convention, as displayed this year with an unblushing tyranny never before known, must be brought to an end.

A SOCRATIC DIALOGUE.

"I think I got some capacity for cross-examining witnesses, which was very useful to me afterwards, from reading Plato's dialogues and getting familiar with Socrates's method of reducing a sophist *ad absurdum*."—(Senator George F. Hoar in his *Scribner* article on "Harvard College Fifty-eight Years Ago.")

Socrates Redivivus—Well met, Gorgias. I have been anxious to hear you explain, as your friends tell me you can with an unrivalled mastery of the rhetor's art, a passage in your oration to the Ephors which puzzled my poor understanding.

Gorgias Hodiernus—What passage was that, Socrates?

Socrates—The one where you said that it "was due to Mr. Bryan, more than to any other man," that the treaty of Paris was not defeated, or at least amended so as to put the Philippines on the same basis as Cuba.

Gorgias—It is true, Socrates, I made that statement to the Ephors, and by Ammon, the god of Cyrene, I will defend and maintain it in all places.

Socrates—Then you would say that a man who does not defeat an evil deed is more guilty than the man who plans and carries it through by all the means in his power?

Gorgias—What do you mean, Socrates? What I said is clear and certain. If Mr. Bryan had not persuaded the Democratic Ephors, the treaty would have been rejected or amended. Therefore the guilt is on his head.

Socrates—Well, let us follow the argument, Gorgias. Who is the real housebreaker, the man who plots a violent entry for robbery, or the man who fails to eject him?

Gorgias—It would be the former, Socrates.

Socrates—And you would say the same of political robbers?

Gorgias—I do not know what you mean, Socrates.

Socrates—Well, I will ask you what you would say if a Spartan general should agree with a Persian satrap to corrupt the Lacedæmonian state by introducing Persian customs—whom would you blame, that general or a private citizen who weakly acquiesced in his plot?

Gorgias—The general would be the man, Socrates.

Socrates—That is, you distinguish between the principal and the accessory?

Gorgias—All men do, Socrates.

Socrates—Then, by the dog of Egypt, tell me who was the principal in the matter of the Paris treaty. Was it Mr. Bryan?

Gorgias—No, but he "frustrated" the attempt to defeat it.

Socrates—But President McKinley might have frustrated the treaty itself, might he not? He negotiated it, did he not? When you were opposing its ratification, he was urging it, night and day, was he not?

Gorgias—I cannot deny it.

Socrates—Then, in the name of Zeus and Athene at once, how can you, who denounce the accessory, praise the principal? How can you say that the man who is chiefly responsible for what you describe as an attempt to "change our republic into an empire," is the "best beloved President who ever sat in the chair of Washington"?

Gorgias—But I expressly said that I had never questioned the honesty of purpose of President McKinley.

Socrates—Yet you do question Mr. Bryan's honesty, Gorgias?

Gorgias—How so, Socrates?

Socrates—You said you thought he wanted the treaty ratified so as to "keep the question for an issue in the campaign."

Gorgias—Yes, I said that, Socrates.

Socrates—But how could the deed of an honest and beloved President be an issue in the campaign?

Gorgias—It might seem, nevertheless, bad for the state.

Socrates—Then an honest and beloved man might yet ruin the republic?

Gorgias—That is so, Socrates.

Socrates—A dishonest and hated man might save it.

Gorgias—It would seem so.

Socrates—Then it is better to be right than to be beloved?

Gorgias—Better in a public man, I admit. Mr. Bryan, however, was both wrong and disliked. He was for ratifying the treaty, and that meant a continuation of the war.

Socrates—Yet he said he wanted to end the war, did he not?

Gorgias—He did.

Socrates—And he urged his friends to vote for the joint resolution putting the Philippines on the same footing as Cuba?

Gorgias—Even so, Socrates.

Socrates—And they did so?

Gorgias—They did.

Socrates—You voted for it yourself?

Gorgias—Assuredly, Socrates.

Socrates—And it would have ended the war, if adopted, and prevented the republic from becoming an empire?

Gorgias—I have no doubt of it.

Socrates—Yet McKinley was against it? All his friends among the Ephors voted against it? It was defeated only by the casting-vote of the Vice-President? Are not all these things so?

Gorgias—They are.

Socrates—Then must you not admit that Bryan and his friends wanted to end the war and save the republic, and that McKinley and his friends were really the ones who prolonged the war and threaten now to convert our state into an empire?

Gorgias—No, Socrates, I do not admit it. By Herë, I never will admit that!

Socrates—But why not, if truth and argument compel you?

Gorgias—Because I am a Republican, Socrates.

Socrates—Exactly. I merely wanted to know if it was the truth you were in search of, or an excuse for supporting your party. Well, good-by, Gorgias. Send me word if the entrails indicate that you will be chosen Ephor again.

OUR TRUE CHINESE POLICY.

With the official confirmation of the rumor that the German Minister had been massacred in the streets of Pekin, there was a sharp revival of talk about dismemberment of China. Hot and proud William will take a swift revenge and seize a province or two by way of enforced indemnity. His speech to the German marines on July 2 was a model of threatening. Of course, with such an example, the other Powers would hasten for their share of the prey, and China would be thoroughly cut to pieces and divided. The break-up is going on already "at lightning speed," writes Mr. A. R. Colquhoun in his book 'Overland to China,' just published by the Harpers; and he predicts a speedy and utter extinction of Chinese nationality and government.

Such a glib suggestion of a solution for the intensely difficult Chinese problem, thrust upon a world all unprepared, is both premature and perilous. Caution and a wary feeling our way should be the watch-words of any Chinese policy for the present. The trouble is grievous enough already; it might easily be made worse, however, by rash and inconsiderate treatment. It is at the very beginning of a political disturbance that, as the Italian master of statecraft pointed out, the political physician has his opportunity. The symptoms may be obscure at first, said Macchiavelli, but wise treatment may be effective then which, after the disease has become both more clear and more deadly, would be wholly without avail. Healing measures from the very start should be the motto in every Foreign Office.

Angry threats to "avenge" the slaughter of the German Minister, and of other foreigners in Pekin (if, unhappily, they have fallen victims to mob fury), are most ill-timed and inapplicable. It is like the foolish outcry in England about taking "revenge" for Gordon's death and for Majuba. As John Morley, the alleged atheist, said in the teeth of the Christian University Dons, they had their chairs of moral philosophy, they had a thousand pulpits, to teach that the doctrine of revenge is unchristian and barbarous, yet a Christian country was expected to gloat over a bloody national vengeance! Aside from this moral difficulty, there is the troublesome question, On whom are you going to glut your vengeance? The Chinese Government? First catch it. The people of China? But how many of the 350,000,000 know anything at all about the existing troubles, or have any responsibility whatever for them?

The fact is, we must make up our minds that ordinary remedies and methods will never do. We cannot deal with the Chinese Government or people as we would with any other. We really are confronting, not an organized government or a homogeneous people, but a vast congeries of governments, a huge conglomeration of peoples. It is not a case where a blow on the head will be felt throughout the whole organism. It would be like striking an amœba. In 1860 Lord Elgin ordered, as a measure calculated to strike terror throughout all China, the destruction of the Summer Palace. But the news of the event scarcely reached Pekin, only twelve miles away, and the rest of China never heard of it. It was a pebble dropped into the ocean. An English member of Parliament, Mr. Walton, who travelled far up the Yangtse last February, found whole provinces and even Government officials that had never heard of the Japanese war. Such is the difficulty of taking vengeance on an amorphous nation without a nervous system!

Nor can the Powers plume themselves on the success, thus far, of their stern and warlike attitude towards China. The attack on the Taku forts seems to have been an unnecessary and ill-advised affair. Admiral Kempff was at first covered with reproaches by the press and some hasty public men for having missed the chance to go in with an American ship where such elegant fighting was going on. Later, however, it was evident that he was the only commander present who kept his head, as well as lived mies of the United Kingdom be taken as premonitive of the spirit likely to animate an Irish Parliament for local affairs. It is more probable that such an assembly would before very long display the same spirit as the colonies. I have, indeed, heard Irishmen say, since the commencement of the present war, that the action of the colonies in blindly supporting wrong in the supposed interest of the Empire, somewhat reconciled them to the absence of Home Rule, because, under Home Rule, Ireland would be likely to do the same. Home Rule would certainly tend to make Ireland one in sympathy with the Empire; but her history and traditions are so different that it is improbable she would be so blindly influenced as are the colonies.

This convention is not likely, as I have said, to be without considerable influence. Concerning Home Rule it is not easy to predicate. It is to be remarked that the acceptance of Home Rule is more and more being made to imply the acceptance of other popular desires. The Convention of 1873 dealt only with Home Rule. The movement then inaugurated was moribund when Davitt and Parnell yoked land reform thereto and carried it so near success. At the time of the Parnell split in 1890, a single Home Rule plank had been returned to. The moment that catastrophe occurred, both parties strove to attract followers on other grounds. The Convention of 1896 covered nearly, though not so definitely, as much ground as the present. It is difficult to judge to what degree Home Rule may be but a pious opinion, the other claims those which really come home to the hearts of the people in Ireland. The belief of Irish Nationalists sixty years ago was that every reform granted in Ireland would strengthen and increase her desire for Home Rule, and her means for advancing it. This does not appear to be so. Each great reform has been effected largely through the enthusiasm of its being yoked with a national demand. But, when accomplished, the special adherents, those who most directly benefited by the change, have rather retired satisfied to their tents. This tendency is nowhere more observable than in the Catholic Church and in the upper grades of Catholic society. A cause cannot be said really to prosper, adherents to which can be attracted only by the putting forward of a number of questions, the settlement of which would all be included in the main issue. If the desire for Home Rule is genuine, every other question should make way for it. Thousands believe in Home Rule who cannot accept these additions to the programme. Others would be found willing to assist in advancing many of these desires if Home Rule were not joined to them.

The long simmering of this question without steady, continuous, vigorous action, has an unfortunate influence on Irish affairs and Irish prosperity. A large proportion of the Irish people indubitably desire Home Rule. The question is, whether they desire it to the extent of sacrificing and spending for its attainment; and unless they show that they desire it to that degree, it will be impossible for them to retain the sympathy of their friends at home and abroad. I have, I believe, before noted in your columns that, at the local Government elections, while many opponents of Home Rule accepted by popular constituencies, [illegible] Catholic and Socialistic questions were returned; and that many old and tried Protestant Home Rulers (who, as exponents of genuine Home Rule feeling, it would have been of prime importance to send forward) were rejected for less qualified men who more really represented sectional feeling. A significant situation had in this regard before these elections come about in Belfast. A change in the law for the first time gave a majority in certain wards to what had theretofore been known as the National Home Rule party. The Catholic Bishop stepped in and insisted that candidates should be chosen on Catholic, not national, grounds. In the face of vigorous protest he carried his point, and Protestants theretofore excluded from office because of their Home Rule opinions found themselves doubly excluded because of their religion. This, however, is not the spirit generally shown throughout Ireland.

Those most responsible for the advancement of Home Rule express themselves satisfied with the outcome of this convention. A very few years must now decide whether or not a burning desire exists on the part of the Irish people for a radical change in the relations between the countries—whether the apathy of late years has arisen only because of party differences, or whether it may not be due to changes in the thoughts, feelings, and tendencies of Irish society. One possible disintegrating element cannot be left out of account. Mr. Healy is, in a certain sense, one of the ablest Irish politicians. He has an important following in and out of Parliament. In the differences and discussions of the last few years it has always somehow occurred that he has in the end been found in opposition to the majority of the party to which he appears to have given his adhesion. And it has happened that those whom he has considered it his duty most to discredit, and, where possible, drive out of politics, are those who, to the majority of his countrymen, appear most useful, earnest, and devoted in the cause of home rule. After giving full adhesion to a reunited party a few months ago, he and his are now setting themselves bitterly in opposition to the work of this convention, the outcome of the deliberations of the said party. There is no legal justification for saying that his views have changed concerning the desirability of the continuance of a movement for Home Rule. It is, however, incontrovertible that, if a man desired the destruction of such movement, he could not better set himself about it; and there can be little doubt that he is receiving the support of a large number who do not desire openly to admit they are tired of the agitation.

Irishmen are deplorably prone blindly to follow those in whom they have once placed their trust, to abnegate their reason, to swallow wholesale statements without proof, to continue to believe, if they so desire, what has been over and over again proved to be untrue. This may be partly owing to the tribal system having prevailed over most of the country until within the last three hundred years. Until the recent remarkable display of similar characteristics in the English people in reference to the Transvaal war, it might have been supposed by some to arise from adherence to a religion that makes such large demands on faith and imagination. There is one consideration forcibly impressed upon many by the course of Irish affairs—the greater difficulties in the assertion of political desires, in the path of a people devotedly attached to spiritual leaders acting under influences outside their country, which mainly consider the prestige and advancement of a world-wide church, than those in the way of people ,the government of whose churches is centred in their own country. D. B.

A LEXICOGRAPHER ON LEXICOGRAPHY.

OXFORD, June 22, 1900.

This year's Romanes lecture was given today, not by any far-fetched savant unfamiliar to Oxford, but by the indefatigable Dr. James A. H. Murray, whose name and work have done and are still doing so much to centre the interest of all students of English in Oxford. Appropriately indeed he chose for his subject "The Evolution of English Lexicography."

He began by humorously complaining of persons who speak of 'The Dictionary' as of 'The Bible,' or of 'The Psalms,' and who, "if pressed as to the authorship of these works, would certainly say that 'The Psalms' were composed by David and 'The Dictionary' by Dr. Johnson." Against these thoughtless people he maintained that the English Dictionary, like the English Constitution, was the creation of no one man, but a growth that had slowly developed itself through the ages. Its beginnings were "neither Dictionaries nor English," but Latin glosses of the seventh and eighth centuries of our era. These explanations of the meanings of difficult words were written between the lines of old Latin MSS., sometimes giving a more familiar Latin equivalent, but sometimes also giving a vernacular English definition or translation. After a time these glosses were copied out into glossaries. Soon came in, among clerics of Teutonic speech, the habit of making vocabularies to facilitate the learning of Latin—the vocabulary being a list of Latin words with their vernacular equivalents. Vocabularies and glossaries made in connection with special books were finally fused together into very bulky documents. As these grew longer, the need of alphabetical arrangement became imperative. Our full-fledged plan of alphabetical order, however, was not achieved in a day. The first step was to bring together all the words having the same first letter. A second step so far improved upon this first-letter order as to rearrange the words beginning with A, B, and C, alphabetizing them according to the second letter.

The "Leiden Glossary," well known to special students, represents the wholly unalphabetical stage of arrangement, and was described by Dr. Murray as "a collection of smaller glossaries, or rather sets of glosses, each set entered under the name of the treatise from which it was extracted, the words in each being left in the order in which they happened to come to the treatise or work." The "Épinal Glossary," using largely the materials of its predecessor, is arranged in first-letter order. The third stage is represented by the "Corpus Glossary," so called from Corpus Christi College, Cambridge, which is in second-letter order. These three glossaries date back to the early eighth century and beyond, while there is one glossary in the British Museum (Harleian 3,376), belonging to the tenth century, of which Dr. Murray spoke as being arranged in third-letter order. So far and no further did the systematization of early English word-lists go. Nor were these lists, the earliest of which must have been begun between 600 and 700 A. D. (not long after the introduction of Christianity in Kent), prevailingly lists of Old English words until the Corpus Glossary and its successors were compiled. These tended to become a Latin dictionary for the use of Englishmen.

"The Normans," said Dr. Murray, "were about as far behind the people whom they conquered as the Romans were when they made themselves masters of Greece." Hence English lexicography stood still for more than 300 years after the Conquest, which overthrew Old English learning and literary culture, and abolished nearly all its poetical, philosophical, scientific, and artistic vocabulary. Professor Wülcker's edition of Thomas Wright's collection of early word-lists shows only two meagre vocabularies between 1066 and 1400, and of these one is but an echo of the earlier literary age of Alfred and Aelfric, while the other is a meagre list of plant-names. With the end of the fourteenth century, however, English lexicography reflects the return of English ascendancy, and we have six important vocabularies of the fifteenth century, prepared chiefly for helping boys to learn Latin. Notable among these was the 'Promptuarium Parvulorum,' of Brother Galfridus, Englished by Dr. Murray as "The Children's Storeroom or Repository."

With the renascence of ancient learning came, during the sixteenth century, many important Latin-English and English-Latin vocabularies, notably the Dictionary of Thomas Elyot, Knight, "the first work, so far as I know," said Dr. Murray, "which took to itself in English what was destined to be the famous name of *Dictionary*." After curious details as to quaint alternative names current in Elyot's day, such as Abecedarium, Glossographia, World of Words, Bibliotheca, and Gazophylacium, Dr. Murray spoke of the lexicographical activities of Thomas Cooper, "Schole-Maister of Maudlens, Oxford," the son of an Oxford tradesman, who became Dean of Christ Church and Vice-Chancellor, and of the 'Vulgaria' of William Horman, printed by Pynson in 1519. He also mentioned Howlet's 'Abecedarium' (1552), and the 'Alvearie' of John Baret (1573), "one of the most quaint and charming of all the early Dictionaries," and of the 'Manipulus Vocabulorum,' or English Riming Dictionary, of Peter Levins (1570).

A new departure had been made meanwhile in 1521, when Alexander Barclay's 'Introductory to write & to pronounce Frenche' was printed, with a vocabulary by Robert Coplande. For Henry VIII.'s sister Mary was written Palgrave's 'Esclaircissement de la Langue Françoyse,' published in 1530. This last is "the earliest Dictionary of a modern language, in French as well as in English." Similar publications for Spanish and Italian were then mentioned by Dr. Murray —a Spanish one in 1599 by Richard Percival, Gent, and "resolute John Florio's 'World of Words' (1611)"; nor did he forget the second Dictionary of English and another modern tongue (Welsh), "by me John Waley, 1547." Last, but not least, came Randall Cotgrave's famous French-English Dictionary, published in the same year (1611) with Florio's Italian-English work.

After a tribute to the racy English vocabulary of Florio and Cotgrave, the lecturer noted the chronological coincidence of their publications with the promulgation of King James's version of the Bible, and then turned to the first signs of a recognition among Englishmen that they could want a dictionary to help them to the knowledge and correct use of their own language. This he detected in "a modest octavo of 120 pages, 5½ by 3½, calling itself the *Table Alphabeticall of Hard Words*," by Robert Cawdrey (1604), a schoolmaster. A similar work appeared in 1616, and finally in 1623 appeared 'The English Dictionarie,' by "H. C. Gent"—*i. e.*, Henry Cockeram. Dr. Murray here entered into the humors of this most marvellous of vocabularies, wherein *adcorporated* means married, *bubulcitate* is explained as 'to cry like a cowboy'; and quoted in full its edifying account of the Crocodile. Of similar use was Thomas Blount's less entertaining Dictionary of hard words (1656), which went through many editions down to 1707. Then the lecturer, after interesting reference to the needs of women as having prompted the publication of several of these earliest English dictionaries, and after a generous tribute to the part played by women in our own day in the establishment of English study on a sound and secure basis, passed in rapid review various successive dictionaries of hard words, including the 'New World of Words' (in which Edward Phillips, a nephew of John Milton, so serenely helped himself out of Thomas Blount's stores), and fixed his attention upon the mathematician, John Kersey, who edited the last and posthumous issue of Phillips's work.

This same John Kersey ended by throwing Phillips's materials into another form, a 'General English Dictionary,' of which three editions appeared before 1721, and almost stumbled upon the idea that an English Dictionary should contain all English words and not simply "hard words." But this further step in the evolution of the modern dictionary was still to be made. Nathaniel Bailey, the man who made it, was, said Dr. Murray, "one of the most deserving in the annals of English Lexicography." His great work was his 'Universal Etymological English Dictionary' (1721); and though for us his fame has been eclipsed by that of Dr. Johnson, who is to us *par excellence* the eighteenth-century lexicographer, yet, said Dr. Murray, "down beyond the middle of that century, and to the man in the street much later, by far the best-known name in connection with dictionaries was that of Nathaniel Bailey." When he died (1742), the tenth edition was in the press, and successive editions were called for every two years until the end of the century.

Bailey furthermore brought out in 1730 his folio dictionary, which, according to Sir John Hawkins, formed the working basis of Dr. Johnson. Here Dr. Murray touched upon the peculiar genius of the age of Queen Anne, and spoke of the prevalent fear of decay in the language which resulted in a general desire "to fix" it by means of a Standard Dictionary after the fashion set in Italy by the Accademia della Crusca, and in France by the Académie Française. Johnson's Dictionary was the culmination of this general movement in England. Its special new feature, contributed to the evolution of the modern dictionary, was "the illustration of the use of each word by a selection of literary quotations, and the more delicate appreciation and discrimination of senses which this involved and rendered possible." Only where he had no quotations did Johnson insert words from Bailey's folio or other sources with "Dict." as the authority. Here followed a most generous and discriminating appreciation of Johnson's merits, and a lucid description of his method, as well as a passing mention of some of his errors, *e. g.*, in dealing with the words *coco* and *cocoa*, and with the word *dispatch*.

Dr. Murray's final verdict pronounces Johnson's Dictionary "a marvellous piece of work to accomplish in eight and a half years," and declares it to be quite certain "that, if all the quotations had had to be verified and furnished with exact references, a much longer time, or the employment of much more collaboration, would have been necessary." To this direct judgment, great point was added when the lecturer subjoined the further statement that, "with much antecedent preparation, with much skilled coöperation, and with strenuous effort, it took more than nine years to produce the first three letters of the alphabet of the Oxford New English Dictionary."

Johnson thus raised English lexicography to an altogether higher level. "In his hands," said Dr. Murray, with pardonable enthusiasm, "it became a department of literature." The briefest suggestion of the closing ten minutes of his lecture must suffice. Bailey and Johnson indicated the stress-accent; Kenrick and Walker brought in the careful indication of pronunciation—told what was the living word apart from its written symbol. In the closing century came Noah Webster and Charles Richardson. Of Webster, the lecturer spoke with eloquent appreciation; "Webster was a great man, a born definer of words; he was fired with the idea that America ought to have a dictionary of its own form of English, independent of British usage, and he produced a work of great originality and value." After a merited word of reprehension touching Webster's etymological vagaries, corrected in later editions, Dr. Murray pronounced the last edition of Webster, the International, "perhaps the best of one-volume dictionaries." Of Richardson also the lecturer spoke admiringly, and then gave a summary of the undertaking at the head of which he now stands, the 'New English Dictionary.' Not unnaturally, Dr. Murray effaced himself in this sketch, which began with the late Dean Trench's account of "Some Deficiencies in Existing English Dictionaries," addressed half a century ago to the London Philological Society.

Those of us who have followed the fortunes of the 'New English Dictionary' since and before the expenses of it were undertaken by the Clarendon Press, which ultimately means by the University of Oxford, are able to read between the lines of Dr. Murray's too modest account of this matter, and to admire the clearness of vision and tenacity of purpose exemplified in our great lexicographer's high-minded devotion to a scientific ideal. Large though our debt is to Dean Trench and to the Philological Society, it is larger still to Dr. Murray. Nor is it fair, in summing up, to forget the University of Oxford, which will certainly stand out in the eyes of all English-speaking peoples as a great institution of learning which is seriously crippled in all its branches, and will be so for the space of two generations, in order that the world of English speech may be dowered with a 'New English Dictionary,' containing the minutest record that science and unintermitting labor can achieve of all the facts concerning every word in the whole English language, past and present.

Louis Dyer.

THE PARIS EXPOSITION.—III.

THE FRENCH FINE-ARTS SECTION.—II.

Paris, June, 1900.

Whatever the Romantic Revival may mean to us, to its brave young leaders it meant, above all, the breaking away from the teaching of the schools and the cult of their own individuality. But, as I have said, nothing in their work, as you see it in the Exposition, strikes you more than the fact that few among them possessed any special personality to cultivate, and that, despite their protests, tradition still lingered. There is but a suggestion of individuality in Delacroix, none whatever in Célestin-Nanteuil, Devéria, Roqueplan, or the other young heroes of the Cénacle. Géricault died too young to fulfil the promise he gave, and Daumier, after all, devoted himself chiefly to black-and-white. Even in Corot, the new study of values does not quite destroy the old respect for Claude; and, if the legs and trousers of Millet's "Wood-Sawyers" caused consternation in the Paris studios, the picture now seems to us more in sympathy with the sober landscapes of the past than with the realistic studies and brilliant impressions that came after. Courbet, it has been said, was swept forward on the very crest of the wave of Realism. But Manet was practically the first to succeed in going direct to Nature, and to emancipate himself entirely from the leading-strings of tradition. He is the most legitimate outcome of Romanticism—that is, as its leaders understood it—though he was not born until the heat of the battle was over, and did not exhibit until, as a movement, it was at an end. His work, as you come to it in chronological order, is as startling as Géricault's among the Classical *machines*, and it is easy to understand the outcry it raised thirty years ago, when the best that Gautier could say for it was that it stimulated curiosity, and that, if Manet would only take the trouble, he might be a good painter.

As if to make up for the two International Exhibitions (1867 and 1878) when no place was found for him, as many as thirteen of his pictures are now included, almost filling one gallery. They have been chosen so as to give an excellent idea of his methods at different periods of his career, from the "Déjuener sur l'herbe" and the "Combat de Taureaux," when he was still influenced by Spain and Velasquez, to the outdoor subjects painted after 1870, when he had begun his *plein-air* experiments and the practice of his *peinture claire*. There are characteristic portraits: the Marcellin Desboutins, Madame Gonzales; and "Déjeuner dans l'atelier"; there is a sea piece, "Boulogne, sortie du port"; there are studies of asparagus and peonies, technical miracles worked by the man of all others, perhaps, who could intoxicate himself with paint for its own sake; there is one, at least, of those uncompromising renderings of a vulgar subject, "Un Bar aux Folies-Bergères," in which he triumphs by his beautiful painting of ugly detail. But of all these things, it is probably by the famous "Déjeuner sur l'herbe" that his reputation is assured. This is the picture that hung in the Salon des Refusés of 1863 or 1864, with Whistler, Bracquemond, Harpignies, and Legros. It belongs to much the same period as the "Olympe" of the Luxembourg—it is interesting to find water-color studies for both down stairs—and has the same fine qualities. It is masterly in the treatment of the nude in the figure of the model; the splendor of the blacks in the coats of the men who sit with her under the trees, and their contrast with the flesh tint; the exquisite detail, here—instead of the bunch of flowers, a basket with fruit and rolls scattered over the grass; the cool green of the wood; the distant stream, and the woman, half-dressed, wading through it. In this, Manet was painting a picture. In so many of his later canvases, he was but making experiments, brilliant, without doubt, and of enormous interest. But the perfect work of art is something more than experimental.

In the little group who owed their immediate inspiration to Manet, the experiment, it seems to me, becomes still more obvious; more so, curiously, in their later than in their earlier canvases. There is a room of Monets, Sisleys, Pisarros, and Renoirs; also examples of Cézanne and Mme. Morisot; though nothing by the most extreme of the group, Anquetin and Signac. As in the Caillebotte room at the Louvre, these impressions—it is convenient to use Monet's now accepted word for them—do not improve when shown in numbers together. The faults, not the beauties, are emphasized. From their theories of brush work, of the division of colors and tones on their canvas, amusing and fresh in the beginning, these painters developed mannerisms that are irritating. Take M. Claude Monet as an example, for, unquestionably, he is the most accomplished and distinguished of them all. In his first pictures, whatever his methods, he did give the effect he wanted; he did seize the impression of the moment and perpetuate it on his canvas, so successfully that you see only the loveliness of the passing train enveloped in its clouds of smoke, or the stretch of quiet, blue river in sunlight, or the silvery trees on a lakeside, or whatever it may be, without stopping to ask how the thing is done or what are his methods. But gradually his technical devices seem to have absorbed his attention until you cannot see the picture for the dots of color, and a landscape is transformed into a dazzling mosaic of tints from which, at the Exposition, at all events, you never get far enough away to discover a definite pattern or design. And I think, after the Corots and Daubignys, the Rousseaus and Troyons down stairs, you cannot but be conscious of the indifference of all these men to beauty. They accept Nature as she is wherever they happen to be brought face to face with her. If tree forms are not graceful, if lines are awkward, the fault is Nature's and not theirs; they wash their hands of the responsibility. Nature, as we have been told, is usually wrong, and many of their pictures seem but a bald statement of her indiscretions. It is the merest chance when a beautiful subject or composition preoccupies them.

Impressionism made such a noise in its day, it excited such heated controversy, such violent partisanship, and still more violent enmity, that one is apt, as in the case of Pre-Raphaelitism in England, to exaggerate its importance and the sphere of its influence. It seems to one now as if, thirty years ago, in France, the painter who was not an Impressionist simply did not exist; as if the new theories and methods exhausted all that was original and individual in the then younger generation. But it is the merit of a retrospective exhibition that it helps one to see things in their true proportions, their true relations. The fact is, that many artists as original and vigorous as Manet and Monet were seeking their artistic salvation on entirely different lines, and that Impressionism was but one—and not the most influential—of many forces at work in the schools and studios. In the very gallery with the Manets are portraits by M. Fantin-Latour—among them, a wonderful group of black-coated men gathered round the end of a dinner-table, in a gray room, almost Whistlerian—that have much of the feeling and dignity and solemnity of the old Dutch masters; for, at that time, Fantin had not devoted himself to flowers and nymphs and goddesses in mystic woods. There are two pictures—his finest, "L'Ex-Voto," of an earlier date from the Dijon Museum—by M. Legros, that show him also busy developing his individuality, not by evolving new theories, but by studying old masters. There are designs by Gustave Moreau and Puvis de Chavannes that explain how far Impressionism was from engrossing all artistic energies; though it must be confessed that the "Salomé," the "Vénus," and the others by Moreau, with their overloaded detail, their artificial mysticism, their affectations, hardly seem more genuine than the Rosicrucian romancing of Sar Péladan, and have little charm of color or line or composition to redeem them, while the examples of Puvis, if they do include a sketch for one of the Amiens series, fail to give an adequate idea of the distinction and dignity of his decorations. There are several pastels, if only two paintings, by Degas, the incomparable draughtsman, and, for sake of contrast, the essays in Realism of Bastien-Lepage, once the idol of the schools. There are landscapes by Cazin and Billotte, who have gone calmly upon their way as if controversy had never raged over the decomposition of tone and the use of complementary colors; and landscapes by Harpignies and Français, who never swerved from the principles of Romanticism. There are pictures by Fromentin, as independent in his painting as in his criticism; brilliant sketches by Henri Regnault to fill one with regret for the life's task unfinished; portraits by Baudry; academic studies of the nude by Falguière, who, though one had forgotten it, could paint; characteristic work of Meissonier, Hervier, Couture, Manet's master—it is not possible to go through the entire list. And after this there are so many things by men who exhibit as well in the Decennial Section that the two exhibitions cannot be separated. They overlap each other so completely that, but for the numbering of the galleries, you might not know where the one ended and the other began. Indeed, it would have been almost better to exclude living painters from the Centennial Collection and so avoid confusion.

The contemporary section is necessarily nothing more nor less than a reunion of the two Salons. Here are the men for whom you have been accustomed to look in each—M. Harpignies and M. Pointelin, M. Fantin-Latour and M. Henner in the Champs-Élysées; M. Cazin, M. Carrière, and M. Besnard, M. Adam-Jean and M. Cottet, M. Simon and M. Billotte, M. Lhermitte and M. Raffaëlli, and a dozen more in the Champ-de-Mars; though the absence of the foreigner from their midst is a loss. Here you find the old familiar banalities of Bouguereau, the portraits of Bonnat, which the Centennial collection convinces you have not grown more refined with time; and here the amusing portraits by Gandara, the Dutch-like studies of still-life and the sheen of metal by Ball. As a rule, the pictures are those already exhibited and long since discussed and classified; the sensations of ten years—the crimson horses of Besnard, the religious naturalism of Béraud, the vague crucifixion and vaguer theatre of Carrière, the wrestlers of Simon, the decorative dreams of Aman-Jean, and so on through an inexhaustible catalogue. They fill gallery after gallery in bewildering numbers, for the French artists have reserved for themselves as much space as they have spared for all other countries together. It is simply out of the question, therefore, to speak of the pictures separately or at length. All that can be done in an article of this kind is to endeavor to give some idea of general tendencies and characteristics. I can but speak from personal experience.

As I wandered through the interminable succession of galleries, I found myself marvelling at the state of quiescence into which art seems to have fallen in France after almost a century of "storm and stress." There are no signs of new movements, no daring departures, no gay proclamations of rebellion. I know it is the object of the Exposition to show what has already been accomplished, rather than to bring forward the younger men who may accomplish much in the future. It is the same in every other section; only the artist who has arrived is given a place. But ten years can see many changes and innovations; think what was done in the thirties and in the seventies! This last decade, however, appears to have been one of rest, much needed rest. The men of note in the Decennial collection, who do not figure in the Centennial, are few: M. Aman-Jean, M. Simon, M. Cottet, M. Ménard are the artists who occur to me at once, and, delightful as their work often is, they have had no influence on their generation. Whatever activity there has been during the last ten years has led really to reaction. It is astonishing to see how ephemeral has been the reign of impressionism. I was reading the other day a panegyric of Manet, in which it was declared that the artist, young or old, who had not been affected by his doctrines was the exception. But look around these galleries. Certainly a great deal has been learned from impressionism; every serious artistic movement, or even revolt, must have something to teach. And, certainly too, there are men like Besnard and Roll and Henri Martin and Eliot who, each after his own fashion, and within limits, have accepted the new creed preached by Manet and his disciples. But upon the work of the great majority, impressionism has left not a trace.

These are the negative tendencies from which there is no escape. But one very positive fact confronts you as persistently at every step—the immense technical knowledge and skill of the French painter. No one ever has mastered so thoroughly the grammars of art, though he may not, and usually has not, anything in particular to say, any message of his own to deliver to the world. I have stood appalled before some of the big *machines*, so common always in the two Salons, with their evidence of the painter's learning, his technical power, his amazing physical energy and endurance. In the Centennial collection, Lhermitte, whose strength is apt to be overlooked nowadays, and Carolus-Duran, whose huge "Assassiné" of 1866 accounts for the beginning of his reputation in the schools, are perhaps the two most astonishing. After that, it would be almost easier to say who does not overwhelm you with his ability to cover a gigantic stretch of canvas. One room in particular appeared to me typical of the attainments now in vogue, viz., the large room where M. Benjamin-Constant's design of the "Entry of Urban II. into Toulouse," the town for which it is destined, fills a centre, and is flanked on either side by the big arrangements of the nude *en plein-air* by M. Gervais, and the clever portraits of M. Blanche, and the brilliant studies of light by M. Gaston Latouche; these, in their turn, faced by the colossal performances of M. Tattegrain and M. Quentin. Or, there is a group of galleries where Roybet, and Rochegrosse, and Detaille, and Gervex, and Jean Paul Laurens, and Henri Martin, and Montenard, and Lefebvre, and Boutet de Monvel, and Dubufe follow each other in an amazing rapidity—as if to carry out a motive historical, or mystical, or illustrative, on such a scale were a mere everyday task. I do not say that the result is invariably a masterpiece; usually it is not; and, anyway, it cannot fairly be judged until the design is seen in the place on the walls and in the light for which it was intended. But I do say that the skill with which canvases of this class are turned out is a tribute to the technical traditions honored nowhere so sincerely as in France, and to the thoroughness of the schools to which the whole world now throngs. When the new genius does arise, it will be his own fault if he does not set out upon his career with a sound technical basis for his most imaginative or emotional flights. At times, fine technique is not the sole merit. M. Dagnan-Bouveret's "Last Supper" is placed at the end of a series of galleries, where all that is most theatrical in it becomes doubly conspicuous, where all that is most artificial in its scheme of illumination seems more pronounced than when I saw it first at the Champ-de-Mars. And yet, here, it was less easy than at the new Salon or when it appeared swathed in draperies in a London gallery, to deny the sincerity, the solemnity, that underlies the too obvious dramatic intention of its contrasts of light and shadow. And so it was with M. Cottet's sombre Breton Supper and brilliant Procession in the adjoining room. There is the same facility, but they are the work not only of the able painter who has a commission to fulfil or his mark to make in an exhibition, but of the artist who feels the beauty, the dignity of his subject, and strives his utmost to give it worthy expression. If he fails, there is more interest in his failure than in the success of the astonishingly clever manufacturer of the Salon *machine*.

I regret the more I have not space to go into detail, since I have left so much unsaid that I should like to have said. But I think I have explained the general character of the French Section in the Palais des Beaux-Arts, when I add that it confirmed me in the conclusions drawn from the Salons of recent years that, while ability is the rule in France at the end of the century, originality is the exception. To what purpose, then, it may be asked, the agitation, the revolts, the rebellions, the revivals, the unceasing strivings of a hundred years? To what good the struggle of Romanticism, of Realism, of Impressionism, and of all the other isms that have followed each other with the generations? You will have the answer if you go back, as I did, from the modern to the earlier room hung with the brown frigidities of David and his disciples. There may be stagnation, even decadence, for an interval, but, on the whole, the century has been one of development, not of retrogression.

N. N.

Correspondence.

INDIAN SONG.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In a review of 'Indian Story and Song from North America,' published in your issue of June 7, the writer states: "No Indian ever uttered sentences like these: 'The sky was clear. The grass and wild flowers waved in the breeze that rose as the sun threw its first beams over the earth. Birds of all kinds vied with each other as they sang their joy on that beautiful morning.'" This misunderstanding of the Indian on the part of my critic I beg you will kindly allow me space to correct.

Among the Pawnee, from whom the above quotation is made, as well as among other tribes which I have studied in the field for the past twenty years, "The sky was clear" (or "is clear") is used as a symbolic expression as well as a statement of fact, and not infrequently occurs in religious rituals. The next sentence of the quotation is also symbolic as well as actual. The rituals tell that the wind gave breath to man, and is the breath of the gods. The breeze, that every early riser has noticed, which comes with the daybreak, can be explained by the meteorologist one way; to the Indian it is the breath of the gods bringing (or giving) new life to the new day. The rituals also teach that the first beams of the sun carry a peculiar power to whatever they touch. In the sacred ceremonies it is to these first rays that the pipe is offered to the east. The movements of the man who presents the pipe are with the body bent forward and the eyes fixed as on a low horizon line. The next sentence of the quoted passage speaks of the vying of birds. Contests between birds in song and strength of wing are the subject of many an Indian folk-tale. All these native beliefs and fancies are recalled in the "Story of the Wren," from which the sentences are cited—a story that belongs to a religious rite, and which is told by the priest to the initiated in order to inculcate certain ethical teachings. In like manner, did space permit, could be explained every figure of speech and each native fancy used in the stories given in the little book.

An Indian language lends itself to picture-making with a wealth of detail that almost defies translation into our more staid English speech. A single word will call up a scene, or describe an act, which, to give with equal force in English, would require a sentence, or even more than one. The Indian's mental attitude toward nature and his social surroundings is reflected in his language, his customs, and his cults. This attitude is so unlike our own that it has led, and still leads, to many misunderstandings between the two races.

A word as to the presentation of the music in the book. For economical reasons the aria was not printed upon a separate staff, but, as is stated in the preface, "the melodies are exactly as sung by the Indian." The accuracy of the published transcription has been tested by competent musicians by comparison with the graphophone records taken from the Indians themselves. The melody, as is generally the case in written music, is the upper line of notes in the treble staff. Any one can play or sing this aria, leaving the harmony out, if he chooses to do so. An aria unsupported by chords is not intelligible to the general reader, whose pleasure and information were in mind while preparing this book. There is another reason for publishing the songs as they appear, and that is, that the Indians themselves prefer the simple accompaniment as given, when the songs are made objective by being played upon an instrument—a curious and interesting fact, since the Indians, as stated in the book, always sing in unison.—Yours respectfully,

ALICE C. FLETCHER.

PEABODY MUSEUM, CAMBRIDGE, MASS.,
June 25, 1900.

ROMAN EXTORTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the interest of the intelligent and educated travelling public, annually spending money freely in Rome, I write to protest against a form of annoyance which has recently taken on more serious proportions than ever. Years ago, when visiting the Vatican, it was understood that at various barriers were stationed liveried menials who had to be paid *pour enfoncer une porte ouverte;* and to this custom, particularly as the collection was really a private one, the traveller commonly acceded with more or less grace. But to-day, in such *public* collections as the Museo Nazionale delle Terme, and still more markedly in the Museo Kircheriano, it has become almost impossible to obtain a moment of quiet for thought and study—even after paying the regulation entrance fee. The stranger, particularly if he be alone and happens to have deliberately chosen, for his own purposes, an hour when few visitors are likely to be present, is simply dogged from room to room by a *custode* in creaky boots; this under the pretence of seeing that objects under glass are not handled, or that the student shall not adopt the prevalent Italian practice of using the floor, as Thackeray said, for an "instrumentoon." Three days ago, at the Museo Nazionale, a party of perfectly competent American travellers were so persecuted in this manner that one of them offered the tormentor a franc to hold his tongue and stand still; and the offer was accepted.

To mere remonstrances the invariable answer is, "Ordinato dal Ministero." Now it cannot be that any department of the public service should decree the watching and harassing of a solitary stranger as though he were a potential thief. The more obvious explanation is that these servants simply lie in wait for the *forestiere*, and, in spite of the still more formal regulation, "Sono vietate le mancie" ("Tips forbidden"), occupy their idleness and ingenuity in devising schemes to tap him. A favorite device consists in keeping exact step with the visitor. The latter moves two paces, the *custode* takes two. The stranger moves a quarter circle round a show-case, and the other radius follows with military precision. If the student sits down for a moment to consult an authority, the heavy-footed guardian tramps noisily up and down till all possibility of concentrated thought has vanished. It might be well for the authorities to employ only deaf-mutes, shod with felt. Fortunately, the two museums on the Campidoglio, the Vatican galleries, the Accademia S. Luca, and most of the private collections are free from this nuisance. It would give the writer of this letter the greatest gratification to see it obtain a wide publicity.

A. U.

ROME, June 20, 1900.

"ACHILLES' WRATH."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The oldest copy of Pope's Iliad in the Astor Library is catalogued as of the original edition, 1715-20. As to volumes ii.-vi., this is probably true. Volume i. has been recently rebacked, but the old side-covers are exactly like those of the other volumes. Inside its cover is pasted Pope's autograph receipt for two guineas from Lady Massam, and a pencilled note on the title-page asserts that this is her Ladyship's copy. That very title-page, however, is plainly dated, not 1715, but 1738.

This Astor copy of volume i. does not contain at all the list of original subscribers (in which Lady Massam duly appears). Some of the plates are, I think, also missing. The paging runs not to 318, as in the edition of 1715, but over 380. Yet in general appearance it is entirely suited to its companions.

Pope's publisher, Bernard Lintot, died in 1736. According to the 'Dictionary of National Biography,' after his retirement to the country in 1730 his son Henry's name regularly appears associated with the father's. But the Astor first volume reads: "Printed by W. Bowyer for B. Lintott, and sold by" —— two other booksellers, not by the Lintots at all. Yet these are evidently not old copies or sheets purchased from the Lintots, as the paging alone proves.

Permit me to ask your correspondents for further information as to this edition, or as to other authorized editions issued in Pope's later lifetime. The familiar couplet from which my caption is taken does *not* appear in this copy of 1738. It does appear in the edition of 1750. Can it be positively ascribed to Pope—*or to Warburton?* If Pope had not revised the couplet in 1738, it seems unlikely that he did so between that date and his death in 1744. The change was made by some one who missed the word "unnumber'd" (μυρία), and was capable of the flat tautology, "Heavenly Goddess." Some, I am sure, will prefer Pope's original version:

> "The Wrath of *Peleus'* Son, the direful Spring
> Of all the *Grecian* woes, O Goddess, sing!"

Another couplet, i., 452-3, may aid in the discussion. Pope wrote in 1715:

> "Supported by the chiefs on either hand,
> In silence past along the winding strand."

There are few more graceful passages, and Pope in a note intimates his satisfaction with his own "numbers." But the "vulgate," from 1750 onward, reads:

> "Past silent, as the heralds held her hand,
> And oft look'd back, slow-moving o'er the strand."

The gasping *h*'s in the former line, we hope and plead, should rather from the pedant pupil's pen proceed.

There are several minor changes, also, indicating conscious revision, but none, at least in Book I., of great weight or interest. In every case the 1738 copy agrees with the text of 1715, a good specimen of which is in the Lenox Library. Of course, there may be plenty of positive evidence in existence—even Pope's autographic corrections. Certainly, the authorship of what is perhaps the most familiar heroic couplet in the language is a literary question of importance.

WM. C. LAWTON.

ADELPHI COLLEGE, BROOKLYN, June 28, 1900.

INTRINSECATE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Has not your correspondent, "F. H.," overlooked the somewhat curious point that the use of this word by some contemporary poet, or dramatist, was one of the factors resulting in the so-called Elizabethan poetomachia? Marston, in the address To Those that seem Judicial Perusers, prefixed to the "Scourge of Villainie" (1598), attacks some contemporary in this fashion:

> "Yet when, by some scurvy chance, it [my book] shall come into the late perfumed fist of judicial Torquatus (that like some rotten stick in a troubled water hath got a great deal of barmy froth to stick to his sides), I know he will vouchsafe it some of his new-minted epithets (as *real*, *intrinsecate*, and *Delphic*), when in my conscience he understands not the least part of it."

Elizabethan poetic and dramatic literature contains many allusions testifying to familiarity with the writings of Macchiavelli. Marston's allusion has generally been held to have been intended for Ben Jonson, who uses all three words in his early plays; but the latest, and, in many respects, best authority on this topic declines to concede that Jonson is pointed at, although Mr. Small failed to give any authority for his assertion, contenting himself with saying that the three words were widely current at that particular time. (See 'The Stage Quarrel between Ben Jonson and the so-called Poetasters,' by Roscoe Addison Small, Breslau, 1899.)

C. A. H.

July 6, 1900.

Notes.

George Barrie & Son, Philadelphia, are to pictorialize the Paris Exhibition in the manner of four previous international exhibitions. The volumes devoted to the painting and sculpture of to-day will be in charge of Mr. William Watson, while M. André Saglio of the Musée Cluny will edit the volume on the centennial and retrospective collections in the Grand and the Petit Palais. M. Victor Champier will deal with the renaissance in the industrial decorative arts. One whole volume will be devoted to the architecture and life of the Exposition. A series of more than 500 intaglio plates will furnish the illustrations. A prospectus of the undertaking may be had at the firm's Paris office, No. 19 Rue Scribe.

Henry T. Coates & Co., Philadelphia, have in press 'The Weird Orient,' Eastern tales by Henry Iliowizi.

McClure, Phillips & Co. announce 'Abraham Lincoln—His Book,' a facsimile of a scrap-book of clippings made by Lincoln for one of his supporters in the contest with Douglas for the Senatorship in 1858, as containing the substance of all he had ever said on the subject of negro equality. It was to be, and was, used to prevent his opponents' making capital out of his alleged views on this subject. In the fall the same firm will publish 'Donegal Fairy Stories,' compiled by Seumas Macmanus.

'The Life and Writings of Thomas Jefferson,' by S. E. Forman, Ph.D. (Johns Hopkins), is in the press of the Bowen-Merrill Co., Indianapolis.

Sampson Low, Marston & Co. will market 'The *Times* History of the War in South Africa,' in five royal octavo volumes, fully illustrated with portraits, maps and plans.

A French translation of Professor Ashley's 'English Economic History' has just been published by the Paris house of Giard & Brière, in their "Bibliothèque Internationale d'Économie Politique," edited by M. Alfred Bonnet. The first volume is the work of M. Bondois of the Lycée Buffon; the second of M. Savinien Bouyssy.

'Foreign Missions of the Protestant Churches' (New York: Eaton & Mains), by Stephen L. Baldwin, D.D., is a handbook containing brief outline summaries of the work of about sixty missionary societies in this country and Europe, with some historical data. The introductory chapters treat of missions in general and the duty of Christians in respect to them. According to the statistical tables, there are now, in round numbers, nearly twenty thousand stations manned by more than twelve thousand missionaries and sixty-two thousand native assistants, to whose support the various churches contribute more than fifteen million dollars.

'The Reading of Speech from the Lips' (Providence, R. I.: Akerman Company), by Mary Hepburn Parsons, is a practical guide intended particularly to aid the deaf in teaching themselves the art of lip-reading. It is chiefly made up of lists of carefully selected words, with descriptions of the methods of forming the consonants, vowels, prefixes, and suffixes. The learner is warned that expertness is acquired only by long and constant practice, but that "two months should show very marked progress."

In 'The Hygiene of Transmissible Diseases' (Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders), Dr. A. C. Abbott has put together in an interesting and instructive form the main facts regarding the causes, modes of dissemination and infection, and also the prevention and general management, of more than thirty communicable diseases. Scarlet fever, measles, diphtheria, typhoid, and others come to mind at once, but without actually counting up the list one hardly realizes that there are so many. Some are limited to certain parts of the world, some seldom found except in certain parts. Most of them are to a greater or less extent preventable. Sex, age, race, occupation, density of population, heredity, season, and bad sanitation all have their influence as predisposing causes. Some are checked by isolation, disinfection, vaccination, and protective inoculation, and by antitoxic treatment, and there is hope that the scope of these last may become larger and larger. Bacteria in their various forms, though little known a few years ago, may now be considered almost as household pets. Terrible as are their baneful effects in certain cases, it must not be forgotten that the majority of them are benefactors of mankind. They are nature's scavengers, and change dead organic matter into food for plants which again feed man, and in other ways lead to the production of chemical substances of great use to the world. To employ such bacteria as are beneficial, and to repress and destroy such as are harmful, is a worthy, and to a large extent, a successful endeavor of mankind.

Two years ago this month the ill-fated and evil-manned *Bourgogne* went to the bottom in collision in a fog off Sable Island. Among the women who perished (and only one was saved) were the wife and unmarried daughter of Judge John F. Dillon, sailing from this port for France. A privately printed volume from the De Vinne Press, rich in portraits, and consisting mainly of letters from Mrs. Anna Price Dillon, is the husband's recent monument to his wife. A slight connecting narrative binds together the self-revelation and chronicle of the letters, of which the aspect is almost wholly personal and domestic, though Mrs. Dillon was public-spirited and interested in charities, libraries, and the cause of the higher education for women. The memorial is valuable as depicting a type of American character whose charm and energy are imperfectly shown in letter-writing. The Eastern-Western life of both husband and wife, and of the wife's parents, is also typically American.

In the July issue of the *Pennsylvania Magazine of History and Biography*, Mr. Richard Meade Bache discusses the charge brought by Mr. John Bigelow against William Temple Franklin of tampering with his grandfather's Autobiography in the publication of it. Mr. Bache concludes that the exchange of the autograph of the Autobiography "for what was ostensibly a perfect copy of it held by Mme. le Viellard" was innocently made by Temple Franklin, without collation of the two, and perhaps for the sake of fair printer's "copy." What he gave thus uncritically to the world was "almost the whole of the work as revised and corrected by Franklin himself"; what Mr. Bigelow gave, after the recovered MS., was "only a brief addition, apparently left by him [Franklin] without a copy."

The *Geographical Journal* for June opens with a sketch, by the Director-General, of the work of the Ordnance Survey during the past twelve years, accompanied by a series of diagrams. Much of this has been a resurvey, rendered necessary (especially in Yorkshire and Lancashire) by the "immense development of towns and urban districts." An account of a recent exploration of the Bermejo River in northern Argentina, which follows, is noteworthy as showing the retrogression of this region during the past few years. The sites of nearly deserted towns and posts were passed, and of an abandoned colony with all its habitations in ruins, and its once valuable machinery scattered about the long grass. Cultivation of every kind seemed to have ceased, "although anything of a semi-tropical character will grow—sugar-cane, castor-oil plant, tobacco, and the like," besides maize and vegetables. The cause appears to have been lack of means of transport and the want of a market. The character of parts of western China is shown by the remark of Mr. Amundsen in his description of a trip through Sechuen, that "a day's journey will often take the traveller no farther than he can call back to his last night's resting-place, traversing the deep valley between having occupied all his time from daybreak." Some of these valleys are very fertile, yielding three crops a year of barley, wheat, Indian corn, and buckwheat, the hills being covered by luxuriant pine forests. Sir Martin Conway contributes some curious extracts from manuscripts of the seventh century, describing the whale fishery in the sea of Greenland off the coasts of Spitsbergen. We remark finally an illustrated notice of the memorial—an obelisk of concrete (in the absence of suitable stone in the region) twenty feet high and surmounted by a cross—to Dr. Livingstone, to be erected on the site of the famous tree beneath which his heart was buried, and on which his native followers carved an inscription.

A new Klondike in Lapland is a possibility, according to M. Ch. Rabot in the *Tour du Monde*. He bases this belief on the fact that the geological conditions of the two regions are analogous, and that gold has been found for many years in the valleys of some of the rivers flowing into the Arctic. The sand of a tributary of Lake Enara in Finnish Lapland, he affirms, is richer than that of California or Siberia, a cubic metre yielding three and a quarter grains of gold. All efforts to find the mother rock have been unsuccessful hitherto, but such has been the success of the prospectors that machinery for washing gold will be set up this summer in the Norwegian river, the Alten-elf. M. Rabot also says that he has found fragments of diamonds on the Pasvig, the stream which forms the frontier between Norway and Russia, "and the only diamond-bearing region known in Europe."

In striking contrast to the great universities for the building up and keeping up of which enormous sums are spent each year, especially in this country, the old and once famous seat of learning at Würzburg on the Main is actually running down for want of funds. A falling off in the number of students—four hundred in the last ten years—equal to that in all the German universities combined, and this loss almost entirely in the one department upon which the fame of the University mainly rested, the medical, leaves the institution in a sad predicament. Various explanations of this retrogression, by no means flattering to the faculty and administration, have of late been furnished by the German press. But, from discussions in the Bavarian Diet, it appears that the discouraging condition is, in the main, due to the simple fact that the University of Würzburg lacks some of the essential appliances of a modern medical school, such as suitable hospitals and clinics; in short, that what is needed is funds, which the Government has failed to supply.

The new annual report of the youthful but vigorous Orient-Gesellschaft gives the particulars of the discoveries made by Dr. Koldewey and his assistants in the old *Kasr*, or castle ruins of the city of Babylon. Over 5,000 glazed and colored bricks, once a part of the east wall, have been unearthed, and these placed together show the pictures of white lions with yellow manes and yellow lions with green manes. The expectations of finding documentary data for the political history and civilization of ancient Babylonia have not been disappointed. A sculptured representation of the Babylonian deities contains a long inscription of considerable importance in this direction. It has not yet been examined in detail. A stele representing the Hittite god of thunder and lightning, with a Hittite inscription of six lines, is a valuable addition to the meagre list of Hittite inscriptions secured. Its contents evidently are of an historical nature.

The St. Petersburg *Herald* reports the systematic robbery of valuable antiquities from the Transcaucasian districts, especially of tablets with inscriptions, which have been sold abroad. These districts are rich in material of this kind dating back to pre-Christian times, the most important being inscriptions with the names of about twenty-five czars of Van, which they had made as memorials of their conquests. Recently one of these, at the foot of Mr. Ararat, with the inscription of Czar Menna, in which his virtues are reported, disappeared. The Chairman of the Moscow Archæological Society, Countess Uwarowa, reported that this inscription had been broken out of the rock and taken abroad.

The Italian Ministry of Education has ordered that the examination and publication of the papyri taken from Herculaneum and deposited in the museum in Naples be resumed after an interval of many years. The difficult task has been intrusted to Prof. Emilio Martini. Of the collection of 800 papyri found in 1752, only about 200 have been examined.

—Though less than forty members were present at the thirty-second annual meeting of the American Philological Association at Madison, Wis., on July 3-5, the interest in the meeting was well sustained, and the programme of thirty-one papers was unusually good. Five sessions were held. At the evening session on Tuesday, the President of the Association, Miss Abby Leach of Vassar College, delivered a scholarly address on "The Athenian Democracy in the Light of Greek Literature." By frequent and apt quotations from the poets, orators, historians, and philosophers of Athens the speaker gave an admirable picture of what the Athenians conceived democracy to be. The other sessions were devoted chiefly to the reading of papers, with some informal discussion. Professor Hale of Chicago answered affirmatively the question "Is there still a Latin Potential?" Professor Hempl of Michigan discussed at some length "The Psychological Basis of Word Order," and Professor Hendrickson of Chicago explained "The Technique of Literary Characterization in Dionysius of Halicarnassus." The paper on "The Sources of the Germania of Tacitus" by Professor Gudeman of the University of Pennsylvania gave evidence of the author's critical acumen. Two papers of unusual worth were in the field of Roman religion, one of which, by Professor Carter of Princeton, was on "The Cognomina of the Goddess Fortuna." The most important piece of business transacted at any meeting for years was the accepting by the general Association, on terms of close affiliation, of the Pacific Coast Philological Association, which was formed last winter and which held its first meeting in December. The general Association receives all fees from the branch Association, and in return pays the local expenses of its meetings and sets aside about twenty pages of the Transactions for suitable papers presented by the Pacific Coast Association. The Executive Committee of the general Association passes upon the fitness of the papers for publication. The next meeting of the Association will be held with Harvard University in July, 1901. The newly elected officers are: President, Professor Platner of Western Reserve; Vice-Presidents, Professors West of Princeton and C. F. Smith of Wisconsin. Prof. Herbert Weir Smyth of Bryn Mawr was re-elected Secretary and Treasurer. The Executive Committee consists of these officers and Professors Fowler of Western Reserve, Hempl of Michigan, March of Lafayette, E. T. Merrill of Wesleyan, and W. A. Merrill of California.

—'The History of Lord Lytton's Indian Administration,' by Lady Betty Balfour (Longmans), is a description, and also in part a vindication, of the Asiatic policy which was pursued by Great Britain from 1876 to 1880. The poetical efforts of 'Owen Meredith' have been received with more favor in this country than in England, but the author's career as Viceroy and Ambassador is less familiar. The second Lord Lytton was selected for high office by Disraeli at a time when the general public knew little about his political capacity in one way or another. He took kindly to his chief's anti-Russian views, and carried them out faithfully during his term of office in the East. On p. 424 of the present volume will be found a letter which reflects the degree of Lytton's attachment to the Earl of Beaconsfield, and the whole course of his Indian régime must be considered in the light of that relation. It will be remembered that prior to 1876 the attitude which had been maintained towards Russia by British Prime Ministers and Indian Viceroys was that of Lord Lawrence. Every one dreaded the advance of Russia and her possible encroachments upon Afghanistan, but the idea of forcing a protectorate, whether friendly or not in form, upon the northern tribesmen had not been accepted by British officials. The appointment of Lord Lytton inaugurated that "forward policy" on the northern frontier of which Disraeli must be called the author, and of which Lord Roberts became the military agent. The principal topics which must come up in any book on India under Lord Lytton are the Delhi Assemblage of 1877 (following the assumption of the Imperial title), the famine of 1877, the Afghan troubles of 1878-80, and the general question of finance. Lady Balfour excludes family and personal matters with great strictness, and relates her father's acts largely through his own correspondence. She certainly proves that he took his task to heart, and worked at it with enthusiasm. According to the original plan, Sir John Strachey was to have written the record of Lord Lytton's life in India. Though he could not eventually do so, the memory of his friend has not suffered so much as might have been expected from the substitution of any other person. Lady Balfour's scheme of portrayal is well suited to the requirements of the case. She has used documents of the first value, indeed has constituted herself the editor of those letters and papers which most completely give Lord Lytton's point of view. The result is not merely a monument of personal devotion, but a work which must be consulted by all writers on the subject of Anglo-Russian rivalries along the northern frontier of Afghanistan; a region which, despite "scientific frontiers," may still be called debatable.

—Ever since Kant, philosophers have been telling us a great deal about the Unknowable, and now scientists in their turn seem to be prepared to deluge us with a mass of facts about 'The Unknown.' Such, at least, is the impression produced by M. Flammarion's book, which, under this title, has been translated and published by Harpers. M. Flammarion is not a philosopher, but a distinguished astronomer, and the "unknown" facts he describes are those which form the subject-matter of "Psychical Research," being mainly narratives of "telepathy," apparitions of the dying, clairvoyance, veridical dreams and premonitions. He may certainly be congratulated on having produced a compact mass of stories, many of which are excellent, especially those in the preliminary chapter on incredulity, describing how scientific dogmatism has often egregiously stultified itself. How far M. Flammarion's "facts" can be held to go towards proving the immortality of the soul is another question, to which the answer will probably vary according to the bias wherewith the question is approached. It must be noted, however, that though M. Flammarion makes copious additions to the recorded evidence on the subject (in a few months an appeal in the columns of the *Annales Politiques et Littéraires*, and of a couple of other journals, brought him no less than 1,130 accounts which he considers worthy of note!), their quality as yet leaves much to be desired. Thus, of the cases of telepathy with the dying which he relates, only about a third appear to rest on strictly first-hand evidence (though with some additional trouble this proportion might doubtless have been largely increased). Moreover, on the whole, the stories, collected as they were mainly from a French public, seem to evince, as might perhaps have been expected, a sense of the value of evidence inferior to that shown in the Anglo-American stories published by the Society for Psychical Research. Still, there is no denying that apparently it is far from being true that such stories circulate only as unauthenticated hearsay; as soon as a serious demand is made for them, they can be supplied in abundance, and it would seem that, with the gradual growth of toleration for ghostseers, the quality of the evidence also tended to improve. But their quantity and quality alike will have to improve still further before science can presume to be in a position to pronounce with confidence of what truth these curious experiences are an adumbration. It is a pity that M. Flammarion's book is not provided with an index, and that in consequence of inadequate proofreading the proper names in it are thoroughly untrustworthy and often grotesque.

—The newest biography of Goethe, by

Prof. Georg Witkowski of Leipzig (New York: Lemcke & Buechner), produces in the main an agreeable impression. It is no small merit in these times that a German *Goethe-Forscher* should contrive to tell the story of his hero's life and say his critical say in the compass of one volume of 264 pages, surrendering much of his space withal to illustrations. A few years ago it looked as if the biographic art, as practised by German scholars, were tending toward a hypertrophy of thoroughness. Two different lives of Schiller, for example, were begun upon a scale which, should the works ever be completed, will require only a little less time in the reading than the events narrated took in happening. We believe, too, that a colossal biography of Goethe, to be done by a sort of literary syndicate, has been in contemplation. Witkowski has performed his task all alone, finished it up, published it complete in one volume, and is still a youngish man. We congratulate him, and hope that his achievement may be an omen of better times to come. Of course he has had to practise the Goethean doctrine of renunciation—to leave out much that he knew and would have liked to tell; but this will hardly be missed except by his fellow-biographers, who, to be sure, are becoming a pretty numerous portion of the German public. If his book has not distinction of style, like Grimm's, it is at least well written, sane, and up to date. The numerous illustrations—there are 155 of them in all—are as a rule well chosen, unless the objection be made that a good many of them are already very familiar to readers of Goethe literature.

—The fourth volume of Professor Fredericq's monumental "Corpus Documentorum Inquisitionis Neerlandicæ" (Ghent: Vuylsteke), comprises the period from 1514 to 1525. Ten pages suffice to cover the years up to the spread of the Lutheran heresies to the Low Countries, and the rest of the five hundred pages are the record of the fruitless endeavors of magistrates and inquisitors to check at its inception the progress of religious revolt. The material which the industry of Professor Fredericq has collected from all sources gives us a vivid picture of the spiritual exaltation of the time, and of the constancy with which the protomartyrs of the Reformation faced death in its most abhorrent form rather than forego their right to interpret Scripture after their own fashion. One of the most curious documents is the reprint of a rare tract by Willem Gnapheus, giving the examinations by the inquisitors of Jan de Backer of Woerden, a priest who had embraced Lutheranism, and taken to himself a wife. The disputations between him and his theological judges, in which, of course, he always comes off triumphant, are interesting specimens of scholastic digladiation, and manifest, moreover, how earnestly the inquisitors desired to make converts rather than victims. De Backer, however, was obdurate, and was burned at The Hague, September 15, 1525, after being humanely strangled before the pile was lighted. This mercy does not seem to have been general, for of two Augustinians, who were burnt at Brussels, July 1, 1523, we are told that they recited the creed and sang Te Deum until their voices were choked by the flames. Miracles, it seems, were not lacking to prove the truth of the doctrines for which these enthusiasts perished, for when the Carmelite Bernhard was burnt at Mechlin in February, 1525, it is related that he was thrice thrown on to the blazing pyre, when the flames were each time suddenly extinguished. He was then knocked on the head with a hammer, and the corpse was again thrown into the fire, when the flames were again smothered and the body disappeared—translated to heaven, as his disciples piously averred. Students of the period will find Professor Fredericq's volumes indispensable, for they present, in an accessible form, an enormous amount of important material, much of which is from inedited sources.

CROMWELL AND HIS PARLIAMENTS.

Oliver Cromwell and the Rule of the Puritans in England. By Charles Firth, M.A. Ball. Coll., Oxford. [Heroes of the Nations Series.] G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1900. Pp. xiii, 496.

What does Mr. Firth's 'Oliver Cromwell' add to our knowledge of the Protector? This is an inquiry which at the present day may fairly be asked with regard to any new life of Cromwell. As regards Mr. Firth's 'Oliver Cromwell and the Rule of the Puritans in England,' it suggests an obvious and very satisfactory answer. Mr. Firth has explained more clearly than any of his predecessors the true relation between Cromwell and his Parliaments, and has thus solved one at least of the many problems presented by the career of the great Puritan statesman.

For an enigma there assuredly exists. Why was it that Cromwell, whose sense and moderation distinguish him from an ordinary fanatic and from a commonplace despot, could neither dispense with, nor act with, any Parliament whatever? He was, throughout the contest with the King, the defender and the servant of the Long Parliament; he was anxious to maintain the principles of the Constitution; he more than once risked his influence with his soldiers in his successful effort to extort from them obedience to the Long Parliament. Yet he himself dissolved the Long Parliament by force, while in his own eyes such legal authority as he possessed seems to have been derived from his appointment as General by the Parliament which he destroyed. He convoked a Parliamentary Assembly which represented the most earnest Puritanism of the time, yet Cromwell and this Assembly of eminent Puritans could not act together, and the Little Parliament was induced or compelled to surrender its authority into Oliver's own hands.

He next constructed, or sanctioned the construction of, an elaborate Parliamentary Constitution, full of checks and balances, and comparable for the apparent ingenuity and skill of its provisions with the Republican Constitution of the United States or of the modern Swiss Confederation. A Reformed Parliament, as we should now term it, was convoked under the Instrument of Government. Scotland and Ireland were for the first time represented at Westminster. The Instrument of Government became the supreme law of the land. It looked at first sight as if, under the Constitution of 1653, the Protector and his Parliament might work together amicably enough. The majority of its members were Presbyterians or Moderate Independents. The House (for the Parliament consisted of one House only) was fully prepared to accept Cromwell as head of the State; but the House would not accept the Constitution, and Cromwell, though he offered a compromise which would have greatly extended the authority of the Parliament, was determined to maintain the new Constitution, and rapidly dissolved the very Assembly which he had convened.

In 1656 the Protector summoned a second Parliament. He was pressed by many advisers, and was at last asked by the House itself, to assume the name and office of King. He hesitated, he used vague and ambiguous expressions, but at last he rejected the crown, while allowing an amendment of the Constitution which, by the creation of an Upper House and other changes, approximated to the ancient monarchical constitution of England. But, under the amended Constitution which gave Cromwell a legal and acknowledged position, the Protector was as far from establishing real harmony between himself and the Parliament as under the original Instrument of Government. The Constitution of 1658 was no more workable than the Constitution of 1654. On February 4 he declared that all these divisions tended to nothing else but the playing of the game of the Stuarts, and dissolved the Parliament. On December 2, 1658, the Protector died. What, asks a student, was the real meaning of Cromwell's Parliamentary policy? Why could he not do without a Parliament? Why could he not act with a Parliament?

Mr. Firth's pages give a reply which is at once intelligible and, we believe, final. Cromwell neither could nor would dispense with a Parliament because he shared, and honestly acted upon, the conviction of English patriots that one main object, and certainly the chief justification, of resistance to the crown was the maintenance of English liberties; and the liberties of Englishmen were, to the patriots of the seventeenth century, absolutely bound up with the existence of Parliamentary authority. This is a fact which writers like Carlyle may conceal from themselves and their readers under clouds of misty rhetoric, but which no candid student of the past will venture to deny. To imagine that Cromwell or his followers, would, after waging war for the Parliament against the usurpations of the crown, consent to abolish representative government, is as idle as to suppose that the Whigs of 1688 would have consented to found a monarchical despotism, or that Washington would have liked to proclaim himself King of the Thirteen Colonies which had asserted their independence rather than acquiesce in taxation without representation. And if Cromwell's conscience had not forbidden, his sagacity would have rejected the attempt to establish despotism of any kind in England. The denial to the English people of the right to representation would have made the Stuarts the representatives of legality. Even as it was, the Restoration took place because it appeared to be the triumph of the Parliament and the law over the lawless despotism of the army.

The reasons why Cromwell could not act with any Parliament are complicated; yet, under Mr. Firth's treatment, become sufficiently clear. Something must be attributed to the defects of the Protector's character. His vigor and his insight were balanced by a curious impatience, as also by a want of foresight. He saw with infinite clearness what lay before him. He acted, when once his mind was made up, with crushing decision. But he did not look far ahead. He was a good deal more of a soldier than a Parliamentarian. He made the kind of mistakes which we may feel pretty sure would never have been committed by Pym: he cut through knots which it would have been wiser to untie. Thus Cromwell, it is perfectly plain, saw and felt that the Long Parliament was the last depository of legal authority. This sentiment troubled him at the very moment when he dissolved the House, yet he did not act upon his conviction, as would a trained Parliamentary leader. He did not in practice draw the inference that, at any cost of trouble, he must induce or compel the remnant of the Long Parliament to sanction and thus legalize a new Constitution.

It is easy, however, to exaggerate the effect of Cromwell's personal faults. Mr. Firth brings out clearly the fact that Cromwell's position was a false one. He pursued two different and at bottom inconsistent ends. "To understand," writes Mr. Firth, "what Cromwell's political aims were, it is necessary to inquire what he meant when he spoke of his discharging his duty to *the interest of the people of God and this Commonwealth.*' The order in which he places them is in itself significant. First he put the duty to a section of the English people; last, the duty to the English people in general." In other words, his aim was first to promote the cause for which the Independents had struggled, which in Cromwell's mind meant the cause both of religion and of toleration; and next, the interest of the English nation. To state the same fact in more modern terms, while he was the leader of a party, he was also the real governor of the nation; and he put the interest of the party, or rather the cause for which the party struggled, before the interest, or at any rate before the wish, of the nation. To Cromwell, indeed, the interest of the people of God and the interest of the nation were two distinct but by no means irreconcilable things. He hoped and endeavored to obtain a Parliament which should be equally concerned both for the one and for the other. But in this he failed and was doomed to fail. The Barebones Parliament did consider the interest of the people of God, but did not in the least understand the interest of the nation, and every other Cromwellian Parliament, the more nearly it represented the nation, the less it represented the limited body of men who seemed to Cromwell, and perhaps rightly, to be the salt of the earth, and to have really at heart the cause of religious freedom. But to him the liberty of the people of God remained more important than the civil liberty and interest of the nation, while no Parliament at all worthy of the name would accept the permanent limitation of the sovereignty of the people to the Puritan minority whom Cromwell termed, and held to be, the people of God.

Is it, however, absolutely certain—though here, it must be added, we leave the guidance of Mr. Firth and enter on the field of conjecture—that Cromwell did not in his mind anticipate a solution of the difficulties constantly arising between him and his Parliaments, which might really have been attained had Providence granted to him ten years more of life? Did he not at the bottom of his heart hope that, as a Puritan *King*, he might at once revive the old constitutional monarchy and secure the interest of the people of God? The assumption of the crown was, in the eyes of every lawyer—and the influence in the England of the seventeenth century of legal conceptions could hardly be exaggerated—the return to well-understood Parliamentary Constitutionalism; and the existence of a Cromwellian dynasty would have been an adequate security for the maintenance of Protestantism, and of at least as much religious freedom as then existed in any European State. Cromwell, it will be suggested, himself declined the crown, and therefore did not intend at any time to assume it. It is, however, possible that, without any dishonesty on his part, he looked forward to that change in outward circumstances which he would have termed a dispensation of Providence, and which a modern statesman would describe as a development of public opinion. The peril which Cromwell had to avoid was a collision with the hotter spirits of the army, which might excite civil war. But this danger was one which lessened year by year. In ten or even in five years, many of the sterner zealots would have died off or left the ranks. A general such as Monk, whom Cromwell significantly enough kept constantly in command, was ready to support the Protector and his descendants. There is nothing wild in the notion that the soldiers who in 1660 acquiesced, though we may assume reluctantly, in the return of the Stuarts, would five or six years earlier have easily tolerated the accession of Oliver to the throne. There was nothing at any rate irrational in the idea that Monk, and men like him, who did, in fact, restore the hereditary King, might have even more readily restored, under a new dynasty, the ancient monarchy of England. The most rational explanation of Cromwell's later policy is that, for the sake of the very people of God, he hoped, or even expected, that Providence would at last place the crown upon the head of the one man capable of reconciling the interest of the good cause and of the nation.

Liberty in the Nineteenth Century. By Frederic May Holland. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1899.

Mr. Holland's book has more the effect of an aggregation of chapters than of a connected whole. No one would go to it for information, considering how much looseness of statement there is in it. At times there seems to be a rhetorical aversion to the concrete fact, and for the names of individuals we have ingenious circumlocutions. We read in one place of Theodore Parker's "successor," as if he did not have several. It is hardly fair to smirch them all as defenders of Russian despotism. Sometimes we have a page that might be the emptyings of a notebook rather than a piece of coherent writing. It should be said that there is a "List of Dates" at the end which makes the effect of the book less indeterminate, upon the whole, than it would otherwise be.

The first chapter, "Napoleon and his Work," is inspired by a well-considered and quite absolute distrust of war. Jefferson's embargo is the only American incident of the chapter, and Mr. Holland's wholesale condemnation of that measure is in keeping with his general dislike of Government interference and protection. Chapter ii., "Fruits of Peace," covers a good deal of ground. Robert Owen's experiments afford Mr. Holland his first opportunity to attack Socialism, and he makes the most of others as they turn up. At this point we come upon what is unquestionably the leading inspiration of his book. It is personal rather than political liberty that engages the writer's interest. Free speech, free publication, free Sundays, free trade—these are the ideas that quicken his enthusiasm. A free Sunday raises it to its highest pitch. To this subject he returns oftener than to any other, and generally his heart is soft as wax to those who have opposed restrictive Sabbath laws. Only Garrison's Sunday-reform agitation leaves him cold, but that is because his appreciation of Garrison in his entirety is below zero. In chapter iii., "Democrats and Garrisonians," the general impression conveyed is that the Democrats were the less criminal party. Mr. Holland's philosophy of what might have been is, that the Whigs might have checked the growth of slavery and have effected its final extinction in spite of the abolitionists and without a war. Speaking of the neglect of the clergy to oppose Texan annexation, he adds, "Channing died in 1842, and Parker went to Europe in September, 1843." The implication is that if Parker had remained at home, the Annexationists would have known the difference. But in 1843 Parker had preached but one good anti-slavery sermon, and all his heart and soul was in the controversy with his Unitarian brethren. In another connection Mr. Holland speaks as it if were the anti-slavery impulse that made Parker a lecturer in 1844. It was certainly not so, nor is it true that the substance of his lectures generally was the anti-slavery idea. A chapter on "Emancipation" carries on the war against Garrison initiated in the preceding. There is no perception of the unreality of the Free Soil vote in 1848, "five times as large as in 1844," but nearly twice as large as that of 1852. Mr. Holland blames the Know-Nothings of 1856 for defeating Frémont, but the fact is that most of the Know-Nothing honey went into the Republican hive. Know-Nothingism meant for Henry Wilson simply a device for disintegrating the old parties. It is significant of the working of Mr. Holland's mind that, from a vote of thanks given to Theodore Parker in Wilmington, Del., after a lecture, he argues that "abolitionism would [have] eventually become predominant in the Senate as it was already in the House of Representatives." In conclusion we are assured that emancipation might have been gained gradually and peacefully "if there had been more philanthropy among the clergy, more principle among the Whigs, and more wisdom among the abolitionists."

"Emerson and Other Transcendentalists" next come before the bar of Mr. Holland's stern discrimination. For Emerson's character he has only praise; for his doctrine, little but distrust. The criticism is made that his doctrine of virtue, as spontaneous will, was too much the reflection of his own innocence. Because all his own impulses were good and pure, he assumed all men's to be so. Few others fare so well in Mr. Holland's book as Theodore Parker, and in general his praise of him is well conceived. From Parker we pass to his disciple, Miss Cobbe, who is written of in the past tense, as if she were already dead, and whose passionate anti-vivisection crusade is imputed have implied remissness in the performance of an obvious duty.

He insists on certain elements as necessary to success in plans for his colonies. to wit: land for which irrigating water is actually known to be available; the ownership of this water and the irrigation system by the community concerned; picked colonists of intelligence and good habits; capital for the preliminary works, to be secured by a lien on the lands irrigated; coöperation in the community work; small farms, not exceeding on the average twenty acres, with diversified crops supplying family needs as well as the surplus needed for cash expenditures; intelligent leadership, and a whole-hearted backing up by the community of the leaders once chosen. In one particular only it seems to us that he has not been sufficiently explicit, and that is in relation to a market for the surplus products of the soil. In California the rapacity of middlemen has partly brought about its obvious antidote in the form of coöperative exchanges for handling the crops, but this is still less general than is to be desired, and has been enforced only after years of trial and disappointed hopes which have ruined many. Transportation charges to a market are another cardinal difficulty when railway managers follow the policy of charging "all the traffic will bear." The two difficulties of finding a market and getting to it without paying out the whole value of the crop, are responsible to a great extent for the disinclination of investors to consider irrigation colonization, and these factors are not discussed in the present volume. Doubtless settlement will proceed in about the ratio that these difficulties are favorably met. Meanwhile, the value of the book is unquestionable, and it is to be hoped it may reach the classes best calculated to profit by its revelations and advice.

The Journey of William of Rubruck to the Eastern Parts of the World in 1253-1255, as Narrated by Himself; with Two Accounts of the Earlier Journey of John of Pian de Carpine. Translated by William Woodville Rockhill, etc. London: The Hakluyt Society, 1900. 8vo, pp. lvi, 282.

The Hakluyt volume No. 4, of the Second Series, is by an American, Mr. W. W. Rockhill, Director of the Bureau of American Republics, whose long residence in Peking, associated with Chinese scholars and travellers, and his familiarity with Chinese literature, specially fitted him for translating, editing, and annotating this precious document. Sir Henry Yule had contemplated rendering into English, with copious notes, the "Itinerarium" of this worthy rival of Marco Polo, of which Sir Henry says, "It has few rivals in the whole library of travel"; but this purpose was thwarted by his untimely death. How near the indefatigable Franciscan came to passing into oblivion may be judged from the fact that his name does not occur in the great modern history of his order. Friar William was a native of Rubruck in French Flanders, but the dates of his birth and death are unknown. He is represented as a heavy man in person, and Col. Yule characterizes him as honest, pious, stout-hearted, intelligent, and keenly observant. He also says of the language of his manuscript; "Dog-latin, we fear it must be called." The first notice of the journey of Friar William was given by Roger Bacon, in 1264 ('Opus Majus,' i., 305 seq.). Hakluyt first made known the relation of his journey in 1600; and Samuel Purchas published the first complete text in 1625, calling it a "Jewell of Antiquitie."

The thirteenth was one of the most thrilling among the centuries. The tide of European enthusiasm was subsiding from the Holy Land, and in its place a refluent force began to overwhelm eastern Europe and Asia. In 1222, the Mongol broke through the Caucasus, devastating Russia as far north as Kazan; but it was in 1241 that a second invasion carried his triumphant banners into Silesia, Moravia, and Hungary, and threatened the whole of Europe. The jealousies of Pope Gregory IX. and Frederick II. gave to this threat apparently good chance of success. Within a few weeks of each other, however, both Gregory and the Mongol Emperor Ogodali expired, at once healing the politico-religious wounds of Europe and sending the Mongol chiefs with their armies to Karakorum, their capital in Central Asia. In 1243 Pope Innocent IV. promoted a general crusade against the Mongols, organized missions for their conversion, primarily, but incidentally to find out through the missionaries exactly what were their plans regarding Europe. Several missions followed in the next ten years, ending with that of William of Rubruck. All of these are included, so far as any literature exists about them, in Mr. Rockhill's translation.

The life of William became entangled in the Mongol invasion thus. He happened to be in Paris, in 1247, intending to accompany King Louis IX. on his crusade to the Holy Land. Just then Friar John of Pian de Carpine, near Perugia, and his companion Benedict, the Pole, who had already been on a mission to the Mongol chiefs, as far as Karakorum in Central Mongolia, had been sent to St. Louis, in Paris, by the Pope, to beg him to defer his crusade and to help him against the Tartars. No doubt Friar William of Rubruck met Friar John and his companions, and took from them the infection of converting the Mongols and of gathering up the scattered Christians of Western Asia.

In 1249 Friar William accompanied St. Louis to Egypt, and in 1251 was with the King in Cæsarea, when Friar Andrew of Longumel returned fom the Mongol Court, as did Philip of Toucy from a mission into southeastern Russia, and Baldwin of Hainaut, who had travelled as far as the Mongol Emperor's Court, near Karakorum, in the very focus of Asia. Thus acquainted with what was then known concerning the Mongols and their empire, Friar William was commissioned to undertake a journey of more than ten thousand miles in extent, on foot, on horseback, and in Tartar wagon-houses, to Mangu Chan. His itinerary begins with Constantinople, where he fitted out, and proceeds across the Black Sea to the Crimea, around the western and northern shore of Azov to the Don, through southern Russia to the Caspian near the Ural mouth, thence on a parallel nearly the same as that of our northern boundary to Karakorum, the Chan's capital. His residence there during six months, and all that he did and suffered, are set down with as much detail as though he had with him a stenographer. In travelling homeward William passed north of Lake Balkash to the Camp of Batu Chan, on the Volga, and, under the impression that King Louis was still in the Holy Land, made his way down the eastern shore of the Caspian to Derbent, and thence across the headwaters of the Araxes and the Euphrates to Cyprus. Greatly to his mortification, he was not allowed to carry his manuscript to the King in person, but had to remain in Antioch at the command of his superior. Thanks to faithful friends, however, the papers reached the King and were brought to light as has been stated.

The ethnological information contained in this volume, setting forth the condition of life and affairs six and a half centuries ago in Middle Asia, is of great importance at this time. It is clearly revealed therein that eastern and western Asia were intimately acquainted. Rubruck's best friend in Karakorum was a jeweller, born and trained in Paris. The details of William's narrative, replete with interest at every point, would carry us too far afield. It is with much pride that we place this piece of faithful work done by our countryman on the shelf between Rawlinson's Herodotus and Yule's Marco Polo. A bibliography of all works cited will aid the student in further research.

A Country Without Strikes. By Henry Demarest Lloyd. New York: Doubleday, Page & Co. 1900.

The experiment described by Mr. Lloyd in this little book is one which will be watched with interest by economists. We certainly owe a debt of gratitude to the author for taking the trouble to go to New Zealand and examine the situation for himself, and it is difficult not to share his enthusiasm over the condition of industrial peace which prevails in that region. Nevertheless, such enthusiasm somewhat impairs the value of the testimony of a witness, and Mr. Lloyd's account of the actual operation of what is called compulsory arbitration is not distinguished by scientific lucidity. We are obliged to read between the lines, and to supply a good many omissions, before we can feel competent to reach any conclusion; and whatever conclusion is reached must be tentative.

When we come to analyze the "Compulsory Arbitration Law," and study the decisions of the court by which it is administered, we find, as a matter of course, that the principle on which it is based is the regulation of wages and profits by Government. The statute applies only to laborers incorporated as trade-unions, and practically only to laborers working in factories. That class which is so turbulent in this country, the street-car hands, is exempted, and so are seamen and all Government employees. As the railroads are State enterprises, another troublesome element is thus unregulated. The Court has power to fine the members of trade-unions as well as employers for disobedience to its decrees. It requires employers to refuse employment to non-union laborers, provided union laborers can be obtained, and it limits the number of apprentices that may learn a trade. It fixes wages, and if any employer wishes to set up a business, he must comply with the conditions prescribed by the Court for its conduct. The effect is obviously to recreate the guild-system, under the supervision of a supreme judge. Hitherto, the experiment having been tried during a period of rising prices, the decisions having been almost invariably in favor of increased wages, and the judge having been one holding office for life, the law has worked with little friction. What will take place when prices fall, and when the office of judge becomes elective, it is impossible to predict. Possibly, by that time the advantages of conciliation may be generally recognized; and with closely limited guilds the present tranquillity may be continued. Laborers excluded from the trade-unions can find employment on the land, the unlimited supply of which in New Zealand will long insure the laboring classes an advantageous position in the industrial world.

Nature's Calendar. By Ernest Ingersoll. Harper & Bros. 1900. 8vo, pp. xvi, 270. Ills.

Mr. Ingersoll has had the idea of stimulating observation of the recurrence of natural events in the round of the year by preparing a volume in which some general account of these events is given, and a wide blank margin allowed for the reader's own notes by the side of the text. He has aimed to give a memorandum of some of the things for which the observer should be on the lookout from week to week, the text being arranged in the form of a calendar, with a chapter for each month. This he offers as a guide to study out of doors, a key to the "cycle of birth, career, death, and progeny, seed, blossom, and fruitage." The dates given refer to an ordinary season in the region about New York city. The reader is urged to make notes in the space provided for them. "In fact, if you will regard the printed part as nothing more than my beginning, and will complete it and correct it for your own locality, . . . you may find yours the better half of the book."

The basis of the book is a series of articles contributed by Mr. Ingersoll to *Forward and Wellspring* for 1899. Prof. C. M. Weed has assisted with data in regard to insect life, and Mr. Clarence Lown has contributed a photograph for each month, made in the Hudson valley, to illustrate the progress of the year. The general execution is but mediocre. The vagueness and generality of the author's remarks, though possibly suited to a popular article in an ephemeral publication, are not well adapted to teach untried amateurs to make observations of any value. In fact, the impression made by a perusal of the text is that it is neither good literature nor exact science. The amateur would gather far more valuable suggestions as to method from a reading of White's 'Selborne' than anything this volume has to offer, though White observed in a foreign country and at a period now antiquated. In short, it is another case of a good idea feebly and imperfectly worked out.

The volume is well printed, but on inconveniently heavy paper, and the "process" illustrations (originally good photographs) are poorly reproduced. There is no index, and the back of the book, for some inscrutable reason, has that collapsed appearance which is disgusting to the average bookman.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alexander, P. Y. More Loose Links in the Darwinian Armour. London: John Bale, Sons & Danielsson.
Blaisdell, Etta A., and Mary F. Child Life in Many Lands: A Third Reader. Macmillan. 36c.
Bryce, Prof. G. The Remarkable History of the Hudson's Bay Company; Including that of the French Traders of Northwestern Canada and of the Northwest, XY, and Astor Fur Companies. Scribner. $4.
Burke, E. Thoughts on the Present Discontents. Cassells. 10c.
Colegrove, Prof. F. W. Memory: An Inductive Study. With an Introduction by G. Stanley Hall. Henry Holt & Co. $1.50.
Dorman, M. R. P. The Mind of the Nation: A Study of Political Thought in the Nineteenth Century. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.; New York: Brentano's.
Duff, Prof. A. Old Testament Theology, or the History of Hebrew Religion. Vol. II.: The Deuteronomic Reformation. VII Century B C. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $4.50.
Gray, E. Nature's Miracles: Familiar Talks on Science. New York: Fords, Howard & Hulbert. Vol. II.
Grismer, J. R. Way Down East: A Romance of New England Life. J. S. Ogilvie Publishing Co.
Hendrix, Rev. E. R. Skilled Labor for the Master. Nashville, Tenn.; Publishing House of the M. E. Church, South. $1.25.
Hurst, J. F. History of the Christian Church. Vol. II. Eaton & Mains. $5.
Hutchinson, Dr. W. The Gospel according to Darwin. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.; Chicago: The Open Court Publishing Co.
Ingham, J. H. The Law of Animals: A Treatise on Property in Animals Wild and Domestic, and the Rights and Responsibilities arising therefrom. Philadelphia: T. & J. W. Johnson & Co. $6.
Jones, E. D. Economic Crises. Macmillan. $1.25.
Lee, Prof. G. C. Historical Jurisprudence: An Introduction to the Systematic Study of the Development of Law. Macmillan. $3.
Partsch, Dr. H. The Ills of Indigestion: Their Causes and their Cures. North Berkeley, Calif.; Cumbernauld Co.
Proceedings of the Second International Congregational Council, held in Boston September 20-29, 1899. Boston: Samuel Usher.
Procter, Agnes. Echoes from Shadow-Land: Poems. New York: The Alliance Publishing Co. 75c.
Skinner, C. M. Flowers in the Pave. Lippincotts.
Stine, Prof. W. M. Photometrical Measurements and Manual for the General Practice of Photometry. Macmillan. $1.60.

The Courtot Memoirs.
2d Impression in press. $2.

This "**intensely fascinating book**" (*Living Age*) is attracting attention in the **United States, Great Britain, and Germany.** It gives vivid accounts by eye-witnesses of "The Terror," and of the Courts of the beautiful Queen Louise in Prussia, and of the First Consul in France. *The Literary World* says it is "**More striking than any history can possibly be, . . . and more entertaining than any fiction,**" while the *Pall Mall Gazette* of London says: "Here is a period that we have read about from our youth up, . . . and we might almost say that we see it now for the first time."

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 19, 1900.

The Week.

Secretary Hay has done well to make public the note of our Government to the other Powers, defining the attitude of the United States in the Chinese difficulty. This is "the new diplomacy" in one of its happier moments—publishing diplomatic correspondence, not in order to browbeat or exasperate a country with which we are in controversy, but for the purpose of taking the people and the whole world into confidence, with the object of solidifying support of a wise and humane and unselfish policy. That Mr. Hay's frankness will have such a conciliating effect we are justified in hoping. Already a favoring echo comes from England, with whose Chinese policy, so far as announced, our own is in substantial accord. It may be summed up in few words. First, protection of our citizens in China; second, hearty support of any native government which stands for law and order; third, indemnity for damage done, and guarantees against renewal of the outrages; fourth, withdrawal of foreign forces and the preservation of a "Chinese territorial and administrative entity"—to quote Mr. Hay. The policy is "hands on," to rescue and secure Americans; then at once and as resolutely, "hands off!" The hope of raising up an ally from within China is the one to which we must steadily cling. It is only common sense to look to a native government to do the immense and arduous work of policing the country. Intervening Powers could not do it one-tenth as well, or except at a cost ten times as great. The chief aim of intervention should be to find or create some local authority capable at once of fulfilling international obligations and maintaining domestic order. Mr. Hay clearly commits our Government to such a policy. In doing so he simply reaffirms the historic American position.

The Powers profess to have been entirely ignorant of the extent to which China had supplied herself with European-made guns and ammunition. Now, in the outburst of wisdom that follows the event, it is gravely proposed that the civilized nations of the world, which have brought to perfection the instruments of destruction, shall monopolize their use, and prohibit their sale to barbarians—meaning in this case those peoples of the earth less able to kill than we are. If Boers and Chinamen and Indians, Asiatic and American, can be kept from owning rifles and cannon, they will be less dangerous to the nations that want their trade or their land. But what are guns made for if not to sell? Has not German industry been reaping the benefit of the trade which all the Powers have been so anxious to develop with China? China did not wish it; we forced her ports, and she opened her country to us on any large scale only after the war with Japan revealed both to her and to the outside world how hopeless would be any attempt at resistance. Strange that we should be surprised when, compelled at the cannon's mouth to buy, she elected to buy cannon! The disconcerting promptness of his choice shows how quick was the despised Celestial to strengthen the weakest point in his civilization. But if we had let him alone, he never would have bought Mausers. If we are to develop China, we must expect to see her armed. England, with her firm grip on India, has found it impossible to keep the barbarous mountain tribes of the remote interior from supplying themselves with modern rifles. No measures which the European governments can adopt will avail to keep China from buying of the manufacturers through third parties, as long as China remains an independent Power.

So many predictions about China have been falsified that, in the attempt to save at least one prophet's reputation, there has been a revival of the late C. H. Pearson's theory of the Yellow Peril to civilization. But his idea was almost purely that of an industrial peril. Skilled and cheap Chinese and Japanese labor was to defy and destroy all competitors. Yet Pearson, though in general a neglected prophet, had one distinguished disciple. The Emperor William was so impressed in 1895 with the Yellow Peril that he turned political cartoonist for the nonce. His design, which was worked out in colors by Knackfuss, and was largely circulated in Germany, represented the civilized nations, led by the Archangel Michael, preparing to resist a Chinese dragon which was seen approaching. Even this imperial forecast, however, may be cited as first-class prophecy only in one respect—the alliance of the Powers against China. As for William's Chinese dragon, it was not a furious monster content to crunch the bones of its victims in its own lair or "sphere of influence," but an aggressive beast roaming forth in search of prey. This the Chinese dragon of real life is not. Whatever else may be said of the horrible excesses of the Chinese insurrectionists, they are undoubtedly intended as a kind of defence of Chinese independence against foreigners—not a wanton going outside to attack Europe.

In his speech accepting his nomination, President McKinley assured us that the organized forces which had been misled into rebellion in the Philippines were dispersed. Gen. MacArthur, however, maintains that 2,300 soldiers are all that he can spare for the Chinese service, and a demand for more soldiers is reported from every department. Gen. Lawton's estimate of 100,000 troops as necessary to maintain our supremacy was evidently none too large. The present force is too small to garrison more than half the principal towns, and in some of the important islands only the seaports are occupied. Very disquieting accounts are received from Mindanao and the Sulu Islands. Officers best acquainted with the conditions say that war with the Moros is inevitable. The island of Mindanao is nearly as large as Luzon, and it is ruled by two regiments, scattered along the coast in detachments hundreds of miles apart. When the inhabitants suspend the rapturous contemplation of American sovereignty in which Mr. McKinley describes them as engaged, and attack our troops, we must either evacuate or send reinforcements. Where are they to be procured? Every man that can be spared from this country and the West Indies will be needed in China, and unless President McKinley is prepared to call Congress together and have the army increased, it seems probable that we shall have to relinquish our "sovereignty" over a large part of the Philippines.

It has been pointed out from the beginning by those who knew the situation in the island of Luzon, that the crucial question would be that of the religious orders. No one will pretend that this question is one which concerns the American people; but no one will deny that our Government will handle it with an eye to the Catholic vote in this country. While Roman Catholics do not vote as a class, our politicians are very well aware that it is a serious matter to incur the ill-will of their Church. Should that Church take a decided position in favor of a particular policy toward the Friars of Luzon, it is certain that our Government would hesitate to antagonize it. Hence the report that Archbishop Chappelle has declared himself on the matter is important. He is represented as holding that the Filipinos owe to the monastic orders all the education and civilization which they possess; that it would be unjust to these orders to expel them or deprive them of their estates; that it would be impossible to replace them with other priests; and that the hostility to them is only on the part of those who covet their property. How far these opinions express the views of the higher clergy of the

Roman Church we cannot tell. The history of that Church, however, affords abundant evidence that its silence concerning the Philippine situation is no sign of ignorance or indifference. When the proper time comes, we shall find that the Church will have a perfectly well-defined policy to suggest to our Government; and we shall find that our Government will treat suggestions from that quarter with deference. The Filipinos may be assured that their own preferences in this matter will be treated as quite as subordinate to our higher ends as have been their ill-advised claims to independence and self-government.

Carl Schurz has always shown a remarkable talent for clear analysis and forcible exposition, and he is at his best in the letter on the Philippine situation which was printed in the *Herald* of Saturday. Mr. Schurz's paper is in form an answer to a recent defence of our policy in the Philippines by Senator Foraker of Ohio, but it serves also as the most searching indictment of that policy which has yet been framed. Its peculiar value consists in the fact that it brings together a large number of official statements which show the virtual alliance that existed between our forces and those of Aguinaldo for months after the destruction of the Spanish fleet, and thus demonstrates the breach of moral obligations on our part that is the worst feature of the whole unhappy business. Mr. Schurz is equally unanswerable when he urges that the Philippine Islands might be pacified any day by the application of the same principles there that we are applying in Cuba. The moral side of the question has never before been so cogently put.

Some facts regarding the adoption of the silver plank in the Kansas City platform have leaked out since the Convention adjourned. It has been made known by returning delegates that the policy actually adopted was the subject of much anxious consideration, and that the process of reasoning which led to its adoption was, in substance, that nearly all the persons who would oppose Mr. Bryan on account of his position in regard to silver, would oppose him even if there were no reference to the subject in the platform; that all who would oppose him on account of a new and explicit silver plank in the platform, would do so even if there were only a reaffirmation of the Chicago platform in general terms; while a large number of Populists and Silver Republicans, perhaps a million in the whole country, would abandon Mr. Bryan if there were any, even the smallest, sign of dodging the issue. Upon a deliberate calculation of the chances, therefore, it was deemed the safest course to ake a bold and explicit declaration in or of 16 to 1. It was Mr. Bryan's conviction, derived from many meetings he has addressed during the past four years, that the bulk of his supporters are still in earnest to bring about the free coinage of silver "at the present legal ratio," and that in the Democratic party they greatly outnumber those who voted for Palmer and Buckner four years ago, or who voted for McKinley direct. It was believed also at Kansas City that the Republican opponents of Imperialism, such men as ex-Gov. Boutwell, Carl Schurz, and ex-Senator Henderson, would consider that question the one of overwhelming importance in the campaign, and would vote for Bryan regardless of any other issue. To meet their views the clause was added at the last moment: "We regard it [Imperialism] as the paramount issue of the campaign."

The absorption of Democracy into Populism is rapidly becoming complete. Democratic conventions were held in South Dakota and Nebraska last week. In the former State the only Democrats whose names will appear on the ticket are the candidates for two Presidential electors and a few minor offices. The two nominees for Representatives in Congress, Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, Attorney-General, and some other less important places are Populists. In Nebraska there is only one Democrat on the State ticket of nine names, a second being a Silver Republican, and all the rest Populists. Fusion thus leaves scarcely more than a trace of Democracy, and Populism becomes supreme wherever the personal influence of Bryan is especially potent. Such developments help to illuminate the situation by making plain the influences which dominate the Opposition.

The public was so much engrossed with the Kansas City Convention that due notice was not given to a forward step by the Administration in the matter of civil-service reform—the first in either direction since the terribly long backward one of a year ago. President McKinley has approved an order putting the customs service in both Porto Rico and Hawaii under the civil-service rules, so that hereafter appointments to that branch of the service will be made, as in our custom-houses, from eligible lists of those who have passed a competitive examination. This has been followed by the sending from Washington to Manila of the chairman of the Central Board of Examiners of the Civil-Service Commission, to put the merit system into operation in the Philippines under the Taft Commission. All friends of good government will rejoice at this evidence that the President at last recognizes the necessity of taking some action to check the spoilsmen in "our new possessions," but they will not be satisfied until the right principle is universally applied, not only in Porto Rico and the Philippines, but also in Cuba—and the United States.

A proper rebuke is administered to the Administration by the *Journal of Commerce*, in an article entitled "The Bureau of Partisan Statistics." The reference is to the Treasury Bureau, which has issued a circular calling attention to the effect of the Porto Rico Tariff Act in increasing the commerce of that island. As the *Journal of Commerce* says, the Bureau has no right to publish theories and claims concerning the causes which influence trade. When it does this, it arouses the suspicion that the figures may be manipulated in order to sustain the theories. As we have recently pointed out, when the claims are of a partisan character, the suspicion becomes almost a certainty. In the present instance the claim is so obviously unfounded as to be ridiculous. A year ago our own tariff was applied in Porto Rico, and during the free-trade agitation commerce was at a stand-still. When the taxes were reduced and merchants knew what their charges would be, commerce naturally revived. It would naturally have revived more under free trade, but it would have revived simply because uncertainty was removed. The suggestion of the Bureau of Statistics that the Tariff Act had any peculiarly beneficent effect is a piece of gross impertinence.

Oregon's recent election illustrated the same tendency which had been revealed previously in other far Western States—that when the question of woman suffrage is submitted twice to the same electorate, it fares decidedly better the second time than the first. There are now seven such States, ranging between Kansas and Nebraska on the Missouri and Washington and Oregon on the Pacific, and there has been no exception to the rule. In one case the change was great enough to carry the proposition on the second trial, Colorado having rejected equal suffrage in 1877 by a vote of two to one, and accepted it in 1894 by a majority of several thousand. In Oregon an amendment was submitted in 1884, and "snowed under" by 28,176 no to 11,223 yea votes; while last month the negative total in a larger poll was almost exactly the same as sixteen years ago, 28,402, and the affirmative had more than doubled, reaching 26,265. The majority was in favor of the change outside of the city of Portland, in accordance with an invariable rule that such an amendment is strongest in the rural districts.

A controversy is now taking place between the authorities of Louisiana and those of Alabama which shows the far-reaching evil arising from the toleration of lynch-law. One Jacobi, charged with a crime in Montgomery, fled to New Orleans, and the Alabama authorities have been unable to secure his extradition. The Governor of Louisiana takes the position that it would be inhuman to surrender Jacobi, because he would probably be lynched as soon as he reached Montgomery, and might not be safe from the attack of a Montgomery mob, even at Mobile. It is reported that he has telegraphed to Gov. Johnston of Alabama, asking if the fugitive could be protected against lynching if he were surrendered; to which inquiry Gov. Johnston replied that 'it would be a shame to Alabama to have the Governor of a sister State declare that she could not preserve peace and enforce the law in her capital city." This answer evades the real issue. It is a shame that any one can declare truly that the law is not enforced in all parts of Alabama as well as in her capital city; but the shame exists. If toleration of lynch-law in a State justifies the governors of other States in refusing to surrender fugitives from justice, the Governor of Louisiana is warranted in his course in this instance. Unfortunately, the Governor of Alabama would be justified in similar action were he to receive a requisition from the Governor of Louisiana; for the law is disregarded in the latter State as well as in the former. We have lately seen the Governor of Indiana refusing the demand of the Governor of Kentucky for the extradition of a fugitive, and it admits of little doubt that the Governor of New York would take the same position. In fact, he has intimated plainly that such would be his course were ex-Gov. Taylor's extradition demanded by the Kentucky authorities.

The trial of the persons charged with murdering Gov. Goebel of Kentucky is, as might be expected, characterized by some peculiar features. In the exercise of the faculty of common sense, if not of any recognized judicial function, Judge Cantrill compelled every person entering the court to submit to a search for concealed weapons. Some of the high-spirited attorneys of Kentucky resented this as a personal indignity, but the Judge insisted on the execution of his order. The law of Kentucky forbids the carrying of concealed weapons, but we apprehend that the court is justified in taking judicial cognizance of the fact that the law is universally violated. It is quite probable that Judge Cantrill's action will avert bloodshed, for the trial will be conducted with extreme vigor by both sides. Great numbers of witnesses have been summoned, and a fierce struggle is going on over the selection of a jury. It is a reasonably safe prediction that if any stout Republican gets into the jury-box, there will be no conviction; and the probabilities are all against a conviction under any circumstances. In modern times it seldom happens that when the enterprise of newspaper detectives is baffled, that of the officers of the law is successful. Since the newspapers have failed to make out a probable case against any one, we cannot expect anything very definite from the prosecuting attorneys. Most of the witnesses they bring will be suspected of perjury; and they will be contradicted by witnesses equally worthy and unworthy of credence.

The copyright controversy between Canada and Great Britain appears to be nearing a fortunate conclusion. The pending bill has the support apparently of all factions in Canada, while satisfying as well the aggrieved parties, the English authors and publishers. The bill in fact contains several novel and interesting features, and is in every way an improvement over the old Canadian act, or over our present law. The former act provided that a copyrighted English book must be remanufactured in Canada within a month, or else, on condition of promising a royalty of 10 per cent. to the author, any publisher might apply for a license to reprint. There was, however, no provision for actually securing this royalty to the author. Thus every presumption was against him. Failing to complete in a month a difficult business transaction, his rights went over to distant publishers, who might or might not pay him the royalty fixed by law. The proposed act protects the author absolutely, while offering an ingenious concession to the Canadian printer. A book copyrighted in England is by that act copyrighted in Canada also. The author thus retains control of his property, unless he choose to transfer it to a colonial publisher. The author may, however, give an exclusive license to print and publish for Canada. In this case, the importation of non-Canadian editions is forbidden. The publisher is obliged to do the presswork in Canada, but is free to buy the plates elsewhere. In the light of this proposed act, how absurd and oppressive our law appears. We abandon all rights to the piratical publishers unless the author, by a difficult and costly negotiation, reserves them to himself. The new Canadian law will secure the property right of the author until he chooses to dispose of it. In view of this essentially just position towards property rights in literature, the English author may accept with complacency the printing clause, somewhat oppressive though it be.

Although the British Government is not in a position to reciprocate the action of the Dominion of Canada in the matter of a preferential tariff, it has found a means of recompense in another measure. A bill has been introduced in the House of Lords authorizing the investment of trust funds in the inscribed stock of the British Colonies, the effect of which will naturally be to enable these colonies to borrow on easier terms than heretofore. The interests of beneficiaries are protected by a clause forbidding trustees to purchase any of these stocks at a price exceeding its redemption value, if it is liable to be redeemed within fifteen years at par or any other fixed rate. Nor may a trustee purchase any such redeemable stock at a price exceeding 15 per cent. above par, or the fixed rate of redemption. The bill does not extend to the stock of the Indian empire, but is otherwise comprehensive in its application. A great many of these stocks are redeemable within fifteen years, and are, therefore, excluded; but the colonies will no doubt proceed forthwith to refund these stocks at lower rates. There is a good deal to be said in favor of such a measure as this; but it must be admitted that the obligations of some of the British colonies are not such as to tempt a prudent trustee to invest in them.

First a war, then investigation of the scandals which attend it. That seems to be the established order now, and Great Britain is following it. The revelations of miserable shortcomings, or worse, in the hospital service in South Africa came as a painful surprise to the English public. It had had the testimony of eminent English surgeons, Sir William Macormac among them, to the unusual efficiency of the hospitals in Cape Town and Durban; and to be told, as it has been on indisputable authority, that the hospital service at Bloemfontein and at other points in the interior had been scandalously bad, was as disagreeable as unexpected. Supplies, it is now proved, were short, medicines and tents and nurses and physicians were lacking, many wounded men were grievously neglected, and epidemics of typhoid desolated the camps. The only defence is military necessity. Lord Roberts had but a single-track railway on which to bring up supplies from a base 700 miles away. He had to accumulate subsistence for his army for an advance of twenty-five days, or else sit down paralyzed in Bloemfontein. He chose the sad alternative of letting the sick and wounded suffer rather than ruin his campaign. This is a fair statement of the dilemma with which he was confronted. Whether foresight on the part of the War Office might not have prevented him from being reduced to so cruel a choice is another matter, upon which an investigating committee is to pronounce. In any case, the reproach to the medical service of the British army is nothing like so severe as our own was exposed to for having allowed our home camps, with every supply and facility at hand, to become fever-ridden.

MR. M'KINLEY'S SHREWDNESS AND BLUNDER.

The President's speech to the notification committee at Canton on Thursday began well, was going strong (as the racers say) in the middle, but ended in the collapse of a political blunder of the first magnitude. It came out adroitly and effectively against those parts of the Democratic platform which are weak; but, unluckily, it made the mistake of dashing also against those parts which are strong. On the silver issue and the question of national good faith, Mr. McKinley rose like a man eager to smite under the fifth rib the Philistine whom the Lord had delivered into his hand. But on the topic of Imperialism, he put himself in a position where it is the Philistine who will do the smiting at *his* expense.

A shrewd politician like Mr. McKinley could not fail to strike at the joint in Mr. Bryan's harness. How completely the Democrats at Kansas City played the President's game is shown by his instant acceptance of their silver challenge. The old issue over again, he promptly retorts. It is for the people once more to unite against the "advocates of repudiation," and, in the battle for "public honor and honest money," relax no effort till a Congress is assured which will "sustain and, if need be, strengthen the present law." All this is admirably and forcibly said, and no Gold Democrat, no man who appreciates the critical importance of a sound currency and business stability, will do aught but applaud these utterances of the President. The caviller might point out that Mr. McKinley himself was long a promoter of what he now calls "repudiation," but even the caviller must admit that this particular old silverite is now soundly converted. If there was hope for William McKinley, there is hope for the man most dead in trespasses and silver; and in the complete change now wrought in the President, we see a symbol of the great transformation of the country at large.

When Mr. McKinley came to speak of other financial matters, he lacked something of perfect ingenuousness. He boasted of our being able to refund at 2 per cent., "a lower rate than that of any other country." Entire frankness would have required him to state, what everybody knows, that this rate was only temporarily obtained by taking advantage of the necessities of the banks in the matter of securing bonds as the basis of circulation. Let Secretary Gage go into the open market to borrow money, and it is safe to say he would have to pay more than 2 per cent. Indeed, the refunding law itself authorizes him to pay 3. Nor does the President's laudation of the ill-starred Dingley law, with his complete silence about the necessity of reducing war taxes, contain any promise of fiscal *taxation reform. In so far he justifies* the cynical intention of a prominent Democrat to vote for Mr. McKinley in order to make him "reap his own harvest." The example of Mr. Cleveland, crushed under the fatal legacy of Republican legislation, is the only one of the kind this Democrat wishes to see. Let the Republicans shoulder their own blunders this time, and see what good their nostrum of protection and overtaxation will do them.

It is, however, in the part of the President's speech which deals with the Philippines that we see his political cunning deserting him. He can scarcely be said to give a truthful account of the situation, and, what will doubtless seem to him and his managers a more serious matter, he states the case and outlines his intentions in a way to repel the very voters on whom the success of his candidacy depends. What can be said of Mr. McKinley's statement that "the people of the islands . . . recognize American sovereignty as the symbol and pledge of peace, justice, law, religious freedom, education, and the security of life and property"? It is the thing which is not, however much he would like it to be, true. If his idyllic picture of the islands is correct, why can he spare but a handful of troops from the Philippines for service in China? And if it is simply a question of police work, of repressing brigandage, where are the native militia who ought by this time to have been enrolled by the thousand for the work? The simple fact is that Mr. McKinley's 60,000 troops eat up his peaceful words. If they are needed, then the glad acceptance of our rule is a figment.

But what of the future? What of the charge made by the Democrats that Mr. McKinley's policy is one of Imperialism? We regret to say that he confirms the worst that has been alleged. The significant thing is that both he and Senator Lodge go further than the Republican platform. They stiffen and harden its Philippine planks till there can be no mistake about their Imperialistic intent. The platform was constructed, as its framers have said, for the express purpose of conciliating Republican Anti-Imperialists and the sensitive Germans, who know by sad experience what militarism is. So far as the platform goes, it would be still possible to talk, as Senator Spooner did, of giving the Filipinos ultimate independence. But Mr. McKinley has rudely shut the door on all those hopes. He denounces the policy of "scuttle." (This, from the valiant Porto Rican scuttler, is not without its humor.) The islands are "ours," our authority must be made "supreme"; there will be "no abatement of our rights, no abandonment of our duty." (Query, "plain duty"?)

Now we flatly say that all this, putting aside every higher question, is politically a blunder. It will drive away Republican Anti-Imperialist votes. What can Senator Hoar say to this defiant assertion of McKinley's autocratic rule in the Philippines? At the close of his speech in the Senate he called an imaginary roll, and came to this name:

> "William McKinley; William McKinley: 'There has been a cloud before my vision for a moment, but I see clearly now; I go back to what I said two years ago: "Forcible annexation is criminal aggression; Governments derive their just powers from the consent of the governed—not of some of them, but of all of them." I will stand with the Fathers of the republic. I will stand with the founders of the Republican party. No.' "

But William McKinley at Canton voted "yes" more vehemently than ever, and bade the fathers and founders go hang. We have no doubt that Senator Hoar will rise nobly to this new trial of his faith. He will trust in the President though he slay him. But to the doubters all over the country; to the troubled consciences in all parties; to the hesitant German-Americans whose votes alone may turn the whole election, Mr. McKinley's words will bear dismay. His first speech is, in this respect, his first blunder. And it is a great and grievous one.

THE TREND OF LEGISLATION.

One of the functions of the Library of the State of New York is the collection and classification every year of the statutes passed by all the legislatures in the Union. From a comparison of these statutes some notion of the general tendency of legislation may be obtained, and such a comparison is attempted in a Bulletin recently issued by the State Library. The subject is too broad to be dealt with except in a superficial manner, but in certain lines it is practicable to note changes which indicate the operation of permanent causes. If we define Socialism as the tendency to enlarge the functions of Government, we must admit that the general drift is in that direction. New commissions and bureaus are continually created, and more and more occupations are subjected to Governmental inspection. In some cases we may be able to discern the influence of a rational and enlightened public opinion, but in others we see the effect of political agitation and of class interests.

As illustrating progress of a satisfactory kind, we may take the legislation affecting the liquor traffic. During the last fifty years this traffic has been prohibited by the laws of no less than seventeen States. At present it is proscribed in only five States: Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Kansas, and North Dakota. These are States in which the population is comparatively sparse, and the farming class is predominant. When we consider the intensity of the feeling concerning the evils of drinking, the zeal of the Prohibition party, and the very great moral influence of the Woman's Christian Temperance Union, we must admit that the repeal of so many prohibitory laws is a remarkable achievement. On the other hand, the rather tempting experiment of the State dispensary system has not commended itself to the sober judgment of our people.

As this Bulletin points out, the attempt to instruct school-children in the physiological effects of alcohol is really a sign of progress. Instruction of this kind is now prescribed in all the States except Georgia, Idaho, Virginia, and Wyoming. We have never thought that teaching of this kind was a desirable feature in the public-school course. Much of it is extremely crude and even false; nevertheless, the method employed is better than that of prohibitory laws. It implies a recognition of the truth that persuasion is superior to force, and it tends to promote temperance by making the effects of alcoholic drink a subject of rational discussion and scientific observation. We may look forward to more correct teaching than now prevails, and to the gradual diffusion of the truth that temperance is but one feature of a sound morality, and that if our children are brought up to desire right living, it will not be necessary to frighten them into abstinence by the exhibition of appalling pictures of the coats of the drunkard's stomach.

We may find further instances of the gradual recognition of changed morality by legislatures in the modifications of the Sunday laws. It was not until 1893 that the State of New Jersey removed its legal prohibition of the publishing and selling of newspapers, the selling of milk, and of walking or riding for recreation, on Sundays. Not until 1897 did Connecticut remove its ban from recreation on that day, and only last year did it legalize the operation of electric cars. The State of California repealed its Sunday laws in 1883, but in 1893 an act was passed restraining employers from exacting more than six days' work in a week from their men. But our legislation on these subjects is extremely defective. Most of the old Sunday laws ought to be swept away. They are not enforced, and are cumbersome relics of an outgrown morality. On the other hand, our laws fail to recognize the fact that the community has adopted the view that six days' work a week is enough. We want one day a week for recreation; but we make little provision for the regulation of the labor of those who have to work in order that others may enjoy themselves.

It is only thirty years since the first State Board of Health was organized in Massachusetts. Now such boards exist in all but five of the States, and their operations will probably be supplemented before long by a national board. The creation of these boards has resulted in much improvement in our vital statistics, although in many States their registration is very imperfect. An illustration of the same tendency appears in the legislation which purports to prevent the adulteration of food; but here the evidence of pecuniary and class interests is so strong as to make it doubtful if such laws indicate genuine progress. The same doubt is suggested when we review the legislation professedly in the interest of laborers. The first Bureau of Labor Statistics was established in Massachusetts in 1869, and such bureaus now exist in thirty-two States, while the Federal Government also maintains one. In view of the large cost of these bureaus, and the partisanship to which most of them have fallen victims, the results which they have achieved are not such as to justify their existence. They have not aided social progress perceptibly, while they have complicated our politics. At the demand of the labor unions, many laws have been passed which have been ineffective, not only because they were regarded as creating offices to be filled by representatives of these unions, but also because they constituted class legislation. Very many of them have been declared unconstitutional; and they illustrate the class of changes which hinder genuine progress. The eight-hour laws, which affect only laborers employed directly or indirectly by Government, cannot be regarded as in the interest of the whole class of laborers or of the community. They benefit a privileged few, at the expense of the unprotected many. The old guild spirit creeps back, too, in laws intended to restrict the numbers of such artisans as blacksmiths and barbers. The general welfare is invoked here, as it always is, to justify special advantages, and over such attempts great struggles will take place in the future.

Many bad laws are passed, and many changes made which are not for the better, yet as we survey the whole field of legislation from year to year, we discern so many advances as to justify us in believing that we are all the time making genuine progress.

LIGHT ON THE BOSS BUSINESS.

Gen. Greene, the new President of the Republican County Committee, is confirming the worst fears of the machine. He actually wants the political workers under him to be honest—financially honest! He has found a shortage in the Committee's accounts of $20,000, or so, and doesn't like it. The bookkeeping system he discovers to be ingeniously devised to invite fraud and peculation, and, in his offensive reformatory zeal, he is giving orders to have the accounts kept in the ordinary way of business men. Worse than this, he has determined to have one regular bank account, with no money to be drawn out except by check signed by the President and Treasurer of the Committee. Naturally, he is stoutly opposed to Quigg's little plan of a Finance Committee, *à la* Tammany, with himself the irresponsible head of it, *à la* Croker. No wonder that Quigg, with such an enemy as Gen. Greene is proving himself to the tried and trusted methods of Republican politics, placed at the head of the most important committee, should be indulging in and divulging horrid fears lest Bryan carry New York.

These incidents should illumine many darkened minds respecting the boss business. Taken in connection with Platt's open arrangements to turn over the Republican boss-ship, with all its hereditaments and appurtenances, to Mr. Odell, they enable us to see precisely what the meat is upon which our Cæsars feed to grow so great. Exactly what is the property which Platt, being weak in body, but of sound and disposing mind, is preparing to will to Mr. Odell? Is it political wisdom? Is it long acquaintance with the wiles and guile of the Democratic party, and skill in meeting them? No, it is the power of the purse, simply and brutally; it is the power to receive political contributions and collect campaign tribute, with no questions asked, and no accounts kept or rendered. The Thrale brewery boasted no such potentiality of wealth.

One can but be amused at the simple-minded surprise of Republicans in this city at the cool way in which Platt is dictating the succession in tyranny. They have long been counting upon Nature and the revolving years finally to rid them of Platt's hated despotism. His yoke they could not throw off as long as he lived, but when he was gone! Then the old, free Republican party would be restored. Platt could leave no possible successor. The party simply would not stand it, you know. Well, the boss, like Conan Doyle's Duke at the battle of Armageddon, "will have a word to say about that." Having the greatest untaxed franchise in the State at his disposal, he does not propose to let it expire with him, but means to pass it on in unimpaired vigor to Mr. Odell.

There have been two theories about the secret of Platt's bestriding his party in this State. One is what may be called the diabolic theory. He was a man in alliance with the powers of evil. He had spun political plots out of his vitals as a spider spins her web. Of infernal ingenuity, and a very master of malevolent intrigue, he had got one and another party leader in his clutches, by a kind of black art, until he could not be shaken off. Of course, no such Quasimodo of political mischief could succeed him; and, his evil reign once over, the party could hold up its head again. The other theory made out Platt more human, a man of like passions with other mortals, even kindly in his way, but of singular sagacity, of old experience attaining a prophetic strain, managing men by wisdom, controlling his party by astuteness, conquering by shrewd counsels. This theory, too, implied, of course, that no such king of men, no such miracle of political insight, would be raised up to succeed Platt. Nature would break the mould. We have heard of a leading Republican politician of this city gravely shaking his head, when the question of Platt's successor was raised in conversation, and saying, "Mr. Platt will have no successor. No other man has his sheer ability, his extraordinary talent for leadership, his ripe experience, his profound knowledge of human nature"—our readers can guess the rest of the panegyric.

Everybody can see now, however, that the hiding of Platt's power is quite elsewhere. He has been a boss not because he was a fiend or because he was a sage. Ever since he first sat at the receipt of customs, as Chairman of the State Committee, and used the position to make himself Senator, the secret of his career has been an open one, to those who had eyes to see. The most blind ought now to be able to see it. Platt's designation of Mr. Odell as his heir is as revealing a proceeding as the filing of a will in the Surrogate's Court. It discovers the decedent's property and what he does with it. Platt's public property has consisted simply in being the "man whom you pay." That is the only tangible asset he can make over to Mr. Odell, but, that once passed on, all is passed on. If Republican business men go on paying money to a man who never renders accounts, if corporations continue to buy legislation from him, or pay him blackmail, the dynasty will be perpetuated. We shall simply say, "The boss is dead; long live the boss!" But if honest Republicans snap their purses shut when the boss's collectors come round, or say they will give only when some such system of business-like accounts is adopted as Gen. Greene advocates; if conscience or fear of publicity restrains corporations from swelling the secret corruption fund of the man in whose hands money means nomination to office, and control of his creatures in office, then we may begin to hope that the line of bosses will become extinct. The remedy is, as it has always been, in the hands of those who pay. The "man whom you pay" is but their wretched creature. The business of the boss is nothing, in essence, but the control of the party treasury; and if his supplies were to be cut off, he would die like an ordinary Christian.

THE GERMANS IN CHINA.

Among the items of news from China last week was a report from Canton that there had been a fight between the Germans and Boxers at Kiao-Chau in which many of the latter were killed. This incident, and the killing of Baron von Ketteler by the mob in Pekin, seem indicate that the irritation caused by the seizure of the bay and town of Kiao-Chau by Germany some three years ago is still active, and must be held accountable in large part for the present desperate situation in northern China.

The facts connected with this seizure are presented in an impartial way in the current number of the *Forum* by Charles Denby, jr., our former Secretary of Legation at Pekin. That the acquisition of a strip of territory on the Chinese coast had been in contemplation for some time before the actual seizure took place, was made plain by a speech of Herr von Bülow in the Reichstag, April 27, 1898, explaining, in part, the reasons for the seizure of Kiao-Chau. He said that Germany did not desire a partition of China, but was determined that, if it came, she should have a strategical position which would enable her to exercise a decisive influence in the future of the Far East. This, he said, was on the principle that the devil takes the hindmost. Germany now had a naval station and ports and the nucleus of an army in a convenient position. She could accordingly look with complacency on the development of affairs.

How this point of vantage was obtained has not been forgotten by distant observers; and therefore must be held in lively remembrance by the people whose territory was seized. Two German missionaries were brutally murdered by a Chinese mob at a village in southern Shantung, November 1, 1897. Germany demanded full reparation, indemnity for the families of the victims, compensation for the expenses incurred by the Government, and a naval station on the coast of China. If the Italian Government had demanded from us compensation for the victims of the New Orleans massacre, plus a naval station in Mobile Bay, the two cases would have been parallel in the eye of international law; the only difference being found in the strength of the Powers concerned, and their ability to enforce or resist the demand. China complied with all the requirements of Germany except the last, and had not refused even that when the German forces in Chinese waters, only two weeks after the murder of the missionaries, seized Kiao-Chau Bay, landed soldiers, and took possession of the forts and adjacent territory. Such haste implied an apprehension that the Chinese Government might offer a less advantageous place, or refuse the demand altogether. Some months after the seizure had been effected, the Chinese Government recognized it as an accomplished fact, and made a treaty with Germany granting a lease of the bay and adjacent territory for ninety-nine years, but retaining the sovereignty over it. That this reserved sovereignty was only nominal is shown by the fact that the government of the leased territory was vested in Germany. Various grants for the building of railways and the working of mines beyond the leased territory were embraced in the treaty, and these were coupled with written assurances that Germany had no treacherous intention to seize any land beyond the boundaries of the lease, but only to increase commerce and improve the relations of the two countries.

Mr. Denby mentions the following reasons why Germany seized Kiao-Chau rather than any other *point d'appui* on the coast:

> "Except Shantung, there was scarcely a province in which she could have planted herself without encroaching on the alleged rights of others. It is a sad commentary on the decadence of China that there is scarcely any desirable territory along the coast which does not fall within some foreign government's 'sphere of influence.' To have gone north of Shantung would have been to enter a field where the White Czar is self-predestined master. South of Shantung, in the provinces of Kiangsu and Chekiang, we come upon the Yangtse Valley, which has been staked out by England in a shadowy agreement with China that no part thereof shall be alienated to any other Power. The coast of Fukien, further south, has been preëmpted by Japan, by virtue of her annexation of Formosa—a preëmption which has been recognized by the Chinese Government in an agreement, made in April, 1898, that no part of this province shall be alienated by any nation but Japan. In the next two provinces, Kuangtung and Kuangsi, any German establishment would have been regarded with more than disfavor by England and France."

Mr. Denby adds that all the deep-water harbors on the coast are now in the hands of foreigners except that of Amoy. Italy, it is well understood, would not refuse that.

It is not to be supposed that the seizure of Kiao-Chau Bay was looked upon with indifference by the Chinese people or that it was without its influence in arousing the revengeful spirit of which there has been so much evidence during the past month. Although there was no popular outbreak at the time; although there was nothing like a general protest against the cession of Kiao-Chau to Germany, or of Port Arthur to Russia, yet there is much reason to believe that the dreadful scenes of the past month are traceable to an aroused public spirit, and not to the labors of missionaries in China. It can hardly be due to accident that the German Minister was the first to fall a victim to Chinese vengeance. The Government of China, in its explanation of the killing of Baron von Ketteler, does not refer to the seizure of Kiao-Chau Bay. It could not do so, since it had given its consent and ratification to it subsequently; but unless the Chinese are different from all other races of men known to history, the acts of Germany and the other grabbing Powers would be sufficient to account for all the bloodshed that has taken place in China since the 1st of June.

THE PARIS EXPOSITION.—IV.

FRENCH AERIAL NAVIGATION.

PARIS, June 23, 1900.

In the huge U-shaped building where most of the articles made in this world can be seen—from mighty machines of shining steel and brass to the most delicate fabrics fashioned by their almost human intelligence—one occasionally comes upon surprising oases, suggestive collections which open unexpected avenues of thought rather alien to the superbly material forcefulness of surrounding exhibits. Such are the remarkable cases of old keys, ancient locks, and ornamental iron work with which several happy hours unconsciously slipped away. One could scarcely imagine that so many beautiful forms of historic keys could exist, until these noteworthy collections of M. le Secq des Tournelles had been studied. Another is a fascinating room full of antique clocks and watches, hourglasses and clepsydras—the history of time, as it were, and still serviceable in annihilating our common father, though perhaps in a different way from that which their long-vanished makers intended. Of scarcely less interest is the corner in which are brought together all ancient devices in connection with artificial light—candlesticks of exquisite old shapes and many materials, snuffers and trays, numberless shelves of extinguishers, Roman lamps and candelabra, an epitome of historic illumination.

But I discovered to-day a veritable wellspring of pleasantness, after a somewhat arid stroll past wheels and leather, carriages and carpets. My attention was attracted by a large, bat-like object suspended overhead, showing a multiplicity of mysterious and rather chaotic wings: a bird, a butterfly, an August cicala, a bat, and a whirling maple seed combined, might perhaps describe the Ader type of flying-machine "éclaireur et torpilleur." It seemed to suggest the objects below. Captive balloons of many models, with various kinds of cars and baskets, opportunities for choice in ropes and pulleys, and even the pongee silks made in China and Japan for gaseous inflation, attracted few gazers; but the case containing a picture of Andree and his associates, Fraenkel and Strindberg, was constantly surrounded, as the one farther on, representing the frozen fjord and glistening mountains above which their balloon was poised on the 11th of July, 1897. Aeronautical instruments for meteorologic observation are grouped together, and a neighboring map shows the tracks of various high-air voyages from Paris to a distance of 1,200 kilometres. All these, with flying machines of different principles and epochs, "grapplers" and anchors for landing (unexpectedly or otherwise) upon earth and sea, make a very modern section, of which the interest is not diminished by a glance at the fine photographs taken from different altitudes. These appear to be a series of particularly good enlargements. St.-Genis-Laval (Rhone) from a height of 650 metres is clear and perfect, while a charming picture of cumulus cloud in process of formation, allowing between its masses distant but distinct glimpses of fields and woods, was taken from a height of 1,350 metres. The Pont-des-Vaux (Ain) from 1,600 metres is small yet still clearly defined, and lovely cloud photographs are shown, made at 2,050 metres altitude.

It will be remembered that scientific ascents for the purpose of getting above the accidents of meteorological circumstance have not been unknown; and here may be seen the actual substance of *Le Volta*, in which the famous astronomer Janssen made his upper-air pilgrimage on the 2d of December, 1870. This devoted observer, thus leaving besieged Paris in ample time for the sun's eclipse of the 22d, was not rewarded for his energetic faithfulness; an overcast sky being his portion upon the important day. The siege of Paris, indeed, is constantly memorialized in these aerial cases, in ways other than scientific. One of them contains a fragment of the material used by Eugène Godard in constructing *Le Washington* for use during that memorable winter; some of the dispatches thus sent overhead; and pictures of the balloon high above the city, casting its shadow upon surrounding clouds. Here, too, one sees the carefully stuffed body of the carrier pigeon celebrated at that troublous time—another sort of aerial communication, to be sure, but perhaps appropriately commemorated here. The tragic death in the sea of Prince on the 30th of November, 1870, and of Lacaze, who ascended in the *Richard Wallace* the 27th of January, 1871, and also perished in the ocean, are represented several times in harrowing pictures. Other cases contain volumes upon high-air navigation, volumes of *L'Aéronaute*, and numbers of the *Journal des Voyages*, illustrating this phase of human endeavor. Also exhibited are the kite explorations of upper air brought to such successful issue by Mr. A. Lawrence Rotch of Blue Hill. The familiar face of Dr. Abel Hureau de Villeneuve and those of MM. Henry Gifford and Maurice Mallet look from one frame, beside many old engravings of ascensions, successful descents, and fatal endings.

But historical collections of balloon memorabilia may be both poetic and æsthetic. This is proved by the quaint and beautiful articles owned by M. Louis Bérean and M. Albert Tissandier shown near by. Curious old prints published more than a hundred years ago, some of them colored, represent every sort of attempt at aerial navigation, sometimes seriously, often in amusing caricature, with catastrophes, both humorous and ghastly, which would appear to have been particularly dear to the hearts of artists and engravers in 1783 and thereabouts. Stone and marble tablets, one of that year in memory of De Rozier, oddly decorated medals in silver and bronze, an ancient oil painting of a captive balloon reluctantly restrained by ropes held in the tugging hands of a dozen blue-coated gentlemen of a past century, fill the first case, with a superb lot of old books. Among them is 'Essai sur la Nautique Aérienne,' published by Eugène Onfroy in 1784, and a fine old volume issued in Brescia in 1670, dedicated "Alla sacra Maestà Cesarea del Imperatore Leopoldo I," and volume iii. of 'La Découverte Australe, par un Homme-Volant; ou Le Dédale Français; Nouvelle très-philosophique,' of which the first volume is in another collection farther on. Volume i., however, has a more amusing frontispiece, wherein an airily attired individual in wings and an umbrella, carrying a suspended basket below his feet, is about to set sail into space from the summit cliff of a high mountain.

The painstaking and beautiful accumulation of M. Tissandier shows silver and pewter plates engraved with balloon subjects, numberless handsome snuff-boxes of multitudinous designs of the same idea painted or inlaid, old prints in quaint frames; cups and saucers, sugar-bowls, water-pitchers of all epochs; a vase in shape like a Japanese saké-bottle, a tiny drum of ancient form, silver candlesticks, miniatures, and jewelry set in brilliants, a cane, a sword, silver-handled knives, nearly thirty plates, and more than two dozen exquisitely painted fans, long gloves, brass escutcheons and ivory carvings—all old, all exhibiting in one form or another the thought of balloon voyaging or navigating the air in some manner. It forms a noteworthy and most curious aggregation, even a lot of antique printed cottons adding their pictorial testimony to aerial history.

For the sun's eclipse of August, 1887, Professor Mendeléef also attempted to rise above the clouds, in Russia. His experience could hardly fail to come to mind among these high-air memorials, though no record of his trip is shown here. In some way his aeronaut was left behind at the last moment, so that the astronomer got above the clouds in well-nigh a double sense, shooting up alone into space to a height of nearly two miles above the earth. He did obtain, from this lofty region, a clear and unobstructed view of a fine corona, quite obscured to his countrymen below; but we can well imagine that the imminent duties devolving upon him as the guiding spirit of so novel a conveyance must have allowed but preoccupied attention to solar glories.

M. Henry Dumoutet is an artist especially skilful in painting scenery of the upper air, and many illustrations from his facile brush are shown, in small monochrome water-colors, as well as oil representations in natural colors of life above the clouds. Moonlight with the strange atmospheric effect of a cross like an elongated corona around the mild luminary, zodiacal light in the constellation Virgo, earth-scenery from above, and many technical matters he has artistically delineated, especially the effects observed during the ascent of *L'Alliance* on the night of the 14th of November, 1899, with the Russian astronomer, Hansky, from Meudon, to look for the coy Leonids. A few of these, too, are shown, and his pictorial record of another excursion for a similar purpose two nights later also appears, when he once more essayed the empyrean in company with MM. Louis Vernachet and E. Valentine.

Of Mlle. Dorothea Klumpke's experiences during an aerial voyage in the *Centaure*, during the early morning of November 16, 1899, also in search of that year's elusive meteors, she has already told delightfully in the June *Century*. Her account, as she described to us orally her preparations and her flight into space, was even fuller than her written description of the mystery and exhilaration, the strange nearness of the unknown, and the inexplicable charm of upper air. She is "docteur ès sciences," and at the head of a force of computers in the Paris Observatory, charged with the very important duty of preparing a catalogue of the stars from the plates of the International Astrographic Congress. For the solar eclipse of the present year, May 28, she made another balloon ascension, but was unable to reach an altitude entirely above the mists and cloud enshrouding Paris at that time. The disappointment was less vital since the eclipse was not total here. Mlle. Klumpke has read a brilliant paper this week, at the International Congress of Women, upon feminine achievement in astronomy—a subject upon which she is undoubted authority.

Of course there is a captive balloon in the Exposition grounds, for the amusement of the laymen; but of far greater interest is the exhibition of free balloons at Vincennes. Last Sunday eight fully inflated air-voyagers of forty or fifty feet in diameter were simultaneously shown. Four ascended in twenty minutes, with their aeronauts. In one, a lady started on the unknown voyage with two aeronauts; in another, the captain of the celestial craft started alone. The lower air was perfectly quiet when the balloons were freed, and all took different directions, according to the speed of their vertical ascent and the corresponding air currents which they struck later. They set forth at four o'clock, but at sundown only one had entirely disappeared from the gaze of the vast throngs watching at Vincennes. The experiments are conducted under the auspices of the Committee on Aerostation, of which the veteran expert De Fonvielle is secretary.

The subject of human transportation through space will always be of profound interest until it is a practically and comfortably established fact of every-day occurrence. And France is surely the country in which this problem is liable to meet its final solution. MABEL LOOMIS TODD.

A NEW NATIONAL GALLERY FOR ENGLAND.

LONDON, June 27, 1900.

A new gallery has been added to the national possessions of England. On Monday, the 25th of June, Hertford House in Manchester Square was opened to the public, and now at last, after three years of waiting, the famous Wallace collection, bequeathed to the nation by Lady Wallace, is on view to all who choose to come and pass through the turn-stile at the door.

The history of the collection is well known. Its foundation was laid by the third Marquess of Hertford, the original, it is said, of Thackeray's Lord Steyne. It was added to enormously by the fourth Marquess, who, owing to some forgotten dispute with the vestry of his parish, went to live in Paris, which accounts for his special interest in the art of France. And it was completed by Sir Richard Wallace, to whom, instead of to the next of kin, it was left by this same Marquess upon his death in 1870. Sir Richard Wallace and, afterwards, Lady Wallace were generous; they were among the most frequent contributors to the Academy and other exhibitions of old masters; for a while, when the collection was first brought back from France, it was shown in the Bethnal Green Museum, where it remained from 1872 to 1875, so that the value of the treasures that Lady Wallace (who had inherited them in her turn) bequeathed to the nation was fully realized at the time of her death in 1897. Indeed, there could be no question as to accepting her bequest, though she did hamper it with certain conditions, and the National Museums have already suffered sadly from too many conditional gifts. I do not believe any one doubts the advantage of centralizing the great national collections. The pictures from Hertford House would have helped to fill the serious gaps in the National Gallery; the furniture and bronzes, faience and porcelain would have performed the same service in South Kensington; and the arms and armor would have made the armory at the Tower a worthy rival of that wonderful museum in Vienna. But Lady Wallace stipulated that the collection should always be kept together and known as the Wallace collection, and that the Government should agree to provide a special building for it in a central part of London.

As I have said, the bequest was one the nation could not afford to refuse, on any terms, and the result was that the Committee in charge decided that the collection should remain in Hertford House. Sir Edward Poynter objected. As Director of the National Gallery, he knew better than most men how much the Watteaus and Fragonards, the Lancrets and Paters, the Corots and Rousseaus were needed in Trafalgar Square, and he suggested as a compromise that a new building should be put up as near the National Gallery as possible. But he was alone, and unfortunately could not convert the rest of the Committee to his way of thinking. It is a pity, for Manchester Square is off the beaten track of museums and galleries—though Mr. Whistler's Company of the Butterfly now has delightful rooms round the corner—and there is just a danger of its sharing the fate of the picturesque little Soane Museum, virtually forgotten because it happens to be hidden away in Lincoln's Inn Fields.

However, it must be admitted that Hertford House is, in every other respect, an admirable museum. It has the charm of not having been built for the express purpose of exhibiting works of art. Two of the most beautiful museums in Europe are the Cluny in Paris and the Plantin in Antwerp, simply because they have not the look of museums. Hertford House, of course, cannot compete with them in beauty, and many of its apartments have been altered and rebuilt. Still, it retains, on the whole, the air of a palace rather than a gallery, and the arrangement of the collection adds to this effect. It has come to be a tradition nowadays that examples of the different arts should be separated as jealously as if their meeting within the same four walls were a crime. But there is no reason in the world why beautiful things should not be shown beautifully, and it is to the credit of the Directors that at Hertford House they have refused to draw the usual line of separation. The arms and armor have four spacious galleries to themselves on the ground floor; but the wonderful French furniture, of all kinds and many periods, the almost unrivalled Sèvres porcelain, the enamels and bronzes, the eighteenth-century snuff-boxes, the miniatures, the medals—all these things and many more are scattered throughout the large and small rooms whose walls are covered with pictures. The one drawback of this arrangement, at the moment, is an excess of gorgeousness. The walls in several of the galleries are of a vivid red that overpowers the paintings, the cases in the centre are aggressive with gilding. The cool, quiet green used as background for the Watteaus is a continual reproach to the hotter tint of the other rooms. But reds and gilding will be quickly subdued to the proper tone by time and London atmosphere, and the present flamboyant color and glitter reduced to an appropriate harmony.

The chief interest of the collection centres about the series of French pictures, for the simple reason that hitherto the French School has been all but unrepresented in the British national galleries. There are other fine pictures, to be sure: two or three splendid portraits by Rembrandt and one by Van Dyck; examples of Velasquez, Rubens's "Rainbow Landscape," a Titian, the "Perseus and Andromeda," lost to the world, the catalogue says, for about a century; a long succession of English portraits of the eighteenth century, among them Reynolds's "Strawberry Girl," which he himself describes as "one of the half-dozen original things which no man ever exceeded in his life-work," and his "Nelly O'Brien," which D'Annunzio has just been coupling with the "Mona Lisa"; and, without exception, the most delicate renderings of Venetian architecture and waters by Guardi that I have ever seen anywhere. But, after all, most of these masters and all the schools to which they belong may be studied just as well in the National Gallery, where, however, you might fancy French painting had come to an end with Claude and Poussin. Save for an occasional Greuze, Madame Vigée-Lebrun, and Rosa Bonheur, there is no French work at all. But in the Wallace collection there are exquisite Watteaus, nine in all; there are Lancrets, Paters, Fragonards—all the painters of *Fêtes Galantes*, of the artificial romantic comedy that faded and paled before the terrors of the Revolution and the cold classicism of David. There are Bouchers. There are men like Prudhon and Boilly, the connecting links between the eighteenth century and the Romanticism of 1830, the period that is most surprisingly well represented. It begins, as it should, with the English Bonington, an influence in France long before he won recognition in England, and it is doubtful whether there is another series as complete of his paintings and water-colors. And after him come Géricault, Delacroix, Decamps, Marilhat, Couture, Corot, Rousseau, Troyon, Dupré, Diaz. True, there is much that now has but an historical interest—innumerable canvases by Horace Vernet and Camille Roqueplan making you wonder why it ever seemed worth while to any one to collect them, even if here are the very pictures singled out for praise by Heine and Gautier: Vernet's "Judah and Tamar," Roqueplan's "Lion in Love," for example. But they have their place in the history of French art in the nineteenth century, and the great regret is that Sir Richard Wallace died just a little too soon, perhaps, to appreciate that this history is not complete without the work of Manet and Monet, Degas and Puvis de Chavannes, and one or two others whose fame and influence will prove something more than the passing fashion of a day.

But in a collection that has so many virtues the faults need not be insisted upon. After this, every American who comes to London and visits the National Gallery must complete his studies there by the journey across central London to Hertford House, in Manchester Square. N. N.

AFTER PETER THE GREAT.

PARIS, June 28, 1900.

M. Waliszewski is indefatigable. He has given us four volumes in succession: 'Le Roman d'une Impératrice,' 'Autour d'un Trône,' 'Marysienka,' and 'L'Hérédité de Pierre le Grand.' The two first volumes are a complete history of Catherine II.; the third is the history of Marie de la Grange d'Arquien, who became the wife of Sobieski. These works, if they are written in a sort of broken and exotic French, and sometimes show a sort of curious agitation of mind and fervor of imagination very uncommon in historians, constitute, nevertheless, a very important addition to the history, still so little known, of Russia, by the abundance of their documents, all taken from original sources. Twenty-five years ago, the Duke Decazes, who was then Minister of Foreign Affairs, opened to M. Waliszewski the Archives of the French Foreign Office, and thus gave him, with a taste for historical researches, the means to satisfy his curiosity. In his fourth volume he has used not only the French Archives, but those of Dresden and of Berlin.

The volume opens after the death of Peter the Great. The situation was singular; there was no will, no heir to the throne, no law of heredity, "no sovereign in a country where the sovereign had arranged that all power should emanate from him alone, and that there should be nobody to regulate him." The only law was, for the moment, in these few words which Peter had traced in his agony: "Give everything to . . ." He had not been able to finish the sentence. The old aristocratic families of Russia were divided and jealous of each other. The men in office were all upstarts, creatures of the reformer; they were afraid of falling into obscurity again. Their only chance was a perpetuation of the great reign, and therefore all their wishes and hopes went to the companion of the Tsar, with whom they had a community of interests and sentiments. Was not Catherine, like themselves, an upstart and a creature of Peter? She manœuvred with great ability. During the last illness of the Tsar, she made arrangements with the officers of the guards; as soon as Peter was dead, she convoked the Synod, the officers of state, surrounded the palace with troops, and was proclaimed Empress. Catherine I. owed her elevation to the throne to a *coup d'état*, and this method was followed afterwards for Ivan III., Elizabeth, and Catherine II. "The Guard will always play, in these revolutions, the part of the ancient chorus. Behind the authors of the revolution of 1762 there will not be even the shadow of a principle, and the Orloffs, in order to attain their object with the wife of Peter III., will take the shortest road, the road used by soldiers when they feel strongest."

With the régime of *coups d'état* came also that of government by women, of gynecocracy, which lasted seventy years. It is rather curious that this form of feminism found a natural theatre in the Slav world. In Russia, as well as in Bohemia and in Poland, woman has frequently the features and character of an Amazon. At Novgorod, women appeared in the popular assemblies. Herzen spoke severely of Catherine I. He said that "the Russia of Peter the Great reached the new Russia through a house of prostitution." In reality, not much that is certain is known about Catherine before she became the wife of the sovereign. In 1702 she was called Martha, and "between the house of Parson Glück and the camp of the conquerors of Livonia, she filled the office of a good German maid, used to most humble functions." The year after, Peter took her to Moscow, she was converted to the Orthodox Church, and had two children, Anne and Elizabeth. She was married to Peter only in 1712, after the birth of these children. It is said that she did not know at first how to read and write; but in three months she learned to sign documents of state, and the Russian Archives possess her book of expenses from 1722 to 1725, written in her own hand. The Empress was surrounded by German maids, and by German or Polish adventurers, such as Reinhold Loewenwolde, the agent of the Duchess of Courland (daughter of the eldest brother of Peter), a typical representative of those Germans who, under Peter I., held themselves "as tranquil as water, as low as grass," as the Russian proverb runs; and Sapieha, who became her lover at the same time, the type of those Polish noblemen who, "at the approach of disaster to their country, saved their own fortunes at the price which is generally given for such compromises."

What the Court was at the time can be gathered from these lines of Lefort, the Saxon envoy:

> "July 14, 1725.—It is impossible to define the conduct of this Court; night is turned into day; . . . nothing is done; . . . nobody will undertake any business; . . . the palace is inaccessible, full of intrigues.
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> "May 25, 1726.—I am afraid of being considered a liar if I say what sort of life is led at this Court. Who would believe that the nights are all spent in horrid scenes of drinking? . . . There is no question of business; everything languishes and perishes.
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> "March 15, 1727.—The Treasury is empty; nobody is paid. . . . In fact, I cannot find sufficiently vivid colors to paint this chaos."

It is quite true that Catherine spent her life in drinking, that she kept her old habits of washerwoman, of regimental cook; that she did not for a moment think of governing. "Nevertheless," says M. Waliszewski, "there was a government moving in the chaos of which the Saxon envoy speaks; it lived and was not drowned, otherwise this reign, as well as the following reigns which closely resembled it, would have marked the end of Russia. Gynecocracy had, in this country as elsewhere, a natural counterpart, at the same time damaging and salutary, namely, favoritism." Russia was, in reality, in the hands of more or less clever favorites. "This phenomenon does not explain wholly an enigma which puzzled all the contemporaries—the maintenance and development of a formidable power under conditions of life which, to all appearances, ought to have determined its ruin. Russia had other reasons for living and increasing its power, which I will try to explain. But the participation in power of the Menshikoffs and the Potemkins was one of the elements of this prodigious destiny."

During his lifetime Peter the Great sometimes accepted Romodanovski and sometimes Menshikoff as substitutes in the exercise of the fundamental functions of sovereignty. In the absence of any organized political bodies, Catherine had nothing to do but to allow Menshikoff to perform the duties which he had often assumed during Peter's journeys. Menshikoff became the real ruler and sovereign. He encountered some rivals—the Duke of Holstein, Tolstoi—and had to make concessions to them. The Empress died at the age of fifty, after a few months' ailing. According to the terms of her will, the new Emperor was Peter Alexeyevitch. The will safeguarded the rights of Anne and Elizabeth, in case Peter should die without posterity.

Peter II. was only twelve years old. He had nothing of his grandfather in his appearance, and looked more like his mother, Charlotte of Wolfenbüttel. He was in the habit of calling Menshikoff "papa," and so continued. Menshikoff took him into his own house, sent away his preceptors, and gave him one of his own choice, the Westphalian Ostermann. On the height which he had now attained, Menshikoff showed much cleverness. In order to give solidity to his fortune, he surrounded himself and the young Emperor with members of the oldest families, the Galitzins, the Dolgorukis. He set free the grandmother of the young Emperor, who had been kept in prison since 1718 in the convent of Lake Ladoga, Eudoxia Lapukhin, who went under the name of the "Nun Helen." Curious details are found in the papers of the time as to the treatment inflicted at Schlüsselburg on this touching victim of the passions of Peter the Great. Eudoxia was not, however, allowed to come to St. Petersburg.

The history of the fall of Menshikoff is told at great length by M. Waliszewski. The young Emperor did not long follow his rule, and on the 7th of September, 1727, dismissed the man who had been the favorite of Catherine. Menshikoff was exiled to his estate of Oranienburg, and lost all his dignities. All the members of his family left St. Petersburg. The people looked upon these changes with indifference, being ignorant of the causes and not perceiving the consequences.

Peter II. was a very despicable sovereign—or, rather, he was no sovereign at all. His whole time was spent in hunting. With all his defects, he was popular. He kept the army on a peace footing, and therefore did not tax the people very heavily. He affianced himself to one of the Dolgorukis—Catherine, who was very handsome, very bold and imperious, and who had received a good education at Warsaw. The succession of Menshikoff was divided between the Dolgorukis and the Galitzins. Ostermann, who had been one of the chief instruments in the downfall of Menshikoff, though Menshikoff had been his protector, continued to have much influence.

The Emperor put off from day to day his marriage ceremony. Ostermann was secretly plotting against the Dolgoruki family; the Emperor was tired of their rule, their pretensions, their avarice. On the 6th of January, 1730, took place the ceremony of the blessing of the waters of the Neva. Peter was at the ceremony with Catherine Dolgoruki; he took cold on his return, and fell ill of the smallpox. The consternation of the Dolgorukis was great. The diplomatic body became agitated. Peter had the imprudence to open a window the fifth day after the beginning of his illness; the eruption was checked, he was lost. A will was presented to the dying Emperor, in which Catherine Dolgoruki was called to the throne. Ostermann thwarted the plans of the Dolgorukis. The Vice-Chancellor kept guard over the bed of Peter, who was in a state of delirium. Ivan Dolgoruki went through the rooms of the palace, sword in hand, screaming, "Long live the Empress Catherine!" He found no echo, and finally went home and burned the false will. When Peter II. died, nothing was ready. Fortunately, there was a Supreme Council, which was able to take the reins of government in hand, and which assumed the right to fill the vacancy of the throne.

Correspondence.

PROTECTION WITHOUT MILITARISM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As Mr. Bryan is radically opposed to "militarism," one would like to know how he proposes in practice to carry out the third article of his programme for the Philippines, namely, "to give them protection from outside interference while they work out their own destiny," without making very considerable concessions to militarism. Assuming responsibilities of this sort in the Orient would obviously be for us a very different matter from assuming them on the American continent. We should have to be armed with something better than a sword of lath to make our "prave 'ords" respected in an arena which promises to succeed the Low Countries in the doubtful distinction of being the cockpit of Europe, and where the validity of our claims to a right to intervene would be measured, as with other nations, by our ability to make them good *vi et armis*.

E. G. J.

MILWAUKEE, WIS., July 11, 1900.

AUSTRIAN-GERMAN EDUCATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The stringent comments passed upon our American education in a recent number of the *Atlantic* by a German professor, for some years past a member of the faculty of Harvard College, are serious indeed if founded in fact. His criticism contains two major assertions: first, that the German schoolboy learns much more in a given space of time than the American lad; second, that the German not only does this with no sacrifice of health, but with ample time for music, horseback-riding, mountain-climbing, etc., etc. Whether the schools of Imperial Germany differ much from those of German Austria, I know not, not having had much opportunity to observe the schools of Germany proper. A year's residence in Austria, however, has given me some facts which have helped me, though an American teacher, not to be stung too deeply by the above-mentioned indictment of American teachers and ideals of education.

To begin with, one must admit that the Austrian schoolboy who has passed his *Matura* is much farther ahead of the American lad who is ready for Harvard or Yale than the former's added two years of study should warrant. The Austrian has not wasted long hours in the silly effort to sing in unison with 200 other raucous-voiced lads, nor in the even sillier attempt to draw cones and pots and vases. He has learned, with a thoroughness not known to the usual American school, precisely those things which will help him in pursuing a rational university course. He has gained a respect for scholarly attainment that amounts to a desire to know all things. The very first glance at the class-room of an Austrian university brings to mind that unfortunate German parson "recruited" along with Barry Lyndon, who, with a fortune of some odd marks, had learned Greek, Latin, English, French, Hebrew, and Sanskrit, and had a burning desire to acquire Chinese.

If, however, one marks all this, he also marks the distinctively inferior physique of these same much-lettered youths. He learns one of the causes of this inferiority when he finds that, even at the great University of Vienna, where there are not hundreds but thousands of students, the utmost one can do in the way of physical exercise is two hours per week in a small, ill-provided gymnasium, and that it is unwise to work so hard as to sweat in these two hours—because no baths are provided in the gymnasium. The further down in the scale of schools one goes, the more striking becomes the physical inferiority—perhaps because the short trousers of the small boys show their wretchedly undeveloped bodies more forcibly than do their dead-white faces. There is no question but that the Austrian schoolboy is weak to a degree that would shock an American father or teacher.

The German critics of our schools may say that this is due to the poverty of dwelling and of food that marks the life of all Austrians below the upper-middle class. It may be so, but the Austrian teachers themselves admit that the pupils are over-worked. I remember, in particular, a conversation with the Director of a Gymnasium who was much frightened at the ill-health and nervousness of his son. "Our boys are so overloaded with work," he said, "that they are often diseased nervously, and I fear that my boy is getting into that state." It was suggested that two hours' enforced football per day would prove a remedy, but he overthrew this possibility by saying that his boy was too ambitious to give so much time to play, and that if he, the father and the Director, should enforce it, his boy might get a 2 instead of a 1 as his grade. "Then he might blow his brains out," concluded the Director.

The Director's fear was fully justified by the facts of Austrian life, for child-suicide is horribly frequent here. A boy gets a bad report in his examination, and he runs out remarking that he is going to kill himself—a threat only too often put into effect. A fourteen-year-old girl fears that she will be discovered to be the author of an improper note, which the teacher has intercepted, and throws herself out of a fifth-floor window. Another, still younger, does the same thing, because she is not given the full and formal courtesy accorded to her mature sister. It was a rare month this winter when Vienna had not to record at least the attempted suicide of one or more school-children.

These being facts, one may admit that the Austrian child is more learned than his American fellow, and yet hope earnestly that the day is far distant when anything like the Austrian-German's methods and ideals of education shall prevail in America. And are the Imperial German's methods and ideals so very different from those of his brother over the border?

AN AMERICAN TEACHER.

VIENNA, June 20, 1900.

Notes.

'A History of Political Parties in the United States,' by James H. Hopkins, is to be published directly by G. P. Putnam's Sons, who announce also 'A Book for All Readers,' by Ainsworth R. Spofford.

Dodd, Mead & Co.'s autumn announcements include a book of verses by Carolyn Wells, with illustrations by Oliver Herford; 'Wanted: A Matchmaker,' a Christmas story by Paul Leicester Ford; and a series, to be denominated "Bookman Classics," of ornamental editions of 'The Sentimental Journey,' 'Robinson Crusoe,' 'The Scarlet Letter,' and other "principal examples of English prose and verse in pure literature that have successfully stood the test of time."

Macmillan Co. will soon have ready 'The Venetian Republic; Its Rise, its Growth, and its Fall,' by W. Carew Hazlitt.

Henry Holt & Co. will shortly publish a history of France in French for American schools, based by Prof. O. B. Super on Ducoudray and Feillet's 'Récits d'Histoire de France."

'An Alphabet of Indians,' drawings by the late Emery Leavitt Williams, with a descriptive text by Mrs. Williams, is to be published in the autumn by R. H. Russell.

'What We Know of Genesis in the Light of Modern Thought,' by the Rev. Edward Worcester, D.D., of Philadelphia, will appear in the autumn, with the imprint of McClure, Phillips & Co., as will 'The Schools and Society,' by Prof. John Dewey of the University of Chicago.

The Baker & Taylor Company will shortly bring out 'Expansion, under New World-Conditions,' by Josiah Strong; 'The Trusts: What Can We Do with Them? What Can They Do for Us?' by William Miller Collier; 'Short-Story Writing,' by Charles Raymond Barrett; 'The Real David Harum,' by Arthur T. Vance; and 'The Salt-Box House: Eighteenth-Century Life in a New England Hill Town,' by Jane De Forest Shelton.

Mrs. Jane Baldwin, Annapolis, Md., invites subscriptions to 'The Maryland Calendar of Wills'—"a ready, accurate and complete abstract of the wills probated in Maryland from the time of its settlement, 1634, to the American Revolution." The five bound numbers will be sold at $3 singly, or $13.50 for the set, before September 1. The edition will be limited to 300 copies.

Fielding's 'Tom Jones,' in two large volumes of Macmillan's handsome "Library of English Classics," follows the edition of 1750, which was revised by the author, and was reproduced by Murphy in 1762. The present editor, Mr. Pollard, has but a slender bibliographical tale to relate of a work which attained popularity on the instant.

War, which, to the superficial, appears to make demands only on the able-bodied patriot, begins by aggravating the ills of the most needy classes in the community. Sir Henry Burdett, in the preface to his authoritative manual and directory styled 'Burdett's Hospitals and Charities' for 1900 (London: The Scientific Press; New York; Scribners), speaks of the diversion to the South African war-fund of charitable moneys that were counted upon for hospitals. The London institutions, which need annually $750,000 in donations, have found them "almost ceased of late." This is the eleventh year of publication of an admirable yearbook.

The jubilee of Sir George Gabriel Stokes, Bart., has been commemorated by the publication of a volume of 'Memoirs' presented to the Cambridge Philosophical Society on that occasion. It opens with an account of the proceedings at the formal celebration of the jubilee by the University of Cambridge, including a list of the institutions represented and of the delegates. Among the names of persons upon whom was conferred the degree of doctor of science is that of Professor Albert Abraham Michelson.

Following the introductory portion is the Rede lecture, "On the Theory of Luminous Waves: Its Influence on Modern Physics," by Alfred Cornu of Paris. There are memoirs in English, French, and German by Forsyth, Poincaré, Boltzmann, and other eminent mathematicians and physicists. The American contributors are Ernest W. Brown of Haverford College, who writes on "The Solution of a Pair of Simultaneous Linear Differential Equations which Occur in the Lunar Theory," and A. A. Michelson of the University of Chicago, whose paper on the "Échelon Spectroscope" appears to be an uncredited reprint from the Proceedings of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences for November, 1899. A half-tone portrait of Sir George Stokes forms a frontispiece to the book.

On the 29th of June, the faculty of letters of the University of Paris conferred the new degree of Doctor of the University, *summa cum laude*, upon Freeman M. Josselyn jr., A.B., Boston University, '98, being the second American to receive this honor. Advised by the head of the Romance department of Boston University to continue his studies in Paris rather than in Germany, as is customary for American students even when making a specialty of Romance work, Mr. Josselyn at once placed himself under Gaston Paris, Paul Meyer, Antoine Thomas, the Abbé Rousselot, and others hardly less distinguished at the Sorbonne and Collège de France for their scholarship in philology and phonetics. His thesis, 'Étude sur la Phonétique Italienne' (Paris: Albert Fontemoing), consists of 175 large octavo pages, with 232 photographic reproductions of vowel and consonant tests made upon an aluminum cylinder revolving by clockwork, and is a distinct contribution to the subject of experimental phonetics in general, and in particular as applied to Italian. The tongue positions are most accurately shown by means of a large number of cuts reproducing experiments made with the artificial palate, along the same lines as the well-known ones made by Prof. Grandgent in his 'German and English Sounds.' With the exception of the Abbé Rousselot's work in 'La Parole' and 'Les Principes de Phonétique Expérimentale,' no such thorough analysis of experimental methods has as yet been published. At the last meeting of the Board of Trustees of Boston University, Mr. Josselyn was appointed instructor in Romance languages in that institution.

In 1895 Dr. Roman Woerner of the University of Munich published an academical dissertation, or, "Habilitations-Schrift," on "Henrik Ibsen's Jugenddramen," in the preface to which he expressed his intention of preparing an elaborate critical biography of the Norwegian dramatist in two volumes. The first of these volumes, entitled 'Henrik Ibsen' (Munich: Beck), and embracing the first forty-five years of the poet's life (1828-1873), has just appeared. In the introduction the author gives a succinct but very satisfactory survey of the development of Norwegian literature, especially since the separation of Norway from Denmark and its union with Sweden in 1814. Even during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, when Norway was politically only a Danish province, the cultivation of Danish literature was promoted chiefly by Norwegians residing in Copenhagen, among whom Holberg, the creator of the modern Danish drama, held the most prominent place. Of Ibsen's immediate predecessors, Welhaven, Wergeland, and his highly gifted sister, Camilla Collett, a brilliant novelist and pioneer in the advocacy of woman's rights, were the most eminent and influential representatives of Scandinavian letters. Dr. Woerner's work is not so much a biographical sketch as a critical study, into which the events of Ibsen's life are skilfully woven. The present volume contains keen and comprehensive analyses of a dozen plays, beginning with "Catiline" and ending with "Emperor and Galilean." The concluding chapter, on "Ibsen's Language and Poems," is extremely interesting from a philological, as well as from a literary point of view. It traces the evolution and distinct nationalization of Norwegian and its differentiation from Danish, with which it was once almost identical, as the result of political independence, and shows the influence of German on Ibsen's style and phraseology. We have also an excellent appreciation of Ibsen's lyrics, many of which are translated.

Mr. Solberg, Register of Copyrights, has just issued the third Bulletin of his office, entitled 'Copyright Enactments, 1783-1900.' This is a very convenient conspectus, going back to the Copyright Resolution of the Colonial Congress, May 2, 1783, which had been anticipated (as an injunction to the States to secure copyright to authors and publishers) by Connecticut with its act of January, 1783. Massachusetts followed suit on March 17, Maryland April 23, etc. Rhode Island copied the Massachusetts act verbatim, even to the preamble. This collection embraces further the Presidential proclamations regarding international copyright.

A more than local serviceability attaches to the new "Finding-List of Genealogies and Town and Local Histories containing Family Records in the Public Library of the City of Boston.' This is the third state of the list published by the Library in October, 1891, as elaborated by the late Arthur M. Knapp and lastly by Miss Agnes C. Doyle; and a further enlargement is contemplated. The present list fills eighty pages in bold display.

The June number of the Bulletin of the New York Public Library continues its publication of Letters and Papers of Andrew Jackson, whose illiteracy and literary incapacity give him a prime distinction among our Presidents. The examples of this in the Bulletin's selection are very amusing. One sentiment in a letter to Major W. B. Lewis, dated March 31, 1824, is as sound as it is now old-fashioned: "I have no doubt if I was to travel to Boston where I have been invited that it would insure my election—But this I cannot do—I would feel degraded the ballance of my life- If I ever fill that office it must be the free choice of the people—I can then say I am the President of the Nation- and my acts shall comport with that character." These be hard sayings for McKinley-Hanna or for Bryan. And again, to the same, January 21, 1825: "I therefore at present can give you no information with regard to the result of the election of President, one thing you will believe, that I will have no agency in unions, combinations, or intrigue to get there."

Mr. J. Henry Lea's "Genealogical Gleanings among the English Archives," now in course of publication in the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register*, are wholly occupied in the July issue with the family of William Penn, and "considerably enlarge and correct the pedigree as hitherto known." An English genealogist, Mr. William Ferguson Irvine, supplies an entry from the parish register of Warrington which may possiby record the marriage of the parents of the Rev. Richard Mather.

In pursuance of research in early abolition history, Miss Alice Dana Adams has traced as far as possible complete sets of (a) the Minutes of the twenty-one sessions of the American Convention for Promoting the Abolition of Slavery, etc. (1794-1829), and (b) Benjamin Lundy's paper, the *Genius of Universal Emancipation*. In no one place does she find all together, but as a convenience to fellow-students and for further aid in turning up the third volume of the *Genius* (June, 1823-October, 1824), nowhere discovered, Miss Adams prints her lists, with whereabouts, in the July number of the *American Historical Review*. Her address is No. 93 Hancock Street, Auburndale, Mass.

The "Boxer" Society is described by Mr. L. J. Davies, in the *National Geographic Magazine* (Washington) for July, apparently from information derived from Chinese sources. The organization is divided into local "ying," or encampments, which meet regularly for drill, the recitation of incantations, and the initiation of new members. If the rules are strictly obeyed, the members become invulnerable, according to the popular belief, against bullets and knives. "Several intelligent Chinese have told me that they had themselves seen advanced members of the society strike different parts of their bodies with sharp knives and swords, with no more effect upon the skin than is produced by the wind." If any are killed, it is because they have broken the rules, as, for instance, by eating certain proscribed articles of food. Mr. W. E. Curtis concludes his account of his South American trip by sketches of some of the peculiar features of the cities of Cuzco and La Paz. A curious village scene was that of a row of ten or twelve women squatting in a churchyard facing an equal number of surly looking men. "Between the two was a rude cross, held upright by a few stones laid against its base and trimmed with artificial flowers." The men "were charged by their wives with drunkenness, abuse, neglect, and improvidence, and the village priest would hear the evidence, render judgment, and administer correction the next morning at eight o'clock"; the correction consisting of a beating for the worst offenders, and various forms of penance for the others.

Milton's "two-handed engine at the door," in his 'Lycidas,' is plainly enough a sword, and the allusion can hardly be said to be relieved of its obscurity by citation of a possible source of the image. A correspondent in the *Athenæum* of June 30 compares a passage from Sylvester's Du Bartas (1621), which describes the effective "two-hand sword" of

> "A sacred Fencer 'gainst the Assyrians sent"

by the Almighty; there being a marginal reference to the smiting of the camp of the Assyrians in 2 Kings xix. 35.

Dr. Otto Braun, who died at Munich on June 10, was one of the twenty-four literary men portrayed in Paul Heyse's 'Das litterarische München,' and for nearly a score of years a prominent figure in the intellectual and social life of the Bavarian capital. He was born at Cassel, August 1, 1824, and devoted himself at first to the study of law and afterwards to that of history and literature in the Universities of Bonn, Heidelberg, and Marburg. As a student, he took an active part in the Revolution of 1848 in Hessia, where this movement was strongly provoked and greatly needed. In 1850 he was forced into exile by the return of the reactionary party to power, and spent several years alternately in Paris and Madrid. In 1860 he joined the editorial staff of the Augsburg *Allgemeine Zeitung* (transferred to Munich in 1882), and was editor-in-chief of this influential journal from 1869 to 1889. His tastes and talents led him to give special attention to the *Beilage* (literary and scientific supplement), which he brought to a remarkable degree of perfection and continued to conduct till 1891. Since that date he had edited the *Musenalmanach*, published by Cotta in Stuttgart, a revival of the famous annual issued by Schiller from 1796 to 1801. Dr. Braun was an ardent lover of Spanish literature, and his volume of poems, entitled 'Aus Allerlei Tonarten,' of which a second enlarged edition appeared in 1898, consists in part of excellent translations from the Spanish. His villa in Munich he bequeathed to the Schillerstiftung for the benefit of needy authors.

—*Harper's* for July has an illustrated article on "English War-Correspondents in South Africa," by Fred. A. McKenzie. Of these, Mr. Steevens was, perhaps, the only one who attained any professional distinction. Mr. Winston Spencer Churchill "added greatly to his laurels," but then his laurels are not purely literary; he is a politico-social figure, besides being a soldier, and "already one hears mutterings from young men, tired of the older political parties, who look to him to lead them in a new political movement." Neither of those two represents the latest type, which is hard to describe, but which is well known. It is hit off here as the man-ready-to-start. He has two outfits, ready either for high or for low latitudes, both of which are kept packed. If there is to be a coronation, say, in St. Petersburg in the middle of the winter, and his employer wires him, "Go to St. Petersburg," he wires to his faithful wife or housekeeper, "Cold bag; Charing Cross, twelve o'clock." If, on the other hand, the "trouble" is in South Africa, he wires, "Hot bag," instead of cold bag, and enters upon his mission. To this it should be added—and anybody may verify the statement by reading what he writes—that in nine cases out of ten besides energy in locomotion, willingness to take risks, and fluency, no moral or intellectual equipment whatever is required of him. Publishers, it is said, are wondering why "khaki" literature has fallen so flat. One reason is that good reading cannot be produced in this way, and yet the war correspondent is only the exaggerated type of a lately evolved species of magazine and newspaper writers, who possess the art of working up subjects to order at a moment's notice. In the same number of the magazine is a second instalment of "A Journey to the Abyssinian Capital," by Capt. M. S. Wellby. Outside the pictorial illustrations, there is almost nothing in it that adds to our knowledge of Abyssinia; tons of stuff of the same weight and texture appear in the magazines about out-of-the-way places, all the year round. James Buckham's two pages on "Nonhygienic Gymnastics" are worth reading, as is "To-day's Science in Europe: Prof. Ernest Haeckel and the New Zoölogy," by Dr. Henry Smith Williams. In the latter the writer justly says that the question "why" either man or the Pithecanthropus "evolved at all" is as yet unsettled by the new zoölogy.

—*Scribner's* leading article is on "The Slave Trade in America," the first of a series of papers by John R. Spears, with illustrations by Walter Appleton Clark. Mr. Spears shows historically that the slave trade, as it originally existed in Africa, was a mild and humane commerce compared with what the white man made of it in two or three generations. As soon as it became apparent—towards the middle of the last century—that the West India market for slaves was a steadily increasing one, the white slavers (who had hitherto been unwilling to do more than incite the natives to bring in slaves, of whom they were assumed to have the right to dispose) began themselves to organize slave-catching raids. In these the whites developed a really extraordinary capacity for treachery and crime of the most revolting character. It is a horrible chapter in the story of human greed, and worth retelling from time to time, "lest we forget." A noticeable article on "Trees," by Frank French, is accompanied by interesting illustrations drawn and engraved by the writer. The paper which will, perhaps, attract most attention is Senator Hoar's "Harvard College Fifty-eight Years Ago," which contains sketches of many noted men—Professor Channing, Dr. Walker, Dr. Beck, "Old Quin," Professor Sophocles, and others, with some good anecdotes. Oddly enough, the writer declares his opinion to be that the one member of his class (and it contained a good many men of distinction) whose fame will last to "remote posterity" is Walter Mitchell, author of the poem, "Tacking Ship off Fire Island." The article is interesting as a picture of the college in the period just before the present, when it was more or less a type of the American college as it had existed for a hundred years, when it was still a denominational institution, and electives were not, and freshmen were boys of fourteen. It is amusing to read that in that day the professors did nothing to "encourage familiarity," or even to encourage any request for assistance in study. "Indeed, a boy who did that fell into disfavor with his companions, and was called a fish."

—Richard Whiteing's articles on "The Paris of To-day" appearing in the Century, are, it may be presumed, to come out as a book. No one could fail to find in them something to arouse his attention or add to his stock of information. It is, of course, France seen through Anglo-Saxon eyes; but then, no Anglo-Saxon will ever see it by means of any other species of eye. In "Artistic Paris," Mr. Whiteing gives his account of the serious side of a life of which a somewhat different view is to be obtained in 'Trilby.' What he insists upon is that, in Paris, art is a profession, a guild, to which one who enters upon it devotes himself as with us to law or medicine. "A lad who goes to school at the London Royal Academy goes for his teaching and no more. He still follows his earlier way of life and his social traditions, and his day's work is only one of the things of the day." On the other hand, a lad who enters the Beaux-Arts, at once belongs to a students' corps. "He is a new man. The tomfooleries of the reception by the class—so often described—have still a meaning. It is not merely that the freshman has to sing a song by order, to do the meanest 'chores,' and generally to make an ass of himself. The real purpose is to take the nonsense of mere individualism out of him, and to make him feel that, hereafter, he belongs to a fraternity." Mr. Whiteing also discusses literary art as practised in Paris, and draws an amusing parallel between the English (and American) "gentleman" and the French ideal of the perfect writer. We have bothered our heads, it seems, from Chesterfield to Thackeray, with the perfection of conduct; troubling ourselves but little with literary art; while the French, in the same period, indifferent to character, have been perfecting a theory of style. "Our greatest stress of admiration lies in the domain of manners; theirs in the domain of the arts." We all know that a gentleman is full of consideration for others, a foe to violence of opinion or expression, an enemy, at the same time, of restraint, suspicion, gloom, or resentment. He is merciful, gentle, and tender; avoids unseasonable allusions or topics; never makes himself prominent in conversation, and suppresses his own egotism. He makes light of favors which he does, and seems to receive while he confers. He is scrupulous in imputing motives, never mean or little; never takes unfair advantage, and never mistakes personalities or abuse for argument. Such is our ideal character. It is an almost complete analogue of the French ideal of style. This is what the Academy preaches; for the preservation of this tradition, among others, the Academy exists. The tragedy of French letters is, however, "that the balanced man has gone out of fashion, and that the shifting, wayward million has come into the judgment-seat. These law-givers of an hour, careless of what is true, ever demand something new, and the popular writer prefers a first place in the meanest village to a second in Rome itself." Hence, realists, naturalists, and "naturists," and decadents, and symbolists, and a host of other ephemeridæ; but the Academy still stands, and maintains the style and tradition of true art.

—The *Atlantic* contains Mr. Cleveland's second and apparently final instalment of "The Independence of the Executive." He has shown how the Senatorial encroachments of the Johnsonian period were followed, in his own time, by the "expurgation of the last vestige of statutory sanction" to such encroachments. The papers are good as far as they go, but need to be supplemented by a survey of other periods. We have seen, within the last four years, a resurgence of Senatorial arrogance, and to a certain extent an abdication of executive function with regard to the appointing power; though, of course, the encroachments made during the struggle between Johnson and Congress differed from those which have been seen since in the fact that, in the reconstruction period, there was a deliberate attempt to make them permanent by statutory means. Even to-day, a really vigorous man in the White House might restore the office to its pristine dignity and importance. Prof. Lewis E. Gates writes about "Impressionism and Appreciation," and exhibits his views of modern criticism of literature. It appears that the history of literary criticism, from Addison's day to our own, is, if viewed in one way, "the history of the ever-increasing refinement of the critic's sensorium." It is the history "of the critic's increasing sensitiveness to delicate shades of spiritual experience in his reaction on literature"; and, finally, it is the history of "a growing tendency on the part of the critic to value, above all else, his own intimate relation to this or that piece of literature"—a tendency that more and more takes the form of prizing the fleeting mood, "the passing poignant moment of enjoyment in the presence of art"—"until at last certain modern critics refuse, on principle, to feel twice alike about the same poem." So far have we travelled since Addison's time, and indeed since day before yesterday; for, in the light of impressionism, what was poor Matthew Arnold with his canons of criticism, and his insistence on "seeing the thing as it is," but a dullard? He who once highly resolves never to feel twice alike about the same poem, has indeed solved the riddle of criticism. Mr. Howells is at his best in "A Difficult Case."

—Dr. James MacKinnon claims for his 'History of Edward III.' (Longmans) "the merit of a conscientious study of the materials bearing on this important period of English history." He even goes further: "I shall be disappointed if the critic does not agree with me that the work may claim to be an independent contribution to the history of Edward III." In support of his plea for consideration, he points to the footnotes where references to Rymer's 'Fœdera,' various volumes of the Rolls Series, the principal French chroniclers, Villani, etc., shine forth in great brilliance and profusion. We shall not deny Dr. MacKinnon the merit of having read widely during the period of preparation, but when he comes to writing, he is afflicted by a touch of jauntiness which is undeniably irritating. Were his book originally published in New York, more than one English review would condemn it for abuse of the English language after the fashion usual with Americans. As it is, we can only say that the style often approaches more nearly to slang than we should expect a professed work of erudition, published in Great Britain, to do. "The Bishop of Lincoln did a roaring business"; "it was a good dodge"; "renewed inward risible shakings"; "had John Bull [*passim*] resolutely brought down his fist"—such expressions are constantly used in the hope of lightening the text. With the same view to picturesqueness, the exclamation mark is profusely employed, and on p. 614, where Dr. MacKinnon quotes an opinion of Hallam on fourteenth-century chivalry, three notes of interjection are put in line one after another. Altogether, on pp. 614-15, six of these signs of excitement appear. We may mention one or two other irregularities, or inconsistencies, which become apparent at the first reading. While we admit the difficulty of being rigidly consistent in the spelling of European proper names, the following *mélange* of forms on the same page, 105, seems singular: "Ludwig of Bavaria . . . the electorates of Cologne, Treves, and Maintz." On p. 461 the same person is styled "Abbé de Clugny" and, a little lower down, "Abbot of Clugny." Many things show that Dr. MacKinnon has a facile pen, but "easy writing" has been properly estimated in a celebrated epigram. Regarding this work from the standpoint of serious history, we may state that it is almost wholly a narrative of events in which the relations of England with Scotland and France occupy the prominent place. Despite the array of footnotes, it could not have been an arduous work to complete. It is a useful account of the reign, based for the most part on the chroniclers; but it hardly justifies the tone which the author takes in the first paragraph of his preface.

—'Die Renaissance in Florenz und Rom,' by Karl Brandi (Leipzig: Teubner; New York: Lemcke & Buechner), is a neatly printed book containing eight essays—four on the early Renaissance at Florence, and four on the Renaissance in its full maturity at Rome. Though popular in form, these studies are the productions of a scholar who knows the writings of Burckhardt, Voigt, and Gaspary (besides something of their sources), and of a critic who has followed the development of Italian art, historically, through all its phases from Giotto to Michelangelo. The treatment is largely biographical, for the author never loses sight of the individual master when discussing the part of the great movement with which he is connected. The central idea is, that the Renaissance can be best understood through a knowledge of its manifestations at the two capitals which, by common consent, stand forth most prominently in the intellectual life of Italy during the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. In his Florentine chapters Herr Brandi takes up Dante and the End of the Middle Ages, Florentine Society and Humanism, the Artists of the Fifteenth Century, and the Sway of the Medici. The Roman topics are the Principality of the Popes, Raphael, Michelangelo, and the End of the Renaissance. The characteristic feature of the book is a method which involves the presentation of many important points as well as persons, with a consequent compression of what is said concerning each. A large number of the really important subjects are considered in a way which is both clear and brief without being bald. We have nothing in English of a corresponding nature, and it would be well if we had—an introduction to the Renaissance which should condescend to give some distinct statements of fact, yet contrive to reach a higher level than that of the ordinary manual. Herr Brandi has written a book which no beginner would find difficulty in mastering, and which readers of Symonds and Pater could not call hackneyed. Lacking a volume of similar stamp in our own language, we should be pleased to see a translation of these lucid and attractive essays.

PALGRAVE'S DICTIONARY OF POLITICAL ECONOMY.

Dictionary of Political Economy. Edited by R. H. Inglis Palgrave, F. R. S. Macmillan & Co. Vol. I. A-E. 1894, pp. xv, 800. Vol. II. F-M. 1896, pp. xvi, 848. Vol. III. N-Z. 1899, pp. xxii, 762.

The completion of Mr. Palgrave's arduous undertaking, the successive stages of which have been noticed from time to time in these columns, presents a convenient occasion for a general survey of the work and for some account of its scope and character. This is the more desirable because, owing to the piecemeal method of its publication, it may perhaps not at first secure the success which it unquestionably deserves.

Mr. Palgrave's Dictionary is one of the most interesting evidences of that revival of economic studies in England which marked the beginning of the decade just come to an end. It was in 1890 that the British Economic Association was founded; and if this has done little more than support the *Economic Journal*, it has thereby performed a most useful service. It was in that same year that Mr. Palgrave, known among economists hitherto chiefly for his writings on banking, set about creating for English readers an economic encyclopædia worthy to be placed by the side of those of Conrad and Chailley. Dictionaries of this sort must always be somewhat unsatisfactory; the articles can hardly fail to bear the marks of writing to order; and statistics and bibliographies soon become antiquated. And yet they may be helpful for a good many years to several distinct classes of readers; and that which bears Mr. Palgrave's name is certainly in some respects more valuable than those of his French and German rivals.

For purposes of comparison we may quickly put on one side the 'Nouveau Dictionnaire' of Say and Chailley. That is avowedly the manifesto of a school, "a small group of collaborateurs united in a common doctrine," of whom "none has written a word without having come to an agreement with the editors as to the main outlines of his teaching." Unity might be strength, were it not that "the common doctrine" suffers from the incurable superficiality of thought, the invincible satisfaction with a narrow range of ideas and information, which have gone far to destroy the influence of the *Journal des Économistes* and the circle associated with it. Conrad's 'Handwörterbuch' is far more scholarly in its execution as well as more catholic in its contents, and this last in spite of the allotment of the article Political Economy to Professor Gustav Schmoller, the leader of the historical school. In these respects the German and the English dictionaries stand on the same level. The prevailing tone in Conrad, indeed, is that of the German historical school; the prevailing tone in Palgrave is that of what—simply for convenience—we may call the moderate orthodox English tradition, as it is represented by such a writer as Professor Marshall. Mr. Marshall, it is true, has not himself contributed to Palgrave's pages, but his influence is evident in several of the younger men who have written here, especially, of course, in the theoretical articles, as, for instance, that by Mr. Johnson on Supply and Demand.

Mathematical economics, though they have scarcely any vogue in England, are treated with great respect, partly, no doubt, because they do but attempt to formulate and carry further, by the use of a special organon, the customary method of deduction from a few abstract premises; partly because of the part Professor Edgeworth has himself taken in the preparation of the Dictionary. One of the most noticeable features of the book is the series of articles by Professor Edgeworth on Cournot, Dupont, Gossen, and Fleeming Jenkin, and on Curves, Functions, and Mathematical Method. But the historical economists are treated with kindliness, and even permitted to contribute an occasional article. They are shown their proper place with unmistakable emphasis by more than one of their collaborateurs; and a singular error is frequently imputed to them, namely, that "the mere accumulation of economic facts constitutes political economy" (iii., 556). Still, the policy of the Dictionary is to be scrupulously fair, and on the whole it succeeds in its purpose of "enabling the student to understand the position of economic thought at the present time."

If we may continue to compare it with Conrad's 'Handwörterbuch,' we may next notice that, in spite of its far more restricted space, it contains many more articles. Thus, even the new edition of Conrad has only 122 entries under A, while Palgrave has 206. The larger number is brought about, partly by the splitting up of many of the main rubrics of economic treatises into a number of separate topics; partly by the inclusion of a group of articles on legal subjects and on matters of political theory; partly by the addition of a series of definitions of terms used in business, such as Average (maritime) or Charter party, or occurring in historical treatises. Of necessity, then, the articles are much briefer than in Conrad; and, as a result, the work remains truer to its name of Dictionary, and does not become, as Conrad's volumes tend to do, a series of monographs. And although not a few of the entries are open to criticism, if for no other reason than that no one would think of looking for them—as, for instance, Facts, Forethought, Habit, Good for Trade, Observation, Optimism, and Pessimism on the side of theory, and such trivialities as Churchseed and Fish-silver on the side of history—still, the number and brevity of the articles will make the Dictionary a very handy work of reference for the shelves of every economist and financier.

It is, perhaps, an open question in what way disputed questions of theory should be handled. Most of those under the earlier letters are from the pen of Professor Nicholson of Edinburgh; those under the later are mostly by younger men, and show the growing influence of Professor Marshall's treatise. It may, however, be urged that, in a work of this kind, it is fair to give one view without any indication of opposing theories only when that view is practically in possession of the field among competent economists. This is a rule pretty consistently observed in these volumes; it is the greater pity, therefore, that the article on Distribution, Law of, from the pen of an American economist, Prof. J. B. Clark, should be confined to a brief exposition of Professor Clark's own views. And while we are referring to questions of theory, attention may be called to the curious circumstance that, in spite of the constant affirmation throughout the Dictionary of the prime importance of theoretical inquiries, it does not contain any article on the theory of wages beyond an historical and critical account of the wage-fund doctrine. This is probably a mere oversight, but we can imagine an historical economist making merry over it.

There are many excellent articles on social history, including some contributed by Professor Maitland, and careful and sober articles on fundamental institutions, like Property, many of them by Professor Montague. Indeed, there is good reading of many sorts. But the scholar will find the chief excellence of the Dictionary in another and rather unexpected direction, and that is, in the series of biographical articles. Of some of them, especially on the minor figures, the preparation has involved a good deal of original investigation, with the not unnatural result, under a lenient editor, that the text has sometimes been burdened with details and references quite out of place in such a work. Others, again, are broadly planned surveys of great writers, some of whom find themselves for the first time treated seriously as having influenced economic thought. As none of the indices, including the elaborate topical one at the end of the third volume, assign the articles to their several writers, it may be well to give a list in this place of the more considerable pieces of work of a biographical-critical character. The judgments expressed are sometimes of doubtful validity, and a common fault is to exaggerate the importance of individuals through sheer ignorance of the contemporary environment. But all the articles in the following list possess merit of one sort or another.

Professor Edgeworth, then, besides those already mentioned, furnishes articles on James Mill and John Stuart Mill (with an analysis of the latter's 'Principles' and a running commentary); Mr. James Bonar on Babbage, Bentham, Chalmers, Cobbett, Comte and English Political Economy, Hermann, Hegel, Kant, Locke, Malthus (19 columns), and Adam Smith (with an elaborate analysis of the 'Wealth of Nations,' occupying 18 columns of minute type); Professor Ritchie of St. Andrews on Aristotle, Grotius, Locke, Plato, and Savigny; Professor Gide of Montpellier on Roman Catholic School of Political Economy, French School, Proudhon, J. B. Say, St. Simon, and Vauban. Dr. Ingram of Dublin besides a number of brief notices of minor German writers which are practically transcripts from Roscher, writes on Lassalle, List, Marx, Positivism, Rodbertus, Stein (Freiherr vom), Steuart, and Thompson; the late Professor Dunbar of Harvard on Carey, Dana Horton, and Francis Walker (the last an exemplary article in substance and form; *O, si sic omnes!*); Professor Oncken of Berne on Iselin, Mauvillon, and Roscher; Professor Ashley of Harvard on Aquinas, Rowland Hill, Historical School of Economists, Luther, Oresme, and Vives; M. Castelot on Gournay, Pufendorf, Rümelin, Spanish School of Political Economy, and Uztariz; Mr. J. D. Rogers on Owen, Tucker, Swift (an attempt to justify his 'Drapier's Letters'), Temple, and Violet; Professor Montague of University College, London, on Hobbes, Toynbee, and Tocqueville; Professor Lindsay of Philadelphia on Hildebrand, Soetbeer, and Amasa Walker; Miss Foley (Mrs. Rhŷs-Davids) on Rousseau and Vanderlint; Mr. Henry Higgs on Cantillon, Le Play, Mirabeau, Turgot; Dr. Bauer of Vienna on Barbon, Cantillon, and *Ephémérides;* Mr. H. E. Egerton on Hume, Leclaire, Maurice, Senior, and Whately. The following writers contribute one biographical article apiece worth mentioning here: Mr. Crump of the Record Office on Fustel de Coulanges; Professor Dewey of Boston on Hamilton; Miss Dixon on Massie; Dr. Devine of Philadelphia on Daniel Webster; Professor Gonner of Liverpool on Ricardo; Professor Greven of Leyden on Dutch School of Economists; Professor Hewins on Mun; Miss Law on Lord Sheffield; Mr. Keynes of Cambridge on Cairnes; Professor Loridi of Padua on Italian School of Economists; Miss McArthur of Cambridge on Charles Kingsley; Professor Miklachewsky of Kharhoff on Russian School of Political Economy; Professor Nicholson of Edinburgh on his predecessor, Hodgson; Mr. A. L. Smith of Balliol on Yarranton; Mr. Sanger on Leon Walras (the one living economist admitted), and Mr. Wicksteed on Jevons. To Mr. Palgrave himself we are probably indebted for the estimate of Bagehot and for the elaborate footnote on Whewell; some of the shorter footnotes, also apparently due to the editor, might, however, have been omitted with slight loss. It will have been observed that many of the names in this list are of foreign scholars, and the articles contributed by Professors Dunbar, Gide, and Oncken are especially workmanlike. The same can hardly be said of the biographical notices by M. Courtois, "formerly Secrétaire Perpétuel de la Société d'Économie Politique de Paris," who seems to have set himself to justify the strictures of his countryman, M. Gide, on the Parisian economists. He cannot write the briefest notice without sermonizing and without measuring his subject by the yard-measure of orthodoxy. His article on Wolowski, however, is a useful statement.

As the above list shows, American scholarship is well represented in the Dictionary. Besides the articles already enumerated, attention may be called to those of the late President Walker on Money (17 columns); of Professor Mayo-Smith on Immigration, Statistical Method, Wages, Statistics of (in America), and Workmen's Budgets (in America); of Professor Taussig on Inflation in the U. S., and Stationary State; of Professor Jenks on Homestead Laws, Local Government in the U. S., and Monopolies; of Professor Lindsay on Latin Union, Monetary Conferences, Precious Metals, Prices, and Silver; of Mr. Graham Brooks on State Insurance in Germany; of President Hadley on the Interstate Commerce Law; Professor Seligman on Graduated Taxation; and Professor Andrews on the Land System in the American Colonies.

Enough has been said to show the very real value of this Dictionary—the worthy result of Mr. Palgrave's assiduous employment of all the leisure he could spare from the duties of a country banker for a period of twelve years; persisted in in spite of many obstacles, and, in these latter years, as a solace in the midst of grief. It would be possible to say a good deal of the unevenness of the work, and of various little defects in editorial art. But most of these are the results of Mr. Palgrave's (possibly excessive) urbanity and patience. The work is in most respects—and especially as a tool for the constant handling of the scholar—so signally successful, and, where it is deficient, its defects are so largely those of the contemporary English and American scholarship which it reflects, that the reviewer does not feel inclined to conclude with anything but an expression of gratitude.

Boys and Men: A Story of Life at Yale. By Richard Holbrook. Scribners.

Smith College Stories. By Josephine D. Daskam. Scribners.

Kate Wetherill: An Earth Comedy. By Jennette Lee. The Century Co.

A Friend of Cæsar: A Tale of the Fall of the Roman Republic. By William Stearns Davis. The Macmillan Co.

Mr. Holbrook's 'Boys and Men' is a clumsy effort to foist a love plot on a study of manners, with the help of a narrative style lacking in finish and certainty. As a consequence, readers who do not find the matter uninteresting are likely to find the manner intensely so, and a few unhappy mortals will be repelled by both. There seems to be no lack, however, of good intent on the author's part. He tried to deal out even-handed justice to all sides and aspects of Yale life and character. Logically, indeed, his work might be described as an attempt at complete enumeration, with all the pitfalls and dangers incident to that method of demonstration. But the incidents lack reality, the characters lack the one touch of nature, and the whole lacks the nameless grace that we call, for want of a better term, literary quality. A certain coarseness, too, flavors the whole book, making itself most painfully felt, not in characterisation, nor even in efforts at dramatic effect, but in passages of description.

Miss Daskam's title is a misnomer, its preface is misleading; for the stories are not simple, and they are not about Smith College. If, indeed, it be possible that there is in the world of fact or fiction a place satisfactorily known as Smith, these or any other stories might find a suitable setting there. A college by common consent is an educational institution; it has a faculty, a course of study, aims, purposes, discipline, and ideals. These are the background of the happenings we are pleased to call stories of the collegiate type. In Miss Daskam's book they are all conspicuous by their absence. There is always in evidence a swarming, excited, and exciting crowd of young women, low-shoed and shirtwaisted, intent on "making" clubs, elections, societies, successes of all sorts, except the academic, and desperately sensitive to the criticism of everybody except the faculty or officers of government. These are some three or four times incidentally referred to as the natural butts of student wit, the pivot of a clever epigram, or the casual reference for a low-spirited estimate of faculty intelligence and integrity. As studies in local color, allowing for this fundamental inaccuracy, the stories fall into three classes—such as might have happened anywhere, such as might have happened at "Smith's," and such as could have happened nowhere. It is only fair to the business interests of the author to leave her readers to make their own assignment to these classes.

For the rest, the stories have a certain rhetorical tang and go, due to a clever manipulation of verbal associations, quite the reverse of the simplicity promised in the preface. The intending reader may be sure of interest that will keep him expectant until he possibly sees through the illusion so elaborately constructed for him, or more likely comes to the end of the collection and drops the volume into the list and limbo of books for summer reading. And yet we are told that this prophet is not without honor in her own country, that her picture is accepted by graduates and students of Smith College as a truthful and, above all, a sane one. We fancy, however, that none of them would maintain that this is the book they are looking for about any woman's college, still less about their own. In avoiding some undesirable features in her picture, the author has unquestionably omitted some capital and essential ones.

The little red book of scant two hundred pages, 'Kate Wetherill,' is not content with the paraphrased allusion of its double title to Dante's poem. It is in three parts, headed Hell, Purgatory, and Paradise, and it quotes from the epistle to Can Grande in justification of its matter and manner. This use of Dante, not to mention an unacknowledged quotation from Browning, is quite unjustified by anything in the story. At least we were forthwith impelled to wonder why the author had not advertised her wares by reference to Milton, and cited for their interpretation passages from the 'Areopagitica' and the tractate on Divorce. Kate Wetherill would certainly have gone far to explain the grounds of Milton's most extreme theories on divorce, while certain passages of the 'Areopagitica' can always be depended on to divert attention from a particular book to books in general. But the honest reader must come to the book itself after all the references, comments, and dedications; and when he asks himself what he has before him, he will, if he is one of the plain people, probably say, a very disagreeable story about very disagreeable and very strange persons. If he is one of the custom-made readers of modern literature, he may call it strong; and if he is, without fear or favor, simply a story-reader, he will complain that the plot broke down in the middle and left him with a pathological study of nervous prostration for all his consolation. The more observant critic of literary method shares all these experiences by turns, and adds to them a keen consciousness of several other equally curious and conflicting motives appearing and disappearing in the book like the nervous rabbit of a prestidigitator's show. The pathological interest of the latter part of the story perhaps accounts for the use made of bedroom scenery in the opening. Indeed, since 'Robert Elsmere,' we remember no such strain on bedroom manners. Mrs. Ward, it is true, left them hardly more than a suggestion of the night side of the human spirit. Mrs. Lee has accepted all the implications of clayey tabernacles, and wrung the last drop of disgust out of a snore.

There is no reason why Greek and Roman life should not furnish the material for a large amount of fascinating fiction. If we have but few really great works in this field, the explanation is to be sought not in the poverty of the field itself, but in the fact that so few great writers have cared adequately to master the resources at hand. It can hardly be said that the famous 'Quo Vadis' displayed a complete mastery of its materials, but it had sensational elements of a nature to insure success in the market entirely apart from its fidelity to the canons either of historical truth or of literary art. Mr. Davis, to judge by his 'Friend of Cæsar,' is apparently not fully aware that the novel cannot take the place of the 'Classical Dictionary,' even with the aid of an elaborate outfit of footnotes. His love story, which is really good, would have run the race for popularity with better chance of success if its feet had not been thus encumbered; and the body of the work, too, might well have been lightened by the omission of much that apparently owes its insertion rather to a desire to furnish useful knowledge of classical antiquities than to its essential relation to the story. Some of the more animated scenes are admirably done, though the style of the book as a whole cannot be said to possess any marked degree of excellence. Of well-known historical characters presented, Cæsar is the most prominent, but Mr. Davis's conception of him cannot, for a moment, be considered as a genuine picture of the Cæsar who has come down to us in Roman history and literature. Mr. Davis blunders in no slight degree in supposing it necessary occasionally to halt and apologize for his really noble pagan characters, because they do not act as consistent Christians would have acted under similar circumstances. The reader who is not liberal enough to make due allowance for himself in such cases will hardly be propitiated by the author's special pleading. There is one passage in the book which should gain for it an honored place on the shelves of the White House. It is where Cæsar is made to say, "I have slain a hundred thousand men in Gaul. Cruel? No, for, had they lived, the great designs which the deity wills to accomplish in that country could not be executed!" Mr. Davis is young, and most of the flaws in his work are of such a nature as might readily yield to study and experience. He may yet do distinguished work in the classical field, and we hope that he will not abandon it after a single trial.

The Practice of Typography: A Treatise on the Processes of Type-making, &c. By Theodore Low De Vinne. The Century Co. 1900. 12mo, pp. 403.

The close of the century is a peculiarly fit time for a survey of the present state of the printer's art, something in the manner of Moxon's 'Mechanick Exercises,' so admirably edited by Mr. De Vinne. But there is no time in which an intelligent and would-be cultivated person ought not to welcome the present book. It is small, compact, a triumph of mechanical skill, and abundantly attractive to the eye. The information it conveys is lucidly stated in the fewest possible words. The subject is one as to which much ignorance and small curiosity prevail, even among the educated, and even in respect to the larger features of the craft. It would be pedantic to exact that one should know the ten names of the parts of a type-letter (p. 29); but what type are, in appearance, size, and composition, and how they are made, ought to be common knowledge—all the more because of the comparatively small changes in processes since the art began.

Having learned that the type-body is about an inch long, one may easily be induced to read in Mr. De Vinne's volume (p. 131) that, more exactly, the American standard "height to paper" is eleven-twelfths of an inch; and so nearly in accord with the English standard that English type can be mingled with those from American foundries, whereas French, German, and Russian type are higher, and importation and use of them are practically cut off. And if the international comparison attracts, there is the further particular of manufacture (p. 31) that the "nick" or transverse groove in the shank or body of the type is in front in American, English, and German type, at the back in French. Then there are tables (pp. 54-56) showing the names of the several classes of type in various countries, with "paragon" and "nonpareil" alone identical everywhere. "Pica," "long-primer," "brevier," point to an origin in ecclesiastical printing; "bourgeois" is perhaps named from the French city of Bourges (p. 66). But the names of the letter-face do not, in the latitude of the founder, coincide invariably with those of the body of the type; and this leads up to the nice matter of ordination of bodies by "points," the French Fournier leading off. His "point" or unit of vertical facial dimension was substantially that now adopted by the United States Type Founders' Association, viz., .0351+ centimetres, whereas Ambroise Firmin-Didot's substitute for Fournier is .0376+ (p. 155). The Association in question based its point on the "pica" of one of its members, the MacKellar, Smiths & Jordan Co., and Mr. De Vinne, in a footnote (*ibid.*), makes it appear probable that this firm, by inheriting Franklin's type-founding tools derived from Fournier, was instrumental in establishing here the latter's standard "point." More comprehensible to the average reader wholly unfamiliar with the technics of the printing-office are such items as that one hundred small type may be cast in a minute (p. 22); that "a large octavo page of long-primer type weighs about ten pounds, and its types are worth about three dollars" (p. 40); that a "font" (or unit of assortment) of new type, when "set out" (*i. e.*, set to the point of falling short of some character), shows about one-third of its weight remaining unused in the "case" (p. 168); and that one reason why type-founders in their specimen-books so long reproduced Cicero's Catilinian *Quousque tandem* passage was, "that Latin, as compared with English, had an excess of small and a deficiency of ascending and descending letters," so that the Latin text "had a more symmetrical look and an evener line than could be produced from an English text" (p. 44). And here is a typographic argument, which might well be heeded by Gutenberg's countrymen, in favor of the universal adoption of the Latin character (p. 185):

> "With italic capitals and italic lower-case added, there are five series in every complete font of our selected [Roman] text-letter. This is a peculiarity not found in any other literary character. The older form of orientals have one series only; the modern forms of Greek, German, and Russian have but two. The capitals of German are too complex to be used alone as a display letter for titles or headings. Emphasis or display in German is made in the text either by hair-spacing the emphatic words, or by the use of an entirely different font of thick-faced letter. The poverty of all other alphabets in single or double series is in marked contrast with the affluence of the five correlated series of the roman alphabet, which enable the writer or printer to make emphasis, display, or distinction without change of size or the violation of typographical propriety. The judicious alternation of capitals, small capitals, italic, and lower-case makes printed matter readable and rememberable."

We are still far from having disclosed the full interest of Mr. De Vinne's manual. There are two main divisions, one the exemplification of the sizes of type by a most ingenious method; the history of printing and type-founding being related in gradually diminishing fonts, and closing with a very laborious and valuable chronicle of American type-foundries. Similarly, in a detailed examination of types of modern face, are intercalated framed biographies of noted printers, engravers, press-makers, and founders. The way in which all this has been fitted to the printed page is a marvel of editorial and mechanical accommoda-[illegible]. An admirable index makes this mass [illegible] istory and biography completely available, besides unlocking the other parts of the treasury. Those who know Mr. De Vinne's views as to the hair-line will expect to meet here, *passim*, with his *Delenda est*; and his book cannot fail to draw to his side, at least for book work (job and fancy work being a law to itself), designers and founders who, with a due regard for readers' eyes and for the printer's pocket, will strive to produce characters legible to old and young, and capable of enduring the batter of handling and press-work.

Travels in England. By Richard Le Gallienne. John Lane. 1900.

This is a far more profitable book than Mr. Le Gallienne has been wont to write. The account of a leisurely journey through a lovely region, lightened with comment upon architecture, antiquities, and books suggested by each stopping-place, must give many people pleasure. A very well-selected and original itinerary this was, too; a ramble among seldom-named villages, once loved of good authors. Selborne, of course, is sacred to Gilbert White; Liphook charmed Pater and Cobbett; and (in spite of Shakspere) Stratford keeps a place for Washington Irving. At Winchester lie Izaak Walton and Jane Austen; at Hursley, John Keble; at Salisbury, Richard Jefferies, and here lived Massinger, Addison, and Fielding. Here, too, was first printed the 'Vicar of Wakefield'; and near by is Sarum, for whose use was instituted the famous "Ordinal of Offices," that became the English prayer-book. A piety like that which led our traveller to these places, took him to Winterslow because it had been the home of Hazlitt; to Bemerton for the sake of George Herbert; to Lechlade because Shelley once went boating thither; and to Kelmscott and Market-Drayton in remembrance of William Morris and Lord De Tabley. In his selection of natural scenery, Mr. Le Gallienne is equally particular, preferring the Cotswolds, the Rivers Test and Itchen, the Roman remains at Cirencester, and the Druidical ruins of Avebury to places more celebrated or grandiose. In short, the book is, for the most part, pleasant, entertaining, and even instructive, if imparting to the reader a desire to make this journey and to read again in those authors be any test.

Mr. Le Gallienne seems torn between a natural good sense and an acquired preciosity. For example, he heartily admires Irving's simplicity, and quotes at length from the 'Sketch-Book'; but adds, apologetically, "I suppose M. Huysmans and such virtuosi of the one inevitable word would think small beer of such writing." He quotes from Walton's 'Lives' a beautiful anecdote of Herbert, and is capable, himself, of writing as kindly and fitting an allusion as this to Richard Cromwell, "one of the meekest" and unhappiest of men:

> "Above Richard Cromwell's vault is a large memorial tablet erected by an aged spinster daughter, and crowded with many names. As one reads these names, one grows to forget a public incompetency, in the pathos of a succession of domestic sorrows—the pathos of frustrated fatherhood; for most of these names belong to tiny children, some barely a year old, some mere breaths that came and went without a name. One can say no more of Richard, Protector, after this—one can only remember the little coffins."

But our author is not always so well balanced. Sarah Bernhardt's play-acting at Stratford is not a curious and incongruous thing to him, but a subject for rhapsody. "Of a sudden the wonder was enacting. She had bloomed in the doorway, half orchid and half queen; . . . once long ago men and women had watched Cleopatra like that." Mr. Le Gallienne would do well to forsake Huysmans for Irving altogether. He is a saner model and withal much more English.

A History of Sanskrit Literature. By Arthur A. Macdonell, M.A., Ph.D. D. Appleton & Co. 1900. [Literatures of the World, edited by Edmund Gosse.]

There are three standard histories of Sanskrit literature—Müller's, which is out of print and limited to one period; Weber's, which is caviare to the vulgar; and L. von Schröder's, which is an excellent amplification of Weber's, but is not translated into English. To these more or less incomplete and inaccessible works is now added, by a competent hand, an excellent condensed sketch of the whole of Sanskrit literature. Professor Macdonell is already favorably known through his 'Vedic Mythology' in Bühler's "Grundriss," and the present volume shows the same careful and conservative attitude which was exhibited in his earlier book.

After a general sketch of the language and its dialects, including a paragraph on Vedic accent, the author takes up first the religious literature of the Vedic hymns, with a supplementary chapter on the *Realien* of the period, and then continues down the whole course of the literature, with occasional translations in illustration of the various periods, completing the work with a brief account of the relation between India and the West after Alexander's conquest. Owing to the nature of the literature, much of the first part of the volume is almost identical with the matter furnished by previous histories of Indian religions, but this was unavoidable. In regard to recent attempts to overthrow existing estimates of the dates of the Vedic and epic literature, the chief bones of contention to Sanskrit scholars to-day, Professor Macdonell's view is extremely reasonable. He rightly says that the whole argument of those who maintain with Professor Jacobi that the Vedic period goes back to 4000 B. C., is invalidated by the assumption of a doubtful interpretation, which forms the starting-point of the theory. As for Dahlmann's absurd calculation of the date of the epic, it is dismissed with the remark that it is irreconcilable with the data of the poem and is not likely to find support among scholars. It is refreshing to find a sober-minded thinker who is not carried off his feet by either of these seductive theories.

It would have been better, perhaps, had Professor Macdonell made plainer his own position in regard to the relative age of the two Sanskrit epics. It is scarcely possible to believe that the Râmâyana was composed without reference to a Sanskrit grammar, for one of the characters is said to speak Sanskrit like a priest, and another is praised because he had "studied grammar, and delivered a long speech without committing a single verbal mistake" (*apacabditam*). The dictum that the Râmâyana is the "earliest epic of importance conforming to the rules of poetics" (p. 303), should be modified by the addition that in this regard it stands exactly on a par with the latest parts of the Mahâbhârata. The remark on p. 307 that the Āryâ metre is not found in the Sanskrit epics, appears to have been simply copied from Jacobi, who has twice published the same incorrect statement. A minor lapse on the part of the author is discovered by combining two sentences on pp. 150 and 166, from which it would appear that riding on horseback was unknown in the Vedic age, but "was at least known to the Rigveda." Apart, however, from these slight faults, easily to be mended in the new edition which the book deserves, this volume is worthy of all praise. It handles with sufficient independence a long and intricate development, and affords a clear and concise survey of the whole of Sanskrit (including Vedic) literature. For the general public it gives the best available history of the subject.

The Theory and Practice of Taxation. By David Ames Wells. D. Appleton & Co. 1900.

The connection of Mr. Wells with the fiscal department of the Government of the United States was without a parallel in its history. Morris and Hamilton, it is true, did much to reëstablish our credit, and to develop some kind of a system of national taxation; but their labors were necessarily limited by considerations of expediency, and they were continually interfered with by Congress. Mr. Wells, on the other hand. not only had almost autocratic power given him, but he had also an opportunity to apply it in accordance with economic principles. The burden of taxation at the close of the civil war was enormous. Taxes had been added to taxes without any comprehension on the part of Congress of the results that would follow, and only the patriotic fervor of the country prevented the system from breaking down of its own weight. The situation at last became intolerable. Congress, which had been incompetent to construct a scientific fiscal systam, was equally incompetent to reform the abuses which it had established. It was, however, by this time aware of its incompetency, and was eager to comply with the popular demand for relief. President Lincoln, fortunately, was a judge of men, and, discerning Mr. Wells's capacity, he insisted on putting the whole matter of fiscal reform in his hands.

It is not improbable that the satisfactory results of intrusting the conduct of the war to the discretion of a single commander may have influenced Congress; at all events, it readily acceded to President Lincoln's proposal. For four years Mr. Wells practically had absolute control of the internal revenue of the Government. Within that period he entirely reconstructed the system. He brought order out of chaos. Hundreds of vexatious taxes were abolished, and the collection of those which remained was so simplified as to produce far more revenue with less inconvenience to the people. The principle that low taxes are more productive than high ones was never more strikingly exemplified. The story of the tax on distilled spirits will always remain one of the most remarkable chapters in the fiscal experience not only of this country, but of all countries. It has apparently passed out of the mind of the public and of legislators; but it is well that it should be set forth, as it is here, by the man who understood it most thoroughly. Even more forgotten is Mr. Wells's part in elaborating a scientific system of tariff revenue, which failed of adoption by a mere chance. It is impossible not to read of this lost opportunity without the most bitter regret. It has never returned, nor is there now any sign that it will return. But had the step then been taken, it is difficult to set any limits to the gain that our country would have made. The mere reduction of taxes would have been an inestimable relief to industry; but that would have been the least of the benefits. We should have been fairly started in the direction of free trade, and our Government might have been saved from falling into the hands of a sordid plutocracy.

These reflections may not seem altogether appropriate in a review of a treatise of this kind; but, in truth, Mr. Wells's book belongs to a past era. He died only yesterday, but the present generation of economists knew him not. He would have commanded the regard of Sully and Turgot, of Adam Smith and Peel and Gladstone; but the ideals which these men upheld are not the ideals of to-day. The distinction is not recognized, but it is of vast importance. To put it roughly, the ideal system of taxation, according to the school to which Mr. Wells belonged, is that under which the revenue of the State is obtained with the least possible expense and inconvenience to its subjects. In the opinion of the modern school, taxation should be so managed as to compel the subjects to contribute in proportion to their abilities. It is not improbable that even those who are aware of this distinction do not admit that it amounts to a repugnancy, and Mr. Wells himself does not explicitly announce it. Nevertheless, the two ideals are fundamentally opposed, and a large part of this book is taken up with arguments that prove the fundamental nature of the opposition. We may add that, in our opinion, these arguments overwhelmingly prove the case of Mr. Wells and his school, and demonstrate the hopelessness of the attempts to realize the ideals to which modern economists have committed themselves. Perhaps the best illustration of this point will be found in Mr. Wells's examination of the income tax, which he hated as heartily as did Mr. Gladstone. He shows that such a tax puts a handicap on the scrupulous, encourages corruption, is expensive to collect, and, if permanent, gradually diffuses itself over the community, so that those who pay it to the Government may more than reimburse themselves.

We cannot deny, however, that Mr. Wells carried the theory of the diffusion of taxes to an extreme. He was never willing to admit that a peculiar law existed in the case of the rent of land, and laid it down that landlords could compel their tenants to share the burden of taxes on land. It may be said that modern economists have disclosed the truth that the rent of land is but a species of an extensive genus. The economic world being full of monopoly or scarcity values, some writers would frame the system of taxation accordingly. But these unearned riches are as yet so imperfectly defined as not to be fit subjects of taxation, at least to anything like the same extent as the rent of land. With that exception, therefore, the principle of the diffusion of taxes is valid, and, as Mr. Wells shows, if that principle is admitted, all attempts to fasten taxes on the particular persons supposed to be best able to pay them will be futile. The expense of collecting such taxes is invariably very great, and thus the cost of trying to make the rich relieve the poor of their burdens may eventually come back, with the burdens, upon the shoulders of the class meant to be relieved.

Probably the most thoroughly elaborated portion of this work is that which relates to the taxation of intangible personal property, and to the phenomena of double taxation in general. Here Mr. Wells was on his own ground, and showed that singular mastery of fact which made his arguments so convincing. Indeed, it would be proper to extend to his work John Mill's explanation of Adam Smith's success—the combination of lucid statement of theory with apt illustration. The same qualities appear in his examination of taxes imposed for other purposes than that of revenue, and of the principles of taxation under a free government. These chapters breathe the free spirit of the best English traditions in recognizing the liberties of the subject as of supreme importance. No one has stated more emphatically than Mr. Wells the necessity of taxes, nor has any one so well shown how governments may so lay taxes as to derive abundant revenue therefrom; but no one has more clearly demonstrated the truth that a free people strengthens and enriches a government, while despotic methods corrupt and impoverish both rulers and subjects.

The chapters relating to taxation in early times in other countries are the least valuable, and their matter is to a considerable extent a mere compilation at second hand. But we are not inclined to dwell on this or on some other serious defects in the work, remembering the circumstances under which it was written. Mr. Wells was under sentence of death before he fairly began this treatise, and the sentence was executed before he completed it. He might have lived longer had he ceased working; but he preferred to die in harness. In view of this, we are inclined to dwell on the merits of his final labors rather than on their imperfections, and these merits are so great as to justify this course. No American citizen can fail to profit by the careful study of these pages; no citizen, we might almost say, is qualified for the proper discharge of his political duties without mastering the principles here expounded. We could wish that Mr. Wells had left a monument more worthy, in its finish, of his splendid abilities; but it is sufficient to remind his countrymen of the debt of gratitude which they owe to their only great minister of finance.

La Vie Américaine; L'Éducation et la Société. By Paul de Rousiers. Paris: Firmin-Didot & Cie.

Not every foreigner who writes a book on American life is as thorough in his efforts to know whereof he writes as M. de Rousiers. He makes no boast of his thoroughness, nor does he reveal his itinerary, but it would be hard to find any section of the country, or any important phase of American life, with which he has not brought himself into personal contact. He has seen the American prize-fight, much to his disgust. He thinks it too brutal for a Frenchman of the nineteenth century, though he tries to excuse it to a certain extent as a possible preparation for the rigorous life of the ranch or the farm. He has attended the fashionable balls of New York, "a marvellous exhibition of flowers, diamonds, and dress—an ostentatious display rather than a pleasure," and he has seen the village dance in the Far West, where tireless couples whirled to the discordant rhythm of a mediocre and equally tireless orchestra, dancing as if they had a set task to accomplish, and suggesting to him the reflection that the love for the dance which can sustain such an exercise must be a very ardent love indeed. He has studied the question of domestic service, and in the absence of a servant class content to remain in that position he finds the prime cause of many things which seem strange to the European visitor. In the West, for instance, he could never feel quite sure whether a young woman answering the ring of the door-bell was a servant, a nursery-maid, or the lady of the house, and was occasionally obliged to display a somewhat hypocritical gush of affection for the little one clinging at her side to atone for a wrong solution of the problem. In New York and Brooklyn, in turn, he finds in the same inability to get servants and keep them a leading cause of the prevalent "boarding-house habit," and, through that habit, of the tendency towards childless marriages. In the West, he concludes, people console themselves with the sacrifice of social formality to the lack of service, in the East they sacrifice the *home*. With the habit of *chewing*—tobacco everywhere in the mouths of men, gum in the mouths of girls and women—he is intensely disgusted, and small wonder.

The feature of American education which appeals to him most forcibly is the fact that the American child is educated with a view to a general adaptability to circumstances, not for a career definitely marked out in advance. The average American pupil in a school of given grade, he thinks, has a better knowledge of the subjects taught than the average French pupil of the same grade, not from better teaching, which he does not find to exist, but from the increased ardor and power of initiative in the American boy or girl. The freedom of the American girl, of course, forces itself upon his attention, but he feels perfectly assured that her habits are suited to her environment, and that the evils which would certainly result from a similar freedom in France are not found here. He takes pains to assure his countrymen that the conduct of a certain class of American girls in Paris is not representative of American society as a whole. The business success of the American people lies in their marvellous resiliency, their power of initiative, their active, creative personal energy. Throw the American business man down, and he is on his feet again at once, striving to regain his position, with no stigma because of his fall so long as he does not lie on his back and wait for some one else to help him up. In this energy and adaptability, M. de Rousiers finds the bond that makes of our population a single people, in spite of the numerous race elements which enter into its composition. If it is not this spirit that has led the foreigner to our shores, or if it does not take possession of him upon his arrival, at any rate it will make the real American of his children.

He probes the sores of our political machinery with unerring touch, but predicts a vorable outcome for the patient on the eral ground of his strong vitality and recuperative energy. The contrast between the decisiveness of character manifested in great crises by the last incumbent of the Presidential chair, and the halting inconsistency of its present occupant, has not escaped his notice, and he agrees with the reported opinion of our ex-Minister to Spain that the Cuban war could have been avoided and the independence of Cuba secured through peaceful diplomacy. He has penetrated the wickedness of Tammany to the bottom, and he is correctly apprised of the relation of the Platt-Tracy mayoralty episode to the present elevation of Tammany. Such minor movements as those of "Toledo Jones" and Hazen S. Pingree have not escaped him, though for some reason or other the Apostle of the Strenuous Life finds no place in his book. On the religious side, he finds an unusual respect for sacred things, a general acceptance of the Bible as in some way an inspired revelation, but a lack, after all, in active interest. He probably overestimates the proportion of men among us who have no church membership, but he does not make the mistake of concluding that those who are not members of some church are necessarily devoid of religious belief. A sincere Catholic himself, he naturally gives careful attention to the condition and prospects of American Catholicism. As between the reactionary party, led by men still under the sway of European habits of thought, and the branch of the Church which has caught the real American spirit, his sympathies are wholly with the latter. To it, in his opinion, belongs the future, and it is a future which has gifts of great worth in store, not merely for Americans, but for the people of the Old World in their own homes as well.

On the whole, M. de Rousiers has done a good service. If he has painted us "warts and all," he has done it with a kindly hand, and in a way sure to entertain and instruct any intelligent reader, whether French or American. It will be remembered that he has already published a volume on American 'Ranches, Farms, and Factories.' We know not how much demand might be found for his work in translation, but there is no risk in the assertion that its wide reading in this country would be of great value.

Sir Archibald Campbell of Inverneill, sometime Prisoner of War in the Jail at Concord, Massachusetts. By Charles H. Walcott. Illustrated. Boston. 8vo, pp. 62.

Mr. Walcott has had the good fortune to strike an episode in the history of the Revolutionary War not before exploited, and the ability to make an interesting account of a deserving officer. It seems that in April, 1776, the Seventy-first Regiment, Highlanders, embarked at Greenock for Boston, for service as needed. Simon Fraser, M.P., was Colonel, with Sir William Erskine and Archibald Campbell as Lieutenant-Colonels, and Robert Menzies, Macdonnell, and Lamont as Majors. The regiment was loaded on seven transports, lightly armed, and arrived at Boston June 16. With providential stupidity, the English, who had evacuated the town on March 17, had neglected to notify the home authorities or to leave any cruisers off the port. The Americans were more judicious, and had four privateers ready, who skirmished with the convoy. Reinforced by the brig *Defence*, of sixteen carriage-guns and twenty swivels, and a schooner of eight carriage-guns and twelve swivels, the provincials attacked the little English fleet, which twice ran aground; and, having been fired upon from a land battery at Nantasket Roads, the commander concluded that "there could hardly be any friends of ours at Boston." After a sharp combat of an hour and a half, the British had expended every shot they had for their cannon, and surrendered to the jubilant Americans on honorable terms.

This success was something of an elephant for the Massachusetts authorities, unprovided with proper places for the confinement of prisoners not criminals. Lieut.-Col. Campbell and seven other officers were sent to Reading, and the rank and file scattered in squads. In December, 1776, the capture of our Gen. Charles Lee by the British made a great change in matters. The refusal to exchange him, and the threat to send him to England for trial as a rebel, led to orders to retaliate upon Lieut.-Col. Campbell. He was accordingly sent to the jail in Concord for safe keeping, and treated as a criminal instead of a prisoner of war. His manly protests are here printed, directed to the State authorities and to Gen. Washington. The latter stands out in fine colors, but, as he states, he could not overrule the orders of a civilian Congress. The treatment of the prisoner was only slowly alleviated, and, though never really cruel, is a proof of the incapacity of a committee of Congress to deal with military affairs. While Lee, a captive at New York, was handsomely treated by his British captors, allowed whatever diet he chose, with friends to dine with him daily, Col. Campbell was only allowed the freedom of the jailor's house. At last, in May, 1778, Campbell was exchanged for Col. Ethan Allen, after two years' captivity.

Archibald (Lieut.-Col.) Campbell, second son of James Campbell of Inverneill, Chamberlain of Argyll, and Hereditary Usher of the White Rod for Scotland, was born August 21, 1739, and in 1776 had already seen considerable service in the corps of engineers, serving in Bengal in 1767. As soon as he was released from captivity, he was put in command at New York of a force of some 3,500 men, including his Seventy-first Highlanders, and dispatched against Savannah. He arrived there December 23, and, without waiting for the arrival of his nominal chief, Gen. Prevost, Campbell proceeded to capture the colony. Returning home on leave of absence, in June, 1779, he married Amelia, daughter of Allan Ramsay, the painter, and granddaughter of the poet. In December, 1779, he was made Lieutenant-Governor of Jamaica, with the rank of Brigadier-General, and in 1782 he became Governor of the island and Major-General. In March, 1785, Campbell was made Governor of Madras, and a K.B. In 1786 he was made Commander-in-Chief of the forces on the coast of Coromandel, but was not able to satisfy the demands of his nominal employers, the East India Company. In 1789 he resigned and sailed for home with impaired health. He was again elected to Parliament, but died March 31, 1791, aged fifty-one years, leaving a widow but no children. His brothers erected a monument to his memory in the Poets' Corner of Westminster Abbey, and two portraits, presumably by Ramsay, engraved for this memoir, have preserved his likeness. The family estate seems to have passed to his nephew, Capt. James

Campbell, and is now possessed by Lieut.-Col. Duncan Campbell.

We have felt impelled to make this brief sketch of a gallant foe as a sort of reparation for the unfair treatment which he received in the flesh. It is just to say that what befell him was mainly due to the ignorance of our ancestors as to the proper treatment of prisoners of war, and not to intentional malice. This interesting little essay is additionally embellished with an interesting portrait of Lady Campbell, a view of Inverneill House, and a drawing of the old jail at Concord, said to be the work of Col. Campbell.

Theory of Differential Equations. By Andrew Russell Forsyth. Cambridge: At the University Press; New York: Macmillan. 8vo. Vol. I., 1890, pp. 340; Vol. II., 1900, pp. 344; Vol. III., 1900, pp. 391.

The previous 'Treatise on Differential Equations' (Macmillan, 1885) of Prof. Forsyth, now Cayley's successor in Cambridge, presented the subject in an elementary way, suitable for a beginner. The present work is addressed to such as have at least a thorough elementary knowledge of the subject, and invites the attention of all who have penetrated more deeply into it. It does not, perhaps, display as much high talent as Émile Picard's treatise (which, of course, is of a different nature); but the thoroughness with which the substance of the memoirs has been worked over, quietly improved in many places, and set before the reader in a compact and easily read form, can be known only to those who will put themselves to the trouble of making the comparisons. The reader is everywhere referred to the greater memoirs, as well as to any other presentations of the several branches of the subject that may have been found specially luminous by Prof. Forsyth. Lesser papers, even in cases where they add something material, are, for the most part, passed by. For example, at the end of chapter ii. of volume ii., which is devoted to Cauchy's existence-theorem, there are fifteen references to thirteen different memoirs and treatises. Among these, of course, figures the classical work of Madame Kovalevsky; but the connected investigations of Delassus are not mentioned, nor does his name appear in the index. It is true that these, like Madame Kovalevsky's, relate mainly to partial differential equations, and are thus, in a formal view, foreign to the subject in hand. But then, would not the whole question of the existence of integrals have been advantageously set forth, at least in its outlines, connectedly?

This brings us to remark that the arrangement of Prof. Forsyth's matter seems to have been determined by the circumstance that such and such a part was ready for publication. Certainly, it was most desirable that as soon as any division of the work was ready it should be set before the mathematical world at once; nor do we intend to imply that the selection of parts to be prepared was a random one. Volume i. treats of total equations and mainly of Pfaff's problem; volumes ii. and iii., of ordinary equations not linear. Now, on the principle of treating the general before the special, it was certainly desirable to place Pfaffians thus early; and with them a great part of the subject of partial differential equations. But a considerable part of the latter subject remains, and unless Prof. Forsyth returns to it, will remain, unconsidered. There is also room for doubt as to whether it was expedient to postpone ordinary linear equations to equations not linear. However, no arrangement could have been adopted that would clean up the whole matter to be disposed of at one systematic sweep. There must inevitably be considerable odds and ends requiring a subsequent gleaning. The author proposes to treat ordinary linear equations in "an additional volume." A complete collection of all that has been contributed to that subject would make a library exceeding the entire impedimenta of many an able mathematician; and as to its being compressed into one volume, a doubt may be permitted. So, considering how much else remains over, we may hope that two, if not three, volumes are yet to be added to this admirable and beneficent work.

This is not the place to consider it more in detail; but seeing that the doctrine of differential equations is one of the most practical of the branches of mathematics, which every young man who aspires to apply exact principles to the affairs of life more than his predecessors have done, has to know at least as well as he knows how to spell, we will point out to beginners the advantage there now is in seeking their first introduction to this discipline at the hands of Forsyth's 'Treatise,' since his 'Theory' is now at hand to supplement it in directions in which they may desire to push their studies further. A better practical mastery of differential equations can be attained by beginning with Forsyth's 'Treatise,' followed by his 'Theory,' than by the aid of Jordan, Königsberger, or any other extant guide. It is a lucid and delightful work, and has the advantage of offering a careful selection of those exercises for the student which are much more needed here than in other equally advanced branches of mathematics, for the reason that there is no perfect calculus enabling one to tilt at a differential equation like a knight in armor. Strategy and experience are nowhere more demanded.

Thomas Hariot, the Mathematician, the Philosopher, and the Scholar, developed chiefly from dormant materials, with notices of his Associates, including Biographical and Bibliographical Disquisitions upon the materials of the History of 'Ould Virginia.' By Henry Stevens of Vermont, F.S.A., Student of American History, Bibliographer, and Lover of Books. London: Privately printed. 1900. [Edition of 195 copies.]

In 1877, the late Henry Stevens, to whose zeal and liberality students of American history owe so large a debt, projected an association to be called the Hercules Club, whose object was to discover and print or reprint, with conscientious editing, rare manuscripts, books, and pamphlets of importance to Anglo-American history. The name chosen is explained by the declaration in the prospectus of their intention "to scour the plain and endeavor to rid it of some of the many literary, historical, chronological, geographical, and other monstrous errors, hydras, and public nuisances that infest it." Mr. Stevens, as Secretary, undertook to edit and carry through the press ten works originally published in the years 1588-1628. The other members of the association were less energetic, and Mr. Stevens was left to do the work virtually single-handed.

The book which he first undertook was the oldest on the list, Thomas Hariot's 'Brief and True Report of the New-Found Land of Virginia,' printed in London in 1588, of which but seven copies are known to exist. The investigations which his editorial care involved disclosed so much new material relating to Hariot and to Raleigh that Mr. Stevens determined to embody this in a separate volume. On the death of Mr. Stevens in 1886, his son and literary executor, Mr. Henry N. Stevens, took up the task of completing his father's unfinished work. He found that Hariot's 'Virginia' and the Life of Hariot were practically complete, most of the sheets having been printed off, and the rest of the matter still standing in type at the Chiswick Press, where it had slept for fourteen years. The edition was necessarily a limited one, and this it is that now sees the light in exquisite miniature quartos which are gems of bookmaking, and a tasteful memorial of a man whose memory is endeared to two hemispheres.

For the incidents of the life of Virginia's earliest historian, as also for a carefully sifted account of Raleigh's efforts at colonization, we must refer our readers to the book itself. Hariot was an intimate friend of Raleigh almost from his boyhood, was a member of his first Virginia expedition of 1585, and, after his return, was his almost inseparable companion. During Raleigh's long imprisonment in the Tower, Hariot was his means for communicating with the outside world. With another state prisoner Hariot was also in confidential relations—the great and unfortunate Earl of Northumberland, who placed his library and astronomical instruments at his disposal. For Hariot was not merely a literary man; he was one of the most eminent mathematicians and astronomers of his age. He was, according to Mr. Stevens, "as great an astronomer as Galileo." Sir William Lower, the astronomer, in a letter to Hariot dated June 21, 1610 (here cited in full), begs the latter to send him more of these "cylinders [telescopes]"; and relates how "with my cylinder last winter I often observed" certain stars in Orion, and also "the seven stars in Taurus," which, "through my cylinder, I saw plainlie and far asunder." In another letter of February 6, 1610-11, Lower acknowledges the receipt of another "perspective cylinder," and mentions his observations with it. These letters make it plain that at least as early as 1609 Hariot was making telescopes, using them for astronomical observations, and furnishing them to others. The books date the first astronomical use of the telescope by Galileo in 1610, so that Mr. Stevens's claim of priority for Hariot seems to be justified. Hariot was one of Keppler's correspondents. Furthermore, he discovered improved methods in algebra, and was recognized as an equal by the greatest mathematicians of the time. He died in 1621, and was buried in the heart of London, in the little churchyard of St. Christopher, now surrounded by the Bank of England.

While a book-collector may rejoice in being the fortunate possessor of one of the copies of this delightful reprint, the present reviewer must express a regret that a work of such interest cannot have a wider circulation.

McKinley. He did expose the wickedness and folly of a policy of bloodshed and conquest in the Philippines; but he never went so far as to say that he would not vote to keep in power the Administration which maintained this policy. He showed with impressive eloquence that this policy was ruinous to our country, hostile to our traditions, and fatal to the cause of popular government. In converting our republic into an empire, it extinguished the last hope of mankind, and, according to his description, nothing more unprincipled, more wantonly wicked, could be imagined. But he now blandly denominates this policy a "mistake," and fancies that the Republicans show signs of being sorry for it. When he talks of the Democrats, he is not so tender in his choice of words. He does not call the rebellion of the Southern States a mistake, but a crime; slavery was a crime, and the Democrats have attempted the crime of debauching the currency. The ethical distinction between a mistake and a crime, according to Senator Hoar, depends on a party distinction. A wrong act done by one party is a mistake; done by the other party it is a crime. George Washington and the Convention over which he presided made a mistake, Senator Hoar says, when they provided for the return of fugitive slaves to their masters; but the Constitution should not therefore be denounced as "a covenant with death and an agreement with hell." But what view are fugitive slaves and struggling Filipinos to take of such "mistakes"? If they call them crimes, is their language "harsh"? And what fundamental "mistake" is going to make Senator Hoar a come-outer from his party, if denying the right of man to self-government in the Philippines will not?

The delay in procuring the extradition of Neely, the postal official accused of embezzlement in Cuba, shows the difficulty of the position which the United States Government occupies in that island. Congress explicitly declared that the people of Cuba were free and independent, and in the treaty with Spain great care was taken that our sovereignty should not be asserted. At the same time the sovereignty of Spain was totally extinguished. Since sovereignty resides neither in Spain nor in the United States, it would seem to reside in the people of Cuba. But this people has no organized government, and, without such government, sovereignty cannot be recognized at law. It must be embodied in certain human beings before the law can operate. The Administration is fond of dwelling on the appalling consequences of not asserting our own sovereignty in the Philippines, after that of Spain was overthrown. It contends that it was absolutely necessary, in order to prevent anarchy, that sovereignty should be assumed by us, although every one knows that the Filipinos had an organized government, while the Cubans had not. Whether these consequences are appalling or not, we are face to face with them in Cuba. We cannot assert our own sovereignty there, and we will not let the Cubans assert theirs. Under such circumstances, to undertake the extradition of criminals to Cuba is about as difficult as it would be to deliver them to a tribe of Eskimos in Alaska. There is, of course, no treaty with Cuba providing for extradition, nor any Cuban officer to whom delivery can be made. Congress has passed an act, undeniably of an *ex-post-facto* character, providing for extradition; but unless some organized body independent of our Government is prepared to accept that act, it amounts simply to dealing with ourselves. We may call it extradition, but it is evidently nothing but the transfer of an accused person from the jurisdiction of one department of our Government to that of another.

Judge Lacombe's decision on one feature of this case does not go far to clear it up. He held merely that the presentation of an indictment was not sufficient evidence to justify extradition, and his further remarks seem to be *obiter dicta*. He finds it impossible to think that our occupation of Cuba, constitutional in its inception, "may not continue to secure the lives and property of American citizens within that territory." This may be conceded, but it is irrelevant. We cannot get away from the fact that our occupation of Cuba is a military occupation; that whatever government exists there is the creation of our military power; and that the so-called Cuban judges are merely subordinates of our military officers, administering what are called laws, but what are essentially military orders. The system is a system of martial law. Had Neely been caught in Cuba, the Cuban courts might have tried him, and we need not contend now that American citizens cannot be tried by court-martial when they offend against military regulations in a locality where such regulations are supreme. But the question here is whether an American citizen can be seized in this country, where there is no claim that martial law prevails, and sent to a province where our civil laws do not apply, to be tried there by what is practically a military commission. The Milligan case is considered not to be in point by Judge Lacombe, but the principle there established cannot be easily avoided. We do not regard Mr. Neely as the brightest flower of American civilization; but his personality is no reason for abandoning the constitutional safeguards of liberty. It may, however, furnish a good reason for abandoning an inconsistent and illogical position in Cuba; and if his proceedings lead to that result, we shall regard him as an illustration of the maxim that private vices may be public benefits.

Although the Presidential campaign thus far has been rather unenlivening, there are a few indications here and there that the great quadrennial convulsion is at hand. No such pathetic scene, for example, would have been possible at any other time as the reappearance, a few days ago, of the present Commissioner-General of Immigration at the weekly meeting of District Assembly 49 of the Knights of Labor. Mr. Powderly's return to the quarters from which he was forced to beat a somewhat precipitate and undignified retreat, a few years ago, seems to have been in the nature of a penitential pilgrimage. We have a touching picture of him in the act of kissing the charter of the sacred order; and we are informed that, with tears in his eyes, he addressed his former associates, expressing his regrets that he had ever left the organization, and his wishes that he were a member in good standing today. Whether these regrets were shared by his hearers, is not revealed; but it is hardly likely that the present generation of Knights, few of whom have been provided with Government jobs, regarded the eminent backslider with appropriate seriousness. They may have been uncharitable enough to recall that the present Commissioner-General has been credited with entering into a contract with Mr. Hanna to deliver the labor vote to the Republican party for value received. It is true that the Knights of Labor is an insignificant organization now; that it is sadly reduced in numbers, torn with dissensions, and of little influence among workingmen. It is also true that Mr. Powderly was more or less forcibly ejected from its counsels, a number of years ago; and that his unsolicited appearance with the olive branch now may seem slightly indelicate. Still, when the well-salaried places of the Commissioner-General and a host of relatives and personal retainers are at stake, he cannot afford to be over nice; and if a little snivelling will suffice to turn a few votes into the proper channel, why should Mr. Powderly, of all men in the world, hesitate to do his duty?

Bryan's chances do not appear so good anywhere else in the Central West as in Indiana. That State has repeatedly gone Democratic when large Republican majorities were given by its neighbors, and it would not be strange if the same thing should happen again this year. At the same time it would seem only natural that the same influences which operate in Indiana should be felt also in other States in that section. Indeed, there are already signs that Bryan will run decidedly better in Illinois this year than in 1896. A certain proportion of the Gold Democrats are ready to accept him now, though apparently not so large a percentage as in Indiana. But what worries the Republican managers much more is the attitude of the workingmen. The labor troubles in Chicago are not yet settled, and there is a large labor vote which is by no means satisfied with "McKinley prosperity." The chief reliance of the Republicans is upon the German vote. They admit that this element is much disaffected over the Philippine policy of the Administration, but they hope that the free-coinage plank in the Kansas City platform will drive it back to the Republican party.

Republican organs in the East have been a good deal surprised by the statement of Chairman Dick of the Ohio Republican State Committee, that the President's own State must be regarded as doubtful this year, and that the party had better also not regard Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin, and Minnesota as sure States. The majorities for McKinley four years ago were so large in each of these six States, except Indiana, that most Eastern people have considered them certain to go Republican again in 1900, even if the majorities should not be so great. There is plenty of evidence that Bryan has a better standing in that part of the country now than he had at the same stage of the canvass in 1896. In Indiana, for example, a considerable number of the Gold Democrats of four years ago have already declared for Bryan, among them a bank President and the President of the Board of Health of Indianapolis, and two judges in Spencer and Logansport; and a well-informed Indianapolis citizen is of opinion that the bulk of this vote throughout the State will go that way. "The financial plank in the Kansas City platform was a tough dose," says this authority, "but many make themselves believe that it won't amount to anything." Our informant thinks that "the union of all the Bryan elements, Democrats, Populists, free-silver cranks, and 'scalawags' of all kinds, is very complete in Indiana," and that this union now seems likely to poll more votes than McKinley, towards whom a large number of Republicans are indifferent.

That the Republicans are in danger of losing the next House of Representatives is frankly admitted by Chairman Babcock of their Congressional Committee. The Opposition start with the great advantage of about 120 seats from Southern States in which the Republicans make no fight, and thus have two-thirds of a majority from districts which are practically uncontested. They need to pick up only sixty more from the rest of the country in order to control the body. They came so near this in 1898 that changes in eight close districts would have left the Republicans in a minority. In one respect the dominant party is worse off now than it was then. Two years ago the Gold-Standard Act had not been passed, and many Gold Democrats were inclined to support Republican candidates for Congress in order to secure its enactment, while now some of them feel that the assured sound-money majority in the Senate during the next Congress renders the financial attitude of the House less important. On the other hand, the fuller vote which a Presidential contest always brings out is likely to help the Republicans more than the Democrats as a rule.

Were all legally qualified voters to vote in North Carolina, and were their votes to be counted, it is probable that the Republicans would have a majority, and that the amendment to the Constitution which disfranchises the negroes would be rejected. This amendment, it is computed, will deprive 80,000 to 100,000 negroes of the right of suffrage. They certainly will not vote for such an amendment as this, and the whites seem to be determined that they shall not vote against it. Under forms of law, but really under duress, the negroes will thus allow themselves to be disfranchised. Gov. Russell advises the negroes to submit, lest worse befall them; and as large gangs of white men, clad in red shirts and fully armed, are parading up and down the State, and crying "white supremacy," no other course is practicable. Had not the Republican party abandoned its principles regarding the rights of man, such proceedings in the Southern States would make the North "solid"; but any protest it might make would now be answered out of its own mouth.

The Appellate Division of the New York Supreme Court has rendered an important decision in support of the right of labor unions to prevent the employment of laborers to whom they object. The controversy arose between two associations of steam-fitters—the National and the Enterprise. Members of the Enterprise Union went to several buildings on which members of the National Union were working, and procured their discharge by threatening their employers. They told the employers that unless the National men were discharged, not only the Enterprise men, but also the members of other unions allied with them, would quit work. As the employers were yielding to this threat, the National Union obtained an injunction restraining them, which the Appellate Court has now dissolved. The Court observes, in the first place, that every workman has the right to say for whom and with whom he will work. This right is nothing but the constitutional right of free contract. It implies that the right may be exercised from any motive; and, the Court adds, the employer has an equally absolute right to say whom he will employ. It follows from this, that a man may refuse to work for the purpose of inducing his employer to discharge an objectionable fellow-workman. The purpose is not illegal, nor is the method. The Court then proceeds to say that if the individual workman has this right, "he does not lose it when acting with others, clothed with an equal right, so that employers may continue to say they will not employ persons who are members of labor organizations, and laborers may continue to say they will not work for employers who engage any but members of labor organizations." This decision entirely sweeps away whatever vestiges of the old conspiracy legislation, intended to prevent combinations to raise wages, were to be found in this State, and establishes the principle that an association of laborers may do whatever an individual laborer may. It is, of course, entirely inconsistent with the law against combinations in restraint of trade, known as the Anti-Trust Law, which makes it a crime to enter into any agreement that may prevent competition.

The experiment of levying special taxes on department stores is to be tried in Prussia. After the 1st of January, 1901, all merchandise is divided into four classes, and every concern which sells things belonging to more than one of these groups is to pay a graduated tax, provided its sales amount to more than $95,000 per annum, or 400,000 marks, From 400,000 to 450,000 marks, the tax is 4,000 marks. On sales between 950,000 and 1,000,000 marks, the tax is 18,000 marks, and for every additional 100,000 marks the tax is 2,000 marks. Of course this legislation is in the interest of the small shopkeepers, whose customers have found their wants better supplied by the large establishments. Some very amusing suggestions are made by the Minister of Finance in presenting this specimen of protectionism to the favored classes. He tells them that it will depend on them whether the law shall fulfil the benevolent purpose of the State. They will be expected to organize, "with self-helpful motives," such associations as will increase their power to compete with the department stores. The middlemen, "through energetic, intelligent self-help," must now, by means of cheap purchases and profitable sales, secure themselves against the competition of large capital. It does not seem to occur to the Finance Minister that to relieve one class of tradesmen of the competition of another is not to stimulate the former class to rely on their own exertions, but leads them to look for help to the Government. We have tried the experiment for a good many years in this country; but the protected interests always claim that their competitors must be taxed a little more before self-help can be put in effective operation.

REASONS FOR A THIRD TICKET.

Whether a third Presidential ticket will be named by the Gold Democrats or the Anti-Imperialists, or by both in unison, we do not know; but that one should be named we are firmly convinced. The reason lies in the character both of the existing candidates and of the platforms upon which they stand; in the intolerable dilemma confronting thousands of citizens who refuse to make a choice between confessed evils, and who will not vote at all unless a man and principles are offered them; in the need which exists of raising a standard to which honest men can resort at present, and by which they will be prepared to stand in the future.

An extraordinary failure sharply to join issue marks the attitude of the two parties. The crucial thing is silver, cry Republicans in the East; it is not, retort the Democrats, it is Imperialism and Trusts. The issue is 16 to 1, assert Democratic orators in the mining States; not at all, rejoin Republican speakers, it is Expansion, and the flag a business investment. Each party is evidently willing to become all things to all men if by all means it may carry the election. The Republicans proclaim sound principles of finance, but an unsound theory of government. The Democrats assert the historic doctrine of republican government, but would ruin the people who live under it. Neither platform is the true logical contradictory of the other. The poison of one has no separate antidote in the other. Both are deeply unsatisfactory to large numbers of our clearest heads and best lives. If such people are to have a set of political principles which they can support without qualms or quailing, they must draft it for themselves.

At the coming election probably more than two millions and a half of men will cast their first votes for President. These votes will be almost one-sixth of the total number; and as a change of one-twentieth of the votes cast is generally more than sufficient to change the result of a general election, the question how the young voters will exercise their franchise is one of deep interest to the political managers. No very marked change is likely to take place in the habits and prejudices of the older citizens. They will vote in the main for the candidate of the party with which they have been accustomed to act; how their sons will vote is not easily foretold. But how they ought to vote, they will be told by hundreds of advisers, and one of the maxims which the worldly-wise will try to recommend to them is, "Don't throw away your vote." Whoever manifests a disposition to be politically independent, to disregard party lines and regular nominations, is sure to be warned by "prac*tical" men that he is going to waste his strength and his influence if he* votes for any one who is not likely to be elected.

The principle of this advice is simple enough. There are two candidates, one of whom is sure to be elected, and a vote for either of them will contribute to his election. A vote for any other candidate cannot elect him; and as it would have been cast for one of the possibly successful candidates, had it not been cast for one whose success is hopeless, it is in effect a vote against him whose cause it might have aided. The next President, it is now said, will be either McKinley or Bryan; and the only sensible course for the independent voter to follow is to make up his mind which of these two he prefers and to support him. Many of those who urge this course admit that it implies a choice of evils. They confess that they like neither the actual policy of the Republican party, nor the probable policy of the Democratic party; but they insist that as one party or the other will direct the affairs of the country, the good citizen should decide which party will on the whole direct these affairs with the greatest wisdom, or the least folly, and support the candidate presented by that party.

Plausible as this reasoning sounds, it involves a number of fallacies. In the first place, there are many States in which the result of the election is practically as certain as the rising of the sun. The number of independent voters is so small as to be incapable of affecting the result. Every Democrat who casts a vote for Bryan in most of the New England States throws it away; every Republican who casts a vote for McKinley in most of the Southern States does the same. When this is pointed out to those who protest against the folly of throwing away votes, they shift their ground. Ah! they say, you must consider the moral effect. That is exactly what we propose to consider, and it involves the examination of several other contingencies besides the personality of the next President. The moral effect on whom, and on what? Why, if McKinley's vote falls off in New England, it will have a discouraging effect on the Republican party. It may not prevent his election, but it will make the party leaders feel that their tenure of power is uncertain. The reply to this is, that if it is true, it is altogether to be desired. If these leaders believe that they are losing the favor of the people, they may be induced to mend their ways; and perhaps they can be induced by no other consideration.

In the States where the result is certain, therefore, the independent voter may feel that he not only is not throwing away his vote, but is accomplishing all that he can hope to accomplish. He is helping to produce a moral effect which may be ultimately of the greatest advantage to the country. He is manifesting a spirit of discontent which may terrify his rulers and lead them to bring forth fruits meet for repentance. Under every form of government, rulers are on the watch for signs of popular feeling. Every despot trembles when there are indications that his subjects are no longer submissive, and every ruler in a free country will alter his policy when he is convinced that, if he does not, he will be turned out of office. In States of this class, it may be claimed that the most emphatic way to condemn the McKinley Administration is to vote for Bryan. Such a claim is entirely mistaken. Such votes would properly be regarded as indicating approval of Bryan's policy, the last thing which many independent voters could think of approving. To vote for a third candidate is to condemn both policies, and to warn both parties that, unless they are changed, a third party may be called into being that will respect protests against misgovernment.

Still, it may be contended, the case is different in the doubtful States. There the independent voter must admit that, in some States at least, if he votes for a third candidate, he is practically voting for Bryan. But the case is by no means so simple. Regarding it arithmetically, we may assume that the independents have been hitherto attached to the two parties in equal proportions. On this assumption, if they unite on a third candidate, their action would not affect the result, for both parties would lose equally. Regarding actual conditions, we might say that in Kentucky and Maryland and New Jersey the independent voters have been drawn chiefly from the Democratic party. If they do not vote for a third candidate, they may be expected to vote for Bryan. In Michigan and Wisconsin, the independent voters may be drawn from the Republicans, and if they do not have their own candidate they may vote for McKinley. With the new issues, these matters are highly speculative, and those who are proclaiming that a vote for a third candidate is a vote for Bryan are assuming too much. In one State such a vote may be in effect a vote for Bryan; but in another State it may be practically a vote for McKinley.

These arithmetical calculations are of deep interest to the party managers, but they are not decisive with the independent voter. The assertion that it is his duty to choose between two evils, he may meet with a flat negative. He does not admit that the country will be better off under Republican rule than under Democratic rule, because he does not feel sure that it will be. The Democrats may do temporary harm, while the Republicans may do permanent harm. Very few persons, in our judgment; very few intelligent persons, in their own judgment, know what is going to happen to the country. Our statesmen tell us that destiny has taken charge of our government, and that human wisdom and experience furnish us no guidance. There are too many possibilities for certainty to exist. Judgments and opinions neutralize one another; and the number of persons who await the result of the election with a sort of hopeless indifference is surprisingly large. If McKinley is elected, they say, it may deliver us from Bryan and his wearisome policy of repudiation; but if Bryan is elected, the country may be rescued from Imperialism and Militarism. Persons who feel in this way are likely to think their votes may prove to be thrown away, if cast for either of these candidates.

We have touched on this subject only superficially; for the conscientious voter looks more than four years ahead. Worse than the election of McKinley, worse than that of Bryan, would be the extinction of the spirit of independence. The hide-bound partisan, who looks only at the party emblem on his ballot, if we regard the matter rationally, is the man who throws away his vote. It represents no intelligent consideration, no conscientious resolution. We know that parties have been defeated and dissolved in the past, and that new parties have taken their place. These results are due to the course of those who were accused of throwing away their votes. They threw them away for Frémont; but four years later Lincoln was elected. Our material condition may be better if McKinley is elected; but what of the future? If the independent vote is very large this year, will it not render that future far more hopeful? And if it will, who will say that this vote is thrown away?

EUROPEAN AGGRESSIONS IN CHINA.

Whatever the causes of the terrible uprising in China, something has certainly happened for which the outside world was entirely unprepared. The Mantchu Government was supposed to be on its last legs, the military force of the empire contemptible, and national spirit non-existent. All at once the civilized world finds itself face to face with a people in arms. Yet Europe has only herself to thank for the present reaction against foreigners. Heedless of warnings not to push ahead too fast, the various Governments, each fearing to be left behind in the race, have demanded concession after concession, and, by virtue of the authority conferred by ships and guns, have established themselves on Chinese soil.

How much wiser would have been the policy laid down by our own State Department, it is now easy to see. If China had been left alone by the European family of colony-hunters, she would in due time have transformed herself. There was a liberal and enlightened party among her own rulers. The war with Japan had battered down the walls of Chinese exclusion, and opened the country to foreign trade and the introduction of machinery. The race has always been noted for its commercial activity; the Chinaman is one to whom the argument of material advantage appeals with peculiar force. Native laborers flocked into the factories at Shanghai as soon as they were built; foreign railroads and steamships, once introduced, found a large traffic waiting for them. Missionaries and travellers have for many years been penetrating inland, encountering on the whole less race hostility than might have been expected. Too swift change in the case of an old and fixed society is not desirable; it produces convulsions. But if the outsiders had had a little more patience and less greed, China would have found her own road.

The history of the relations between China and Europe during the present century shows a series of aggressions, provoked generally by the fatuousness, pride, and ignorance of Chinese officials, and pressed by powerful and selfish governments able to dictate their own terms. The record begins with the opium war, entered into by England in consequence of the efforts on the part of China to prevent the sale of the drug to her people. This war came to an end with the treaty of Nankin, in 1842, which ceded Hong Kong to England, opened five ports to foreign trade, and promised the payment of a money indemnity. In 1857 England again began hostilities, the immediate cause of the quarrel being the affair of a miserable little boat, Chinese-built, Chinese-manned, and Chinese-owned, but with a British captain and a purchased British register that had expired. After a one-sidedly destructive war, the treaty of Tientsin was concluded; China again paid an indemnity, opened fourteen additional ports, and surrendered to the British more territory at Hong Kong, besides repealing all edicts against Christianity. A period of quiet followed, during which missions and trade were making their peaceful conquests. Peace was broken by the French, who set out in 1882 to develop the colonial field offered by Indo-China, and, after an obstinate war, established their hold on Tonkin, as well as their older claim on Annam. A little later, in 1886, England was allowed to extend her authority over Upper Burma.

But in comparison with what has happened since the war with Japan, all that went before was as nothing. Russia had already advanced to the Pacific, and had for some years been suspected of a willingness to pick up a good naval station at the first chance. Japan, by the treaty of Shimonoseki, signed in 1895, was to receive the Liao-Tung peninsula, with Formosa and the Pescadores, and to be left a free hand in Korea, where China renounced all claim to suzerainty. But Russia had no desire to see a new rival intrenched on the mainland, and, backed by France and Germany, commanded the victor to withdraw from the peninsula in the interests of peace. China wished, if possible, to escape the payment of a heavy money indemnity, knowing that a large foreign debt would mean of necessity foreign interference in her affairs, and tried to offer to Japan as a substitute for Liao-Tung the concession of the Pekin-Tientsin Railway. But this suited Russia no better than the cession of territory. She insisted on a money compensation, and by this expedient drove Japan away and picked up the prize of victory. For China was now, in spite of herself, forced into Russia's open arms. The guarantee of the latter country enabled her to sell the bonds to pay off the war indemnity; and the *quid pro quo* was permission to run the Trans Siberian Railroad through Mantchuria, and to occupy the province for that purpose. This brought Russia to the Great Wall. France rewarded herself for her unsolicited services in the affair by a "rectification" of the frontier line of her colony in the South, and by railroad and commercial concessions. As for Germany, her bill was presented a little later—with interest.

The French advance stirred up England. The consequence was a new Anglo-Chinese convention, signed early in 1897. Another "rectification" took place, this time in Burma. But more important was the opening to foreign navigation of the Yang-tse-Kiang. This was a very valuable privilege, in view of the populous territory drained by this great river. And the advantage thus obtained by England was one in which every other nation could participate. Consequently Germany's action, in November of the same year, in seizing the Kiao-Chau peninsula, precipitated a storm. The dismemberment of China could bring only injury to English interests. Whatever fell to foreign Powers would be taken into a protective system, and English trade would be shut out. Under these circumstances England's policy quickly defined itself—to stand for the integrity of the Chinese empire and the open door. But could she carry out this policy? Germany, it is true, declared Kiao-Chau a free port, but she lost no time in establishing her "sphere of influence" in Shantung, one of the most populous provinces of China, within which she claimed an exclusive right to build railroads and open mines. And, lastly, Russia proceeded in March, 1898, to gather the remainder of her harvest by forcing from China the cession of Port Arthur and Talien-Wan, with permission to connect them with the so-called East Chinese Railway. The Trans-Siberian had found its coveted terminal. As a counter-step to this advance of Russia, England took Wei-Hai-Wei.

In this general game of grab, Italy had been left out. Last fall she tried to follow the popular example, and to make up for her earlier lack of enterprise by demanding Sanmun Bay, and a sphere of influence in the province of Chekiang.

But she came too late to the feast. The supposed corpse had begun to stir. The September revolution had taken place; the Dowager Empress had seized the reins of power. A new spirit began to manifest itself, and it soon became plain that this reactionary party was a party of national defence. The Boxer movement grew more serious, and the consuls began to press the Government to restore order. At last, the deluge. The strangest thing in the whole affair seems to have been the extraordinary inability of the foreign Ministers at Pekin to see what was coming. For once at least Western diplomacy was badly overmatched.

THE SOUTH AND THE PHILIPPINES.

A strange delusion has taken possession of the South, or at all events of the manufacturing portion of it, that the holding of the Philippine Islands will be good for trade, and especially for cotton-spinning. It is supposed by many that our cotton goods could not conveniently reach China without a place for storage and warehousing, and that the Philippines are in the very locality where such facilities are most needed. A glance at a terrestrial globe will disclose the fact that for the trade of northern China, whither the great bulk of our cotton exports go, the Philippines are at least fifteen hundred miles out of the way, and that we should not use them for warehousing purposes, even if we wanted intermediate storage, at all. As regards southern China, Hong Kong is much nearer the point of distribution, and is used by us for storage purposes now more or less. This is a British island adjacent to China, and is a free port. Not only can we store anything that we wish to store there, but we can enter our goods without the payment of customs duties. The most carefully devised and costly system of warehousing could furnish us nothing better than this. If we could call back all the money we paid to Spain for the Philippines, and all that we have spent in trying to conquer the Filipinos, we could buy nothing better with it than the facilities which Hong Kong offers us at all times at a small rental. But mankind in gross does not usually appreciate that which costs nothing. Individuals may, but nations seldom do so.

What is true of Hong Kong as a warehouse for southern China is true of Japan for northern, except that Japan is farther from the mainland. It is nearer, however, than the Philippines are. Japan, like Hong Kong, offers us all the warehousing facilities that we can use for a merely trifling rental.

But have we ever suffered in our trade with China for want of warehouses, or half-way houses? Certainly not. The lack of them was never thought of till reason was wanted to justify our holding the Philippines. The truth is, that the more warehousing, and half-way-housing, and transshipping a merchant does, the less are his profits. There is nothing that he dreads more. One of the main objects of an Isthmian canal is to avoid these things and to land the exported goods at the door of the consignee, avoiding all intermediate charges. If we had had the Philippine Islands all our lives, we should never have landed a bale of goods there intended for northern China—probably none for any country except the Philippines. Ah, says some would-be spinner of yarns for export, we shall at all events have the market of the Philippines themselves. Doubtful! Did you not read Bishop Potter's account of his visit to a cotton factory in Manila? Did you not hear him say that the bright Filipino boys and girls learned the art of cotton-spinning in one-quarter of the time required by the ordinary European? Who is to guarantee that they will not be sending cotton goods our way before we send any their way? Shall we prevent this by a tariff? Who will guarantee that a tariff levied by one part of the United States against another part will be held valid by the Supreme Court? Was not that question "Quigged" in the Philadelphia Convention the other day?

Like most popular delusions, this one is strong in proportion to its utter lack of support in reason or experience. It is like the curious notion that although our exports are increasmg by leaps and bounds, and our ship-yards are so full of work that we cannot place an order for an ocean steamer to be built inside of two years, we must pay subsidies out of the Treasury for the carrying of our goods to foreign markets. Yet the belief is quite prevalent in the South that we are to gain some great commercial advantage by holding the Philippines. The *modus operandi* is not pointed out, but the belief is all the stronger for the hazy atmosphere which surrounds it.

This state of facts leads up to the query: "Why, then, did the Southern politicians in the Kansas City Convention acquiesce in a platform which made the independence of the Philippines the paramount issue of the campaign?" There are two possible answers to this question. One is, that the manufacturing interest, which is infected with this craze, is outweighed by other Southern interests not so infected, and that these other interests are as much opposed to Expansion and Imperialism as the Kansas City platform makes out. The other is, that Anti-Imperialism was seized upon not as a matter of political conviction, but as a handy thing for a party issue, and that if Bryan should be elected, it would be kicked to the winds, and the Philippines retained nevertheless. The language of the platform makes the latter interpretation possible. It says: "We favor an immediate declaration of the nation's purpose to give the Filipinos, first, a stable form of government; second, independence; third, protection from outside interference," etc. These words, as we have previously shown, do not commit Mr. Bryan, or his party, to the granting of independence to the Filipinos within any definite period. Are we to suppose that these words were not chosen with the same care as the other parts of the platform? In a literary point of view, that work was extremely well done. If its framer had meant to say that independence should be granted to the Filipinos whenever they should have formed a government for themselves, he would have used words quite different from those which we find in the platform. If he meant to leave "stamping-ground" for Southern Imperialists, such as Senator Morgan of Alabama and Judge Snodgrass of Tennessee, who think that we ought to hold the Philippines for ever; if he intended to provide for delay and dispute, so that eventually the whole scheme of independence might be shelved, then the words chosen would be well adapted to that purpose. Whatever may have been the motives prompting the use of the phraseology employed, it has been whispered around with unpleasant frequency since the Convention adjourned that, in the event of Mr. Bryan's election, the question of surrendering the Philippines would not be necessarily determined thereby.

THE DISCONTENTED FARMER.

Those aggregations of figures which we call statistics are for the most part so untrustworthy as to compel us to resort to direct observation when we really wish to understand the condition of any class of our fellow-creatures. A really intelligent observer, if he is unbiassed and honest, can generally reach a much more satisfactory, and even scientific, conclusion in such matters than can be derived from census reports or other official publications. Being acquainted with these truths, Mr. C. B. Spahr, one of the editors of the *Outlook*, recently set forth on a journey for the purpose of satisfying himself, and the readers of his paper, concerning the welfare of various sorts and conditions of men. Mr. Spahr not only is an entertaining writer, but also possesses an alert and inquiring mind. His pictures of the life of divers classes of our citizens appear to be accurate representations of real conditions. They are of a nature to correct several misapprehensions, and to enable us to understand the sentiments and the demands of people with whom we are not all likely to come into personal contact. From many interesting types we select for examination a Minnesota farmer, as being, for political reasons, at present especially deserving of study.

This particular individual was an enthusiastic believer in Populism, a political creed of which we understand Mr. Spahr to be also a devotee, and wore "working clothes of clerical cut," while his face was "of exceptional purity of thought and warmth of sympathy." The wearer of this garb had for years ministered to a little Episcopal church, but supported his family—with considerable participation on their part, as appears in the sequel—by work on his farm. He was also President of a Farmers' Alliance. He owned a whole section, or 640 acres of land, for one-quarter of which he had paid about $500. The other three-quarters he had taken up under the Homestead Act, the Preëmption Act, and the Tree-planting Act, respectively. It is fair to infer that the cost of these quarter-sections had been about $700, bringing up the total cost of the farm to $1,200. We gather from statements elsewhere made that land in the neighborhood is now worth some $30 an acre, at which rate the farm in question would have a value of $19,000. As it maintained a herd of 100 cows and calves, and the average product of each cow was 350 pounds of butter a year, worth nearly twenty cents a pound, this valuation does not appear excessive.

It might seem "to thoughtful people in cities, who get their views from what they read," Mr. Spahr remarks, that such an advance in the price of land over what the people of the United States had sold it for was suggestive of an "unearned increment." No such suggestion is entertained for a moment by the owners of these farms—the "thoughtful people in the country, who get their views from what they see." The result of their meditations is, that the later settlers ought to be taxed for the benefits which they have received from the earlier ones. So far as they are Populists, they are particularly stern in their condemnation of such as have invested their capital in railroads with any expectation of deriving a profit from the growth of the country. They hold that the farmers are entitled not only to the increment in the value of their farms, but also to that in the value of such transportation facilities as have made the increment in the value of farming land possible. To many persons who have ventured their savings in the construction of Western railroads, such views do not seem to be altogether fair. They do not complain when a farm increases in value from $1,200 to $19,000; but they fail to see why the owners of such farms should denounce the extortions of the railroads with such fury, or get up a Populist party because of the gains of capital, which are far less than those of landowners.

But if this Populist clergyman does not afford a very striking illustration of poverty caused by corporate monopoly, so far as his land is concerned, how is it as regards his business? It seems that he had but one son, and hired but one man, except in the busy seasons. His method of "supporting his family by work on the farm" was explained by himself. "My wife and girls," he said, "until the older girls went away to school, took entire charge of the milking and butter-making." We are not informed of the proportion of calves to cows, but if we assume that half the herd was cows, we have a butter product of 17,500 pounds per annum, worth possibly $3,500 and certainly $3,000. The surplus calves from such cows as these ought to pay for all the hired help; and the other products from such a farm as this ought to bring in a very considerable sum. On the whole, we find it rather difficult to squeeze out a tear over the misery caused in this instance by the grinding tyranny of the money power. The advocacy of Populism by such a particularly thriving and prosperous victim of capitalistic oppression as this impresses us as a proceeding of much audacity. We feel now better able to understand the sympathetic greeting extended to Mr. Van Wyck and Mr. Croker, with their Ice-Trust holdings, at Kansas City. The thoughtful people in the country who get their views from what they see, and not from what they read, recognized those kindred spirits as hostile to inordinate gains—when not made by themselves.

For a brief moment we indulged a hope that this Populist clergyman might be an exceptional character, but Mr. Spahr rudely dispelled it by quoting the dividends paid by the creameries which the farmers have set up. During the intervals when they were not denouncing the Trusts for raising prices, or cursing the railroads for not lowering freights, or berating the merchants for making too great profits, they were setting up creameries without the investment of a dollar in cash, and making up the capital out of the profits of a single year's business. Fifty per cent., we are assured, is less rather than more than the usual dividend rate of these establishments, whose stock is entirely "water." This surpasses anything yet disclosed in the history of "Trusts" in this part of the country, and when we read that farmers used to sell their butter for twelve cents a pound, but now get twenty for it, we are quite overpowered by our emotions. We have heard stories of rural astuteness, and been warned against the guile of the country horse-dealer; but we had not suspected that the Western farmers were making quite such a good thing out of the public as they appear to be. The sufferings of the Populists are evidently not without mitigation. The "silver" lining of their cloud has its significance; and Populism has in it some of the wisdom of the serpent.

THE PASSION PLAY OF 1900.

OBERAMMERGAU, June 30, 1900.

Mr. W. T. Stead has done a genuine service to the English and American spectators of the Passion Play by his excellent, practically verbatim translation of the text. English and German are printed on opposite pages, and it is easy, even for those not absolutely familiar with the language of the fatherland, to follow the different characters in their clear and forceful speech, by the additional aid of his faithful interpretation.

The great tide of American tourists, however, had yesterday not turned fully toward the little village in the Bavarian Tyrol, although it comes nearer the flood with each performance. July and August will probably witness inundations. The crowds thronging the streets just before the play are undeniably cosmopolitan, but just now more German is heard than any other language. They have necessitated an extra performance not provided for in advance by any published schedule. The Christus of this season is no longer the famous Josef Mayer, who made in 1870-71, 1880, and 1890 so profound an impression; but his successor, young Anton Lang, a potter of Oberammergau, is filling the rôle with ever increasing success, his nervousness during the earlier performances in May having largely disappeared, and his face showing even greater adaptability to the part than the rugged countenance of Mayer. Lang's voice is gentle, his expression peculiarly spiritual. The former postman's daughter, Anna Flunger, makes a lovable Mary, also for the first time this season. She is but nineteen, and two or three days before the first performance her father died; her own sorrow thus lends additional pathos to her sweet face. Bertha Wolf, the Mary Magdalen, is a handsome blonde with superb hair, and an insistent vitality truly German. She is the daughter of an inn-keeper. Both she and the other Mary made a very strong impression, though the voice of neither can be said to be really fine. John and Judas are the only prominent characters taken this season by those who impersonated them during former years. It is whispered that Peter Rendl (John) would have been given the Christus part in 1900 if he could have produced the proper sort of beard. But his John is an almost perfect representation. Johann Zwink, too, the Judas, shows marked dramatic ability, his portrayal rising at times to a fervor and intensity entirely thrilling. And hardly less strong are Caiaphas, Pilate, and Herod, each newly represented this season; Herod by Rochus Lang, father of Anton.

Leaving Munich very early in the morning, we were able to reach the village several hours ahead of incoming crowds. From Murnau and the Staffel See, the scenery grows increasingly beautiful and inspiring. At length, mountains partly snow-covered slip into the horizon, steeper cliffs narrow toward the road, where wayside shrines become more frequent. A little town on a green plain beyond the swiftly flowing Ammer, surrounded by stupendous heights, Oberammergau lay in fitful shade and sunshine as we approached the new station. Villagers and peasants along the way had shown great interest in the incoming train, waving hands and kerchiefs in greeting, and smiling as we looked out. Long-haired, sweet-faced boys met us on the platform, to point the way to the town and carry the satchels.

A drive to Ettal and its wonderful church occupied a part of the afternoon, but I spent much time in calls upon the chief actors in the play and upon Father Schroeder, the parish priest. The gentle Mary was waiting upon the supper-table when I found her, for every house in the village is opened to guests during these important days; and John was selling his own exquisite wood-carvings. The house where Anton Lang lives with his father is, like so many mountain homes, under the same roof with the stable, and soft-eyed cows looked out wonderingly from a dark room next the one where I talked with the Christus. Father Schroeder has for years studied most carefully the effect of the play upon his parishioners. With only 1,400 inhabitants, not less than 685 of whom have parts in the performance, Oberammergau cannot fail to be profoundly affected. The very spirit of the region has been imbued by such love for the play that it has actually taken possession of these simple people, heart and soul, for generations; and a highmindedness and devotion seem to go with them in all their every-day pursuits. As the good priest says, for five years the whole village speaks of little but the last Passion, and for the next five of nothing but the coming one—of the larger question whether or not the necessary royal permission to present it once more can be obtained, and the equally stirring one as to who will take the principal parts. To give or not to give the Passion Play is first put to vote by the burghers in the Town Hall, as a mere matter of form, for of a possible negative no one ever thinks. Naturally those playing certain parts become thoroughly devoted to them, and are touchingly unconscious that time at last unfits them. Often, however, the part of older persons in the play is assigned to those who have grown past the younger characters. Josef Mayer is thus taken from the Christus representation, and given the important and frequent prologues to recite. To his rendering of the sonorous lines his abundant white hair and beard and majestic bearing give an immense impressiveness. And Thomas Rendl, formerly Pilate, is transferred to the part of Peter, still impetuous and virile, but appropriately older.

At four o'clock in the morning of the day when the play is to be given, the musical jangle of bells from the Moorish-looking church tower calls to early mass, and even at that hour the streets are beginning to fill with an international crowd, many pilgrims arriving on foot from beyond the mountains, their bundles slung over their shoulders. At eight the play begins, in the enormous theatre, where now every seat is numbered, quality and price corresponding. As it progresses, the impression of a really superb mastery of detail grows more pervasive. It is not a play being acted, but a tragedy is lived before us. Not a mechanical flaw appears, and the whole great drama moves on with stately gravity and power. The audience of nearly 4,000 breathes as one person, as scene after scene unfolds and the inevitable end draws near.

In many respects the music is well fitted, composed in 1814 by Rochus Dedler, "teacher, clerk, chorister, and organist" of the village. The melodies are often suggestive of Haydn and Mozart in their simple sweetness, the harmonies sometimes of great dignity, rising occasionally to dramatic climaxes. The orchestra is quite out of sight; and the chorus of thirty-four voices seems hardly forceful enough at times. The fact that the stage is all open to the sky partly accounts for the lack of resonance, but it adds in equal proportion to the scenic setting, as cedar-clothed summits of actual mountains appear beyond the foreground, and high-altitude cumulus clouds gather or disperse as the day goes on.

One of the most amazing features of the performance consists in the frequent tableaux—pictures from Old Testament stories, foreshadowing later events; an idea of the good priest Daisenberger, who about 1860 recreated the Passion Play from the crude form in which it had existed through hundreds of years into the present splendid drama. Often with hundreds of persons posed in striking attitudes, the curtain remaining up for two and sometimes three minutes, not a finger trembled, hardly an eye altered its gaze, from tiny children to old men. And the beautiful conceptions of color and form embodied in these living pictures are no less remarkable.

At noon the great audience disperses for luncheon, reassembling by one o'clock or soon after, and the drama moves on to its tragic ending. It had been a partly shaded day, but at the march to Calvary brilliant sunshine streamed suddenly down upon the stage, lighting up with tremendous effect the pathetic figure bending under its heavy burden, and the magnificent Oriental dresses of the jeering crowd. But after that the sky grew darker, and at the last fatal moment nature conspired with the actors, and heavy clouds moved up over the actual sky, adding weird and terrible impressiveness to a scene already tragic with this story of the centuries. At the final transfiguration the sun once more burst forth in a glory of level rays, and the great cumulus masses clinging about the mountains took on soft roseate and golden tints, anticipating sunset.

An irresistible burst of applause filled the great building as the stately final chorus ended, and the procession moved away—the first allowed all day, and even this was sternly frowned down by many, but it could not be restrained. To-day the crowds have gone, but only to make way for another mighty concourse arriving to-night for Sunday's performance. And Monday still another will provide for the left-out thousands of yesterday. The great story is still a living, daily fact at Oberammergau, and hardly less to the visitor and spectator than to the dweller and performer.

> "To have lived through such a day
> Seems longevity enough."

MABEL LOOMIS TODD.

AFTER PETER THE GREAT.—II.

PARIS, July 11, 1900.

After the death of Peter II., the Supreme Council, which had been instituted during his short reign, assumed the right to determine the rules of the imperial succession, and chose Anna Ivanovna Empress, at the same time imposing certain conditions on her and trying thus to create a sort of Constitution. Dimitri Galitzin was the chief mover and promoter of this reform, but he encountered much opposition to his ideas among the high orthodox clergy, as well as in the ranks of the nobility.

Anna arrived at Moscow on the 10th of February, 1730. She had been for several years exiled in Courland, where she lived with her favorite Bühren. She brought a very hostile disposition towards the Dolgorukis, who pretended to be inaugurating a sort of constitutional government, all the more because the members of the Council which had been formed and which had placed her on the throne, would not permit the return of Bühren. At the funeral of Peter II., which had been long retarded, Natalie Dolgoruki was not allowed to take a place among the members of the imperial family, and she remained at home.

Anna showed her spirit at once, in proclaiming herself colonel of the Preobrazhenskoi regiment, and in pouring glasses of brandy for the soldiers herself; she received very coldly the self-instituted Supreme Council. Ostermann was behind the scenes; he had feigned illness after the election of Anna Ivanovna, but was in active correspondence with the members of the opposition to reforms and with the Tsarina herself. Anna decided to get rid of the reformers, and to assume autocratic power as her predecessors had done.

The *coup d'état* took place on the 25th of February, 1730. The palace was surrounded with troops; the Supreme Council was abolished; the letter in which Anna had declared her acceptance of the conditions imposed on her, was torn by her in presence of her officers. The fragments are still preserved, hidden in the Russian archives. It has long been considered an act of high treason to possess a copy. Constitutional reform had not been well prepared by Dimitri Galitzin; he had done nothing to bring over to his projects the most important members of the nobility, the clergy, and the army. His action was too much inspired by personal motives and by a sentiment of rivalry. In the discomfiture of plans which had for their chief object the creation of an oligarchical force destined to be a check on the autocracy of the sovereign, one thing only was saved, the law of serfdom. "Among this nobility," says Waliszewski, "now decimated and degraded, the low instincts of servility and the savage instincts of a ferocious tyranny seemed alone to survive." The very name of a constitution was proscribed for a century, and when, "a hundred years after the events of 1730, the soldiers employed in the repression of the Polish insurrection could not understand the motives of the war, they were told that the insurgents were fighting for their Constitution, and they imagined that it meant the wife of the Grand Duke Constantine, Viceroy of the country, who had married a Polish woman. Such was the end, after this long term of years, of the movement of ideas which the leaders of the eighteenth century flattered themselves they had propagated among the masses."

The Galitzins fell from their high station one after the other. The Dolgorukis were persecuted; on the 31st of October, 1739, Ivan Dolgoruki was beheaded; Catharine Dolgoruki, who had for a moment hoped to wear the imperial crown, was thrown into a convent. A brother of Ivan, Alexander, was imprisoned and executed on the 28th of October, 1740. The beginning of the reign of Anna goes in Russia under the name of the Bühren régime. When Elizabeth became Empress, she sent for Catharine Dolgoruki, and tried to marry this "fiancée of the Tsar," as she was still called. Catharine resisted long, and finally married a Scotchman, James Bruce; she died soon liam Lloyd Garrison, can "turn the world upside down." The apostles were such men in their day; they were counted iconoclasts and disturbers of the peace, they were stigmatized and hated and persecuted; and every true reformer in Church or State must expect to share in some degree their odium. He must be content to be called narrow and fanatical, and have his name cast out as evil; he must forego the plaudits of the groundlings; he must be deaf alike to all voices of calumny and flattery; he will not be over-much praised by his own generation; his reward will be often a posthumous one; coming generations will confess themselves his debtors.

There is a pressing need at the present time of men who will be bold enough not to be intimidated by the crack of the party whip, and who will contend, as Sumner, and Hale, and Adams, and Garrison, and Phillips contended a generation ago, for the truth and the right, however mighty may be the forces that oppose, and however strong may be the current in the opposite direction. There is need of men who will stand for civil-service reform, for freedom from bossism, for purity in politics, for economy in administration, for national righteousness, for keeping faith with all men, whatever their race, or color, or previous condition of servitude. There is need of political leaders and of a party who will bear in mind, as a first principle of politics, the dictum of Isaiah of Jerusalem—"Open ye the gates, that the righteous nation that keepeth the truth may enter in."

Such men may be but a "very small remnant" at first; but they will have power, because righteousness is always and everywhere a power; and their number will grow, for they will draw to themselves some of the best elements from all parties.

But some man will say, "It is no time to break over lines." So said men fifty years ago, but had not some men been independent enough and courageous enough to break over the lines fifty years ago, so far as we can see, the nation would be under the tyranny of the slaveocracy still. Expediency is not always the best rule of conduct in public or private affairs. The interests of party are not sacred and supreme; the interests of truth and righteouness are. There is a time when resistance to authority is a duty; and there is a time when resistance to party policy is justifiable and right.

"New occasions teach new duties; . . .
. . . . we ourselves must Pilgrims be;
Launch our *Mayflower*, and steer boldly through the desperate winter sea."

D. F. L.

MANCHESTER-BY-THE-SEA, MASS.

Notes.

'The Jay-Hawkers,' a tale of Border Ruffian days in Kansas, by Mrs. Adela E. Orpen, and 'The Law in its Relations to Physicians,' by Arthur N. Taylor, LL.B., are among the latest announcements of D. Appleton & Co. Also, a 'Key to the Flora of the Northern United States,' by Dr. J. M. Coulter, of the University of Chicago.

Harper & Bros. have in press 'Eleanor,' by Mrs. Humphry Ward, in two volumes; 'The Mantle of Elijah,' by Israel Zangwill; 'A Bicycle of Cathay,' by Frank R. Stockton; a new edition of Blackmore's 'Lorna Doone,' illustrated by the camera of Clif- ohnson; and 'Women of the Bible,' by r *American divines.*

A romantic poem, 'The Ballad of the Prince,' by Mrs. Alice Archer Sewall James, illustrated by reproductions of wash-drawings by the author, is in the press of R. H. Russell.

Miss Florence Lundborg's illustrations to the new FitzGerald Omar in preparation by William Doxey, No. 15 East Seventeenth Street, New York, will be in line.

In the magnificent new edition of the well-known 'Handbook on the Diseases of the Eye,' by Graefe and Saemisch, which is now coming out, in fourteen volumes, the subject of the comparative anatomy and physiology of the visual organs is to be treated by Dr. Theodor Beer of Vienna. Dr. Beer is anxious to acquire separate prints of all articles dealing in any way with the organ of sight in animals or in man, or with reactions to light, and he is particularly desirous that none of the widely scattered writings of Americans should escape his attention. Communications may be addressed to him, Anastasius Grün Gasse, 62. Vienna.

The idea of 'Paris as Seen and Described by Famous Writers' (Dodd, Mead & Co.) is attractive, but, if the selections have been well made, it is astonishing how little of interest great writers have had to say about Paris. Thackeray, for instance, knew Paris well, but is down for only a very unsatisfactory account of the Madeleine and a still more unsatisfactory account of the Bibliothèque Nationale. Miss Esther Singleton's translations from the French are frequently dubious and never very easy, so that at least half of her authors suffer a serious disadvantage. The best things in the book are the half-tone engravings, and the worst are the so-called "maps," which are horrible and which actually make it more difficult to understand locality than by the unaided memory.

'The Age of Johnson,' by Thomas Seccomb (Macmillan Co.), is an excellent contribution to the excellent series of Handbooks of English Literature, edited by Professor Hales. It lacks, perhaps, strictly speaking, style, but is written naturally and with some *esprit*, and abounds in interesting detail and agreeable matter. It successfully fulfils its unassuming plan.

'More Colonial Homesteads, and their Stories,' by Marion Harland (Putnams), gives some account, accompanied by illustrations, of several well-known historical American houses, such as Doughoregan Manor, Johnson Hall, La Chaumière du Prairie, and the Schuyler homesteads. Of these the first, as an existing manor, with some remains of its early state, is perhaps the most interesting. We are so much richer than our ancestors that we can afford to look back upon the modest homesteads of most of them with affectionate self-satisfaction. In multimillionairedom some of us build what we call "colonial" houses, but how the colonials would have wondered at our resources! Look at Mount Vernon, *Viator*, and consider its dimensions, and smile when you think that it was the home of the wealthiest American of his day. Times change, and houses with them. The magnate of to-day may convert his predecessor's establishment into a stable, and put up a hotel or castle for himself and be colonial or not, as he pleases. He is above the law. But all who care to do so may take a leaf out of the colonial book, and make a note of the good taste and simplicity in domestic architecture of the period.

'The Graduate Handbook No. 3, 1900' (Cambridge, Mass.: J. H. Patten), consists chiefly of the Proceedings of the Fifth Annual Convention of the graduate clubs whose organ this publication is. For students its most valuable feature is a folding table for ready comparison of graduate schools.

We have received a List of Graduates of Franklin and Marshall College, Lancaster, Pa., with addresses of the living; and the fourth part, completing volume i., of the Obituary Record of the same institution.

The nineteenth annual report of President Carter's administration at Williams College has a significant passage on the virtual abolition of the "day of prayer for colleges," which was a religious holiday, compulsory on all except Roman Catholics, and appointed for the last Thursday in January. It is now relegated to the second Sunday in February. "Very marked changes for the better in the life of educated men in a former generation dated from the observance of this day," says President Carter, but he adds: "That has not been true to any degree of late years." Young men who do not "enter college with the habits of reverence and charity fixed" are little likely to undergo a striking transformation in college.

The *Columbia University Quarterly* for June contains a brief sketch, by the late Dean, Mrs. Emily James Putnam, of "The Rise of Barnard College." She says, in summing up: "Barnard is an independent college for women, with a corporation and a faculty of its own, vested with all the powers commonly belonging to such bodies. At the same time, it shares the library, the instruction, and the degrees of one of the important universities of the world. It is at present the only college in existence of which all these statements can be made." This article is followed by a one-sided men's symposium on the Education of Women, to which all are favorable, while some are unequivocally for co-education.

Besides the Proceedings of the Dialect Society, 1896-'99, the first part of the second volume of *Dialect Notes* (New Haven) is notable for a tentative list of college words and phrases, now current for much the greater part. It is the result of inquiry by circular, and will be made the basis of a second vocabulary.

In his second paper on "Early American Ballads," in the *Journal of American Folk-Lore* for April-June (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), Mr. W. W. Newell traces the origin of the familiar New England "Springfield Mountain" in a very interesting manner. The victim of the "pisen serpent at his heal" was Timothy Merrick, August 7, 1761, and what is curious is the resemblance to the ballad of Isaac Orcutt (*circa* 1800), composed expressly as a chant for the funeral ceremonies; and to an "Account of the deth of the child of Daniel and Sarah Beckwith" (1773). Mr. Newell gives several variants of "Springfield Mountain." The melody is not that to which we have been accustomed.

Students of the history of mediæval Italy will thank Count Ugo Balzani for the revised edition of his little work, 'Le Cronache Italiane nel medio evo' (Milan: Hoepli). Some seventeen years ago the book first appeared in English under the auspices of the "Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge," and was shortly followed by an edition of the original Italian. Since then an enormous amount of work has been performed by German and Italian scholars in perfecting texts and determining disputed details, as well as in the publication of hitherto inedited sources. The results of these labors have been carefully garnered by the author in his revision, so that the book may be regarded as now fully on a level with the most advanced criticism on a singularly intricate department of historical material. After the fall of Rome, Italy, though somewhat more than a mere geographical expression, became split into more or less antagonistic divisions whose kaleidoscopic changes and mutual interaction, under the conflicting forces of feudalism, imperialism, theocracy, and democracy, render the task of the investigator unusually difficult. As one of the editors of the great "Regestum Farfense," the author has demonstrated his mastery of the multiform sources of Italian history, and in the present volume he has furnished a welcome guide through the labyrinth, from Cassiodorus to the Villani, written in a clear and forcible style, and enriched with numerous picturesque extracts illustrating the characteristics of the principal chroniclers and of the times in which they flourished.

After many wanderings, the remains of Dante are preserved in a case in the National Central Library of Florence. Signor Chilovi, the head of this institution, has in mind to give the precious relic a fitting monumental place in the contemplated new library building, where a Dante Gallery will be provided. A Deputy, Giuseppe Pescetti, looking to this end, commissioned the sculptor Prof. Rinaldo Barbetti to make a design for an urn, which was duly offered last month to Signor Chilovi. The Librarian, however, felt under obligations to prefer a design made by the sculptor Enrico Pazzi in 1899, on occasion of turning over to the Library the bones which had been in his custody since 1865. This "splendida opera," Signor Chilovi trusts, may be duly executed by the authorities.

Dr. A. Donaldson Smith, the young American who gained a high reputation as a traveller five years ago for being the first to reach Lake Rudolf from the Somali Coast, has just completed a still more interesting and adventurous journey. The unknown country explored this time lies between the northern end of the lake and the Nile. The first part of his route was through an exceptionally charming mountainous region, with stretches of excellent grazing land, inhabited by people more timid than vicious. To this succeeded a vast plain which in the wet season is simply a marsh, in the dry an impassable waterless desert. Attempts to cross this were fruitless, and he skirted its southern edge and finally reached the Nile at Fort Berkeley, the most northerly of the Uganda posts, on March 15 of this year. From this place he descended the river to Khartum in the gunboat of the sudd-cutting expedition. Among his collections are several new species of birds, and ten specimens of the smaller antelopes unknown to him and possibly new to science.

Professor Thilly, of the University of Missouri, objects to our remark, on reviewing a month ago his 'Introduction to Ethics,' that his "classification of the doctrines concerning the basis of right and wrong is substantially borrowed from Wundt (without acknowledgment, by the way)." His demonstration to the contrary presents mechanical difficulties of tabulation not easy for us to overcome, and we must content ourselves with printing his denial either of similarity or of conscious appropriation. To us the resemblance remains. Professor Thilly further allows no originality to Wundt, who does, however, lay claim to it.

—The third volume of Hamilton's 'Writings of James Monroe' (Putnams) opens with Monroe still in France, but unhappy because of a dinner incident and the "ingratitude" of Thomas Paine, who seemed to make him responsible for the Letter to Washington. Indeed, Monroe found his position so uncomfortable that he thought of demanding his recall, yet sought to open a regular correspondence with Bache's paper, the bitterest critic of the Administration. The Cabinet saved him the trouble, and he returned to the United States nursing a grievance, and was met by a demand from Hamilton, indignant on account of Monroe's betrayal of the Reynolds affair. The correspondence on this subject is entirely omitted from the present volume, so that the reader knows nothing of Monroe's cowardly behavior, but is permitted to read his gloating over the exposure of Hamilton. Of course, Monroe is against Washington, and as the same Cabinet was with Adams, his hatred is turned against "our insane President," that "old woman," and he even harbors a thought of calling him personally to account. In debt and with much time on his hands, he sulks in Virginia, urging his friends to defend him from attack, prepares drafts for their use, compiles his ponderous 'View,' chides Bache for not pushing its sale, is haunted by spies, examines the seals of letters to see if they have been tampered with, and asserts loudly that he is assailed by all who are unfriendly to liberty. He was proposed for Congress, but declined, and was elected Governor of Virginia. Occupation sobered him somewhat, but could not alter his sombre view of the conduct of the Administration, least of all of its shortcomings in foreign relations. His messages to the Legislature, which Mr. Hamilton wisely gives in full, are able and interesting. The most vital subject he was called upon to treat was the insurrection of slaves, and, in combination with Jefferson, he sought some remedy, such as a colony to which the dangerous might be sent. The election of 1800 removed his harassing doubts on the stability of government; and his opinions on removal of Federalists from office must be studied to be valued at their real worth. He made an insidious attack on Rufus King, and aided Jefferson in smoothing over a difficulty with that indescribable scoundrel, Callender. He raised the delicate question whether a Governor could exchange letters with the head of a department in the national Government. As Governor, Monroe rises in our estimation, small as he is in many ways.

—We note some unnecessary errors in the third volume, but pass them to comment upon the omission to use Monroe's letter to Jefferson of March 12, 1801, and upon the error in making the letters of November 15 and November 16, 1798, addressed to Jefferson, when Dawson (given as *Davison* on p. 128) was the correspondent. The letter to Madison, dated July 5, 1796, is full of errors. Jay was "forbidden to *weaken*," not to *make* engagements, and his object was to *procure* not *cost* us the respect of the English court (p. 21). On the next page, the letter was six months *old*, not *April;* while Monroe wrote of the *motive*, not *nature*, of this conduct (p. 23). The cipher seems to spell a *desultory*, not *desperate*, movement, and the opening sentence of the last paragraph on p. 23 has been altered beyond recognition by the editor. He makes Monroe say "[through] timid influences," though the cipher says "odium lies." On p. 24, the printed text speaks of an "appeal to the *fulfillment* itself and a different *merit* may be found"—a meaningless phrase, until by means of the key the words *government* and *spirit* are found. This is slipshod editing.

—The President of the American Museum of Natural History, New York city, in his latest annual report, gives a summary of the work accomplished during the year by the different exploring expeditions under the control of that institution. Harlan I. Smith of the Jesup North Pacific expedition has established the southern limits of North Pacific culture, and of the distribution of cairn burial on Vancouver Island, besides making a collection relating to the archæology of the Puget Sound region and the interior of southern British Columbia. Capt. George Comer has made a collection illustrating the arts and customs of certain Eskimo tribes on the west coast of Hudson's Bay; that from Southampton Island being remarkable on account of the primitive character of the tribe, "which has never been visited by whites, and is still living in the stone age." Roland B. Dixon, in studying the vanishing customs of the Plains Indians, has accumulated considerable information concerning the ethnology and language of the Maidu Indians of northern California. He has also collected specimens of their utensils, basketry, and feather ornaments, and has secured a series of casts and photographs illustrating the type of people. Another important collection, illustrative of the ceremonials and the symbolism of the Arapaho Indians, has been made by Alfred L. Kroeber, who has acquired new and valuable information in regard to the significance of the Arapaho decorative designs. The Hyde Southwestern Expedition has continued the examination of the ruins and burial places in the Chaco Cañon, New Mexico, and its neighborhood, as part of a general survey of the archæology of the region included in the adjoining corners of Colorado, New Mexico, Utah, and Arizona. Much time has been devoted to a study of the facts relating to the antiquity of the ruins of Bonito, and to the cause of the desertion of this pueblo by a numerous people after much labor had been expended in house building and in irrigation. There has been secured an important collection from the ancient burial caves in Grand Gulch, the remains of a people evidently distinct from the builders of the stone pueblos and cliff-houses. The researches by Dr. Bandelier in Peru and Bolivia have been continued, and a shipment of specimens found in the vicinity of Lake Titicaca, illustrating the highest stage of prehistoric civilization attained in South America, is on its way to the Museum. The exploration of the Trenton gravels and of the Delaware valley has been prosecuted by Ernest Volk. Several stone implements have been found *in situ* in what competent geologists admit to be the deposit made at the close of the glacial period. There has also been discovered a fragment of a human femur, which was *in situ* seven feet from the surface in the sand layer beneath the undisturbed glacial gravel. The bone is chalky, bears upon its surface certain striæ having the appearance of glacial scratches, and is probably as old as the deposit in which it lay. In the same neighborhood, three fragments of a human parietal bone were found on the recently fallen talus, in such a position that they had evidently been dislodged from the sand layer under the gravel. Like the femur, they were chalky, striated, and stained by iron from the gravel.

—An account of the first winter ever spent by men on Antarctic land was given recently to the Royal Geographical Society by Mr. Borchgrevink, the head of the expedition. This consisted of six scientific observers and collectors and four assistants. Their camp was built on Cape Adare, Victoria Land, and magnetic and meteorological observatories were established. Meteorological observations were taken every two hours, day and night, and magnetic observations whenever the conditions were favorable. Great difficulty was often experienced in taking these, from the tremendous gales which raged; the wind in one instance attaining a velocity of 102 miles an hour. On these occasions the observer was connected by a rope around his waist with the hut. The greatest cold was experienced in August: —52° Fahr. The height of the surrounding land—in one place it reached nearly 12,000 feet—made any attempt at exploration exceedingly dangerous, and it was impossible to reach the interior. The conditions are less favorable for exploration than in the Arctic regions. There are no bears, foxes, musk oxen, or reindeer; and accordingly the expedition was obliged to live on birds, eggs, and fish. The only animal life mentioned besides these was a number of insects of three distinct types found among the mosses on Geikie Land. When exploring at the foot of Mount Terror, Mr. Borchgrevink and a companion were witnesses of the birth of an iceberg. "With a deafening roar, the huge mass plunged into the sea, and a white cloud of water and snow hid everything from their eyes. A wave rose like a wall from the plunge of this gigantic ice mass, and seemed to grow rapidly as it approached the low ledge where they stood. Instinctively they ran to the highest part of the beach and stood close to the perpendicular mountain wall. The time seemed long drawn out. The wave first struck Mr. Borchgrevink; lumps of ice were driven against his back; he felt the blood rush forward from beneath his nails as he clung to the rock. The icy water passed over his head, and when it receded Capt. Jensen was still by his side. Several waves followed in succession, but none so high as the first. . . . The water marks showed that the first wave had reached a height of 20 feet above their heads." The expedition, with the loss of one man by sickness, sailed for home on March 2, just a year from the time of its landing. It is, of course, too soon to estimate the value of its scientific work, but the observations seem to give the approximate place of the magnetic pole in latitude 73.20° south and longitude 146° east. "But it was not stationary."

—Nine years ago the Society of Historical Theology of Oxford appointed a committee to prepare a statement of "the *principal results of modern inquiry* into the composition of the first six books of the Old Testament." It took this committee, composed of Messrs. Harford-Battersby, J. Estlin Carpenter, Fripp, Montefiore, Selbie, and Cheyne, to whom were added later Buchanan Gray and W. H. Bennett, four years to prepare and revise the analysis of the books under consideration. The work of publication was then assigned to Messrs. Carpenter and Harford-Battersby, with freedom to elaborate, explain, and change, as might seem to them desirable. The result is two large octavo volumes entitled 'The Hexateuch,' covering in all about 650 closely printed pages. While printed under the auspices of the Society of Historical Theology, with "the liberal aid of the Hibbert Trustees," and based on the analysis made by the above-mentioned committee, the work is that of the editors, and especially of Professor Carpenter, and they are responsible for the views presented. The first volume discusses the composition of the Hexateuch. It contains an admirable review of the history of criticism, the best yet published; a statement of the general grounds of the analysis, the contents and characteristics of the documents; the history of their composition, redactions, and union, as far as these have been worked out; word-lists and tables of laws and institutions. To this volume Professor Cheyne has contributed one chapter on "Criticism and Archæology." The second volume contains the text, with a special introduction to Joshua. The principal documents are arranged in parallel columns, further subdivisions being indicated by the use of different type. By the exercise of some ingenuity, for which the editors express their thanks to "the controller of the University Press and his assistants," this columnar arrangement has been so handled as to make consecutive reading no difficult task, at the same time that the relations of the parts are clearly shown. Marginal notes refer to Biblical and other references, and abundant foot-notes explain the special grounds of analysis. The translation is that of the Revised Version. The editors belong to the most advanced school of critics, but their work is at the same time soberly and cautiously done, in a fair spirit, without apparent theological or controversial bias. While these volumes are of the first importance for Old Testament scholars, the price ($12.00) puts them beyond the reach of most, except as they can consult them in libraries. The work bears the imprint of Longmans, Green & Co.

—'La Protection Ouvrière au Japon,' by Saïto Kashiro (Paris), is a short but valuable treatise written by one who has had every opportunity to become acquainted with the details of his subject. The volume is really a discussion and criticism of the various articles of a proposed labor law—a discussion giving occasion for a general description of labor conditions. The striking feature of Japanese labor is its attitude of submission to the employing class, though this attitude is being modified as time goes on. State interference in the form of protection to labor has been unpopular, and the ignorance of the working classes has allowed of an almost complete neglect of hygienic measures in industrial establishments. Pensions in case of accident, premiums for regularity, etc., are meagre. Twelve hours is the average working-day, and women and children are everywhere seen laboring. Wages are small, and rarely exceed fifty cents a day for the very most efficient male hands. Advancement in wages is slow, and there is little opportunity to save; low wages here coexist with an absence of habits of economy. Compulsory "saving" is common, but is really a disguised method of retaining a hold upon the laborer, for he is forced to serve out his contract and obey strict regulations under penalty of confiscation of the savings remaining in his employer's hands. Japanese laborers soon tire of the routine and monotony of machine-production, and are readily led to desert their employers; a class of intermediaries display much rascality in connection with these desertions. A system of laborers' certificates also has been put into operation in order to restrict the movement of labor. Saïto regards this as an unwarranted hindrance to the competition of developing industries. Short chapters treat of factory regulation, inspection, etc., and of apprenticeship. The book is full of very suggestive facts and figures, and the author shows a remarkable power of expression in a foreign tongue.

McMASTER'S HISTORY.

A History of the People of the United States, from the Revolution to the Civil War. By John Bach McMaster. Vol. V. 1821-1830. Appletons.

As Mr. McMaster resumes his pen, the era of good feeling under Monroe is drawing to a close, and the legitimate effects of Jefferson's policy in party matters are coming to the surface. If "the people" were to be the controlling factor in representative government, they should at least be able to elect their President, and restrictions on an expression of their opinion should be removed. The spectacle of Congress neglecting public business in order to intrigue for Presidential candidates was not edifying, and the Congressional caucus was opposed by many as an unwholesome evidence of partisan activity, and by more because it interfered with the freedom of the people to decide the choice of President for themselves. The opposition to the caucus, taking different forms in the different States, did result in an important change of methods of choosing a President; but this change was accompanied by the abolition of qualifications required of the voter, by an extension of elective offices, and by the rise of a party machinery the perfection of which for its own purposes has rarely been equalled. In introducing a needed reform, much more than was required had been obtained from the people; and the campaign which placed Adams in the Presidency through the intervention of Congress, was largely responsible for that which made Jackson the successor of Adams.

The best chapter in the volume before us is that describing the election of Andrew Jackson to the Presidency in 1828. It is astonishing as well as mortifying to read again the details of that crowning success of "machine politics." Mr. McMaster has marshalled his facts in an able manner, but with not so much as a suggestion that the Administration of Adams had been much above the average in ability, or that it was largely because Adams sought to be an active President—one of opinions and resolved policy—and refused to prostitute appointments to office for political vantage, that he was defeated. His very courage and upright conduct gave his adversaries ground for combination (for union was not possible), and enabled them to elect a man of no opinions, and few qualifications for the office. The charges against Adams and Clay have long since been classed among the fictions that serve for campaign purposes only, and the surprising use made of them by Jackson and his followers, in the face of denials as true as they were solemn, gives the campaign of nearly three years a picturesqueness of which the author has made good use. He does not mention the probable authorship of the Kremer letters, though even at the time it was recognized that this obscure member of Congress was incapable of doing what was done in his name. Adams, in his Diary, says the writer was McDuffie or Ingham; and Rufus King, representing a party opposed to Adams, says it was McDuffie or Hayne. As the two authorities name McDuffie, the probability is strong that the South Carolinian was the responsible person, and his bitter attacks on Adams, and iteration of the charge of the bargain with Clay, lend color to this view.

In making the "people, and not the leaders" responsible for the general looting of offices under Jackson, Mr. McMaster goes too far. He says:

> "In the course of events the time had come for a departure from old-time methods, and, whatever may be thought of the character of that change, it had to be made. No leader in our country can debase the people. He is exactly what the will of the people enables him to be, and the moment he ceases to execute that will he ceases to be a leader."

This doctrine will excuse any incapable head of a party for any misdeed. Who were "the people" at that time? Jackson received 647,276 votes and Adams 508,064; were the opinions of this weighty minority of no moment? It was known to include the intelligence and wealth of the country, and, had the qualifications surrounding suffrage in the older States been retained, would not have been overwhelmed in defeat. The doctrine announced is destructive of all independence and leadership, and proclaims that the man who keeps his ear to the ground, and obeys the passing murmurs of the "people"—that is, a noisy majority—is greater than he who has convictions and does not fear to stand by them. The orgy of spoils that came in with Jackson has been repeated more than once, and weakness has often been taken for strength; but it is to be regretted that the calm historian can be found to write in defence or excuse of both. It is the more to be regretted as our author denounces elsewhere the decision of a contested election on purely partisan grounds, as "that foul deed of which the history of legislation in our country affords many instances."

The chapter on the "Common School in the first Half-Century" is an example of the merits and demerits of Mr. McMaster's methods. The history of legislation concerning schools in each State is traced; the source being, as a rule, the monographs of the Bureau of Education. As the schools were among the subjects of State control, the action of one Legislature did not affect that taken in the neighboring States, and a separate description gives a fair conception of the condition of education in each State. But why was this subject introduced in this volume at all? The description begins with the act of 1647 passed by the General Court of Massachusetts, and passes to vague mention of an attempt in 1829 to establish common schools in Tennessee. After some thirty pages of detail it is annoying to find the subject summed up in the sentence, "But the common school, the school for the children of the people, was still to become a great American institution."

Continuity of view is sought by constantly returning to the same subject, and prefacing new developments by extensive summaries of what has gone before. In describing the political ideas of the first half-century the author carries the reader back to the opening of the Revolution and the framing of the first constitutions. Ten pages of recapitulation, one-sixth of the chapter, are required to bring us to the first act proper to the period covered by this volume, to the Constitutional Convention of New York in 1821; and this summary is to open the question of suffrage qualifications. In the same chapter, the debates in the Constitutional Convention of 1787 on the Presidency, the changes in the manner of nominating and electing Presidents, the uses of the annual messages, and the rise of the Cabinet, are detailed in order to show that no President had believed in three terms, and that the election of 1824 led to abortive efforts to amend the Constitution so as to prohibit a third term. Eleven pages are thus consumed by matter which may largely be found in the earlier volumes, and in proper connection with the course of the narration. As political ideas Mr. McMaster also includes the decision of courts on the Constitutionality of legislative acts, the admission of a new State from territory outside of the original bounds of the United States, and the assertion of States' rights on sundry occasions. After so much wealth of incident, expectation is aroused, and some definite advance in political theory or methods should result. But this is what we get:

> "Dissatisfaction with the executive office as defined in the Constitution was now widespread. The length of his term, the manner of choosing him, his eligibility to frequent reëlection, were the causes of seventy-five propositions to amend the Constitution between 1820 and 1830. A single term, a direct popular vote, and the exclusion of members of Congress from offices within the gift of the President, were the popular political ideas."

Was it worth all these sixty pages to learn that indefinite fact, for indefinite it must remain? The attempt to secure continuity really results in breaking the little connection the chapters might have had. It remains true that each chapter is an essay by itself, and the reader is obliged to pass from one volume to another without the aid of the author—a fault which can be remedied only by the exercise of a faculty that Mr. McMaster does not possess. The nine volumes of Adams's History make a continuous story, told on a definite plan, and with consistent purpose. The last chapter is as inevitable as the first, both in form and in substance. Any one of McMaster's chapters could appear in a magazine, and be readable; but each stands by itself in this volume as isolated as it would in a magazine.

It is not often that a historian alters his point of view in conformity to passing events. The dignity of history is opposed to such an exhibition, but a recent history of the American Revolution offers an example of it, and Mr. McMaster's present volume another. In his opening chapter he gives an account of the efforts of the Spanish republics to obtain independence, and describes the measures leading to the announcement of the "Monroe Doctrine." He cites the suggestion of Canning that England and the United States unite in a declaration that "while neither Power desired the colonies of Spain for herself, it was impossible to look with indifference on European intervention in their affairs, or to see them acquired by a third Power." In a later chapter the Monroe Doctrine is again the subject, and the assertion is made that England would probably use her arms against the Holy Allies, and that "her reward for such help would be Cuba and Porto Rico seemed certain, and at the prospect of such a transfer Monroe became anxious. The possession of the islands by a decaying Power such as Spain was one thing, but their ownership by a great naval Power, such as Great Britain, was another, and a very different matter; hence Monroe's Doctrine." It is difficult to reconcile these two accounts. The fear of English occupation was hinted during the spring of 1823, and constituted the basis of Adams's dispatch to Nelson on April 28, which Mr. McMaster makes follow Monroe's anxieties. During the summer even Jefferson, who had no love for England, laid aside his jealousy of her possible intentions on Cuba, and in August Rush sent forward Canning's suggestion. This was considered by Monroe and his Cabinet on November 7, and the President's message announcing the now famous "Doctrine" was transmitted to Congress early in December. It was not the fear of the English acquiring Cuba that led to the promulgation of the Doctrine, and subsequent events proved this.

In recording the somewhat picturesque customs of the day, Mr. McMaster has shown his usual judgment, and his industry in this direction makes his volumes a mine of interest. The beginning of New York city, and the curious regulations for street-cleaning, for teaming, and fire protection; the introduction of gas, which met with opposition from the candle-makers and oil-dealers; the rise of a market for coal, which increased so that, in 1825, house-holders were warned against throwing their coal ashes into the streets; the opening of the Erie Canal and the first railroad projects—in such topics the author is at home, and from the columns of the newspapers of the day compiles a highly readable story.

MERIVALE.

Autobiography of Dean Merivale. With Selections from his Correspondence. Edited by his daughter, Judith Anne Merivale. London: Edward Arnold. 1899.

The contents of this volume, with the exception of a few letters to Dean Lake, were printed privately a few years ago. Their character was such as to demand for them a wider publication, and the general reader has much reason to be glad that this has been conceded. Dean Merivale is described upon his monument in Ely Cathedral as "caustic in wit," possibly with reference to his conversation. There is plenty of wit in this memoir, but caustic, for the most part, it is not, and it is more delightful than if it were so habitually. It is a pity that the autobiography could not have been extended, like that of Gibbon, over the historian's entire career. It would then have been as adequate a companion to his 'History of the Romans under the Empire' as Gibbon's to the 'Decline and Fall.' It stops short with his obtainment of a Cambridge fellowship in 1833. But the letters begin at 1826 and come down to 1891; and while they have not the continuity that a complete autobiography would have, they do much to fill the gap, and are vivacious and entertaining to a degree surpassing the autobiography.

Few examples of the child's paternity of the man are more striking than the one we have here, where the boy of six summers plays Roman History around St George's Square, assigns one piece of the walk to Italy and a part of that to Rome; parallel lines of the flagging representing good or evil qualities, and the careers of the Consuls being denoted by the lines taken by the hoops driven by Charles and his brother Herman back and forth. "The strict line of public virtue was the narrow path of the kerb-stone, and few magistrates kept it to the end." He was the smallest and youngest boy at Harrow, his description of which, as it was in 1818, is a permanent contribution to the educational history of England; as, too, is his account of Cambridge as he found it a few years further along.

In 1824 he was offered an East Indian writership, and went to Haileybury, where the instruction was adapted closely to the needs of the Indian Service. This meant an arrest of his classical studies, in which he had done well at Harrow, learning thousands of lines of Latin poetry, including the whole of Lucan. As time went on, he found out that he did not want the Indian writership. The patron who had offered it was much disgusted, and turned over his offer to John Lawrence, "who went to India as a writer, distinguished himself by many eminent services till at last he became the main instrument in defending the Empire at the time of the Mutiny, and was rewarded with the Governor-Generalship and the title of Lord Lawrence." "And thus it was," says Merivale, "that I saved India." To better this story, the Dean tells another of his declining to review Miss Beaufort's 'Syrian Shrines.' It was turned over to Percy Smythe, afterward Lord Strangford. His review did not please the lady; correspondence ensued, a meeting, a marriage. Once at a Harrow luncheon the Viscountess Strangford and Lord Lawrence both sat before the Dean, little imagining that they owed to him their fame and fortune.

It is significant that the book which most caught Merivale's fancy at Haileybury was Gibbon's autobiography. His brother was at Oxford, and it would have been delightful to follow him, but to save time he went to Cambridge; here, as elsewhere, everything conspiring to give a perfectly congenial direction to his life. In 1829 he took an oar in the first university boat race between Cambridge and Oxford. So slender was the interest in the race that not thirty men went from Cambridge to Henley to see it. It was as if they had some painful premonition of the event, which was fatal to the Cambridge boat. The same year, Tennyson being "too proud or too shy to exhibit himself on such an occasion," Merivale "spouted his verses [Timbuctoo] with considerable effect"; and "I have always had," he says, "a kind of quasi-parental regard for them." He got his fellowship in 1833, and at that point brings his autobiography to an end with an extremely liberal discussion of the relations of Churchmen and Dissenters. He never forgot that his grandparents were Unitarians, and their examples qualified his judgment of dissent his whole life long. He writes of his grandmother: "She, too, was a Unitarian to the backbone; but no one seemed to be nearer to the Bible, nearer to Christ." His criticism upon Unitarians is that they get their opinions too exclusively from the Gospels, not enough from St. Paul's Epistles.

The letters following the autobiography are divided into three sets, written respectively at Cambridge, Lawford, and Ely. In 1841 we find him working on a 'History of Imperial Rome' for the Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge, but the scheme fell through. Here, however, were the "seeds and weak beginnings" of his 'History of Rome under the Empire,' the publication of which began in 1850, and ended in 1862. After reading Miss Burney's letters, he writes a long one in her manner, describing the reception of the Queen and Prince Consort at Cambridge in 1843. It is excellent fooling, but even better is the letter of December 6, 1851, exposing Louis Napoleon's planning of his *Coup d'État* on the lines indicated in chapter iv., volume iii., of Merivale's History. This letter having been taken seriously, Miss Merivale is obliged to explain in her preface that Louis Napoleon "did not buy a thousand copies of that work for his regimental libraries, nor did the author receive from him the Cross of the Legion of Honor."

In 1848 Merivale accepted a living at Lawford, a village of 900 people, with an income of £800 a year. In this quiet place he remained until 1869, when he was made Dean of Ely. At Lawford the History was written. The letters do not contain many reflections of Merivale's work upon it. One of the most interesting is concerning Nero's persecution of the Christians, Tacitus's account of which is quite certainly a distortion in some sort of the actual occurrence. Merivale takes kindly to the suggestion that Nero's levity while Rome was burning may be accounted for by supposing him to have been well insured. Having written an article on the topography of Rome, he is afraid that Elwin, the editor of the *Quarterly*, will keep it in pickle so long that "recent discoveries will disprove it all over and over again before it appears." There is a very interesting letter on the Vatican busts of the different Emperors.

Comments on current politics abound, Merivale's opinions being generally Conservative, with some Liberal aberrations. Of Macaulay's funeral in the Abbey he writes that the most suggestive thing was a little clever-looking boy, "perched on a railing, surveying all the crowd, whom, if he lives, he will see under ground, and treasuring up, no doubt, in his mind memories to repeat seventy years hence to our grandchildren." Merivale, looking round on the "very noble mob," asked himself what candidates were there for an Abbey burial, and could light only upon Thackeray, whose bust alone is there; his grave at Kensal Green. The comment is severe on Jowett's opinions as put forth by his friends during the 'Essays and Reviews' ferment, to show "how amiable and sentimental and devotional" they really were. "They seem to me," says Merivale, "to indicate great effeminacy of mind. Heresy should be made of stronger stuff." In 1861 he is "glad that Virginia has seceded," but does not "see what there is to fight about," and hardly thinks there will be real war. The historical sense, it would seem, does not work forward as well as backward. He is glad that his sister does not find his sermons extravagantly fanciful. "A witty man might say that I make out the Apostles to be gentlemen who kept yachts on the Lake of Gennesareth." He tells that Thackeray cried out on one of his witticisms, "I beg your pardon, sir, but have you any further use for that? I think it is worth half a crown." In 1863 he was made Chaplain of the House of Commons: the duties were five minutes' reading of prayers for five days in a week for a period of six months; the salary, £400. He was not too reverent of the office, writing to his wife of one of his first readings, "I have just done my bow-wow." There is too much of prophecy in his estimate of American affairs in 1866. He foresaw the collapse of the negro franchise in the South, to be followed, he thought, by some system of forced labor retaining the substance of slavery. His views of such matters were substantially those of Carlyle. Of President Johnson he writes: "He is an abler man than we supposed."

One of Merivale's most drastic comments is on Grote, page 296. One of his most cynical observations is, "The doctrinaires wonder at the little wisdom by which the world is governed. Precisely so—if it were governed by greater wisdom it would be ruined." Ritualism gets hard knocks: "I believe that such a system fosters a triviality of mind, weakening and emasculating. It lowers men to women and women to worms." Macaulay, as seen in his Journals, he finds "totally devoid of both the sexual and spiritual feelings." He is severe upon the New Testament Revision; thinks his colleagues "knew very little English," and, in view of the translation "evil one" in the Lord's Prayer, is pleased to hear "that some of the sly people in the North call Bishop Lightfoot ὁ πονηρός." Of Thomas à Kempis's "Imitatio Christi" he writes, "I took occasion once to look through it to see whether it says one word about 'doing good' which is so characteristic of our Lord's doings on earth. There is not a word about it." The last letter bears date of December 27, 1891, two years to a day before Merivale's death. He had just been making out a list of friends and acquaintances still living and over eighty years of age. He had counted sixty-three—as if the good fortune which had followed him through life was with him still.

The Banker and the Bear. By Henry Kitchell Webster. Macmillan.

The Minister's Guest. By Isabel Smith. D. Appleton & Co.

The Man that Corrupted Hadleyburg, and Other Stories and Essays. By Mark Twain. Harper & Bros.

The Reign of Law: A Tale of the Kentucky Hemp-fields. By James Lane Allen. Macmillan Co.

'The Banker and the Bear' is "The Story

of a Corner in Lard," and is entertaining reading. The characters may not all be highly probable, but they act, on the whole, with self-justifying consistency; the incidents, many of them, are highly improbable, but at least they are linked together with due regard to cause and consequence. The unvarnished way of telling the story is absolutely appropriate, and the writer has the happy knack of not dwelling too long on any one episode. If the scenes at the Stock Exchange ring somewhat familiar, and if a run on a bank is not a perfectly new invention, in the financial story, yet there are original devices of treatment in both cases; and the women characters, though we regret that the author selected for his heroine the name of Dick, are something more than the usual lay-figures in such tales. All in all, it is a brisk little book, clever and readable. A good example of the writer's style and temper is furnished in the sentence, "The sentiment which gets a man into a difficulty rarely stays around to help him out of it."

The scene of action of the modest novel, 'The Minister's Guest,' alternates between two English parishes—St. Radigund's, Kent, and Dissenting Duck Lane Chapel in a Midland country town. A blithe little girl who has affiliations with both rectory and manse, flits to and fro as connecting link. From the rector she learns to ride, fish, and make trout-flies. With the minister she studies Greek. The contrasting temperaments, character; and aims of the two men are excellently and humorously depicted; and no less so, the surrounding family and parochial groups. Over against the rector's genial and largely veterinary ministrations among his Kentish hop-picking parishioners are set the kindly austerities of the Rev. Josiah and the hard, dry, narrow virtues of his Non-conformist flock. The writer has a marked gift for characterization, and makes us familiarly at home in both places; demonstrating, moreover, that love-making can flourish on the most arid soil.

To any one desiring to read a thrilling account of a true shipwreck, told with masterly art, we commend "My Début as a Literary Person" in Mark Twain's collection of stories reprinted from sundry magazines. The following one, "From the London *Times* of 1904," is not only an ingenious scientific forecast, but a pungent satire on the Dreyfus trial. The paper on the Jews reads as forcibly as it did when it attracted attention in *Harper's Monthly*, a year ago. It points out the fact that the persecution of the Jews at present is a business passion, not a religious one, and reminds the Asian Mystery that they are banded together only in their charities, where they are omnipotent. The chapter on the Austrian Parliament is a brilliant contribution to the history of contemporaneous legislative manners. "Travelling with a Reformer," as Mark Twain does it, is full of suggestion as to the right way to work and the real ear to reach in the redressing of public grievances. In another article, he gives a deeply interesting account of "The Master of Palmyra," as played at the Burg Theater in Vienna, and points the moral by sighing for a theatre in New York where only great tragedies shall be played, that we may have "an occasional climb among the pomps of the intellectual snow-summits built by Shakspere and those others." There are funny stories, too, and we have the latest word from the Jumping Frog, who has now jumped back two thousand years into Bœotia (personally conducted by Dr. Van Dyke), forward into the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, and back into the author's retranslation. We venture to remind this Wandering Jew among athletes that jumping is, as the old English reading-book says of cricket, "a manly exercise, but full of admonition."

Mr. James Lane Allen is still loyal to Kentucky; he is still a devotee of Nature, and can describe her moods with loving fidelity; his chief interest is still the problem of a soul—or, preferably, a pair of souls; and his writing has gained in force, precision, and beauty. These are the main inferences we draw from 'The Reign of Law.' The book has its oddities and impossibilities. In that curious essay—half poem, half table of statistics—on "Hemp," which Mr. Allen prefixes to the whole, we see the decline of the hemp-growing industry in Kentucky a *vera causa* of the decline of American shipping. This is no more serious a dislocation, or inversion, of the facts than is Mr. Allen's turning back the theological dial several degrees. Just the ferment of new thought troubling the old, which he precisely locates in Kentucky during the sixties, could not have been discovered anywhere in this country at exactly that date. But we have been authoritatively assured that it is absurd to suppose Mr. Allen subject to the limitations of time and space, in these high matters; so, as far as mere chronology is concerned, we must perforce say, "With thee conversing, I forget all Time," and stay the critic's hand. But we are bound to record our sense of unnaturalness in a theological struggle that never could have been on land or sea, when we come to the details of Mr. Allen's David wrestling with the angel of doubt, and not letting it go till it blessed him. Through all this we remain unconvinced and obdurate, willing captives though we yield ourselves even here to the idealistic charm of the style, and much as we appreciate—none more—the poetic delicacy of the author's mind and manner. Amid all our noisy and knowing "realists," and the crowding of the novelists made mad by much historical learning, Mr. Allen pursues his vision splendid as one apart.

The Philosophical Theory of the State. By Bernard Bosanquet. Macmillan Co. 1899.

The title of this essay is somewhat pretentious. It had been more modest in the author to call it *a* rather than *the* philosophical theory. For our own part we should prefer to entitle it a metaphysical theory of the State. It is substantially Hegelian, and has its roots in the doctrines of the mediæval Realists. We do not find that Mr. Bosanquet has contributed much that is novel to this ancient theory, although his exposition of it is in many respects commendable. His tone is at all events entirely free from harshness, and while he sometimes obscures his points by verbosity, be generally makes them clear in the end. But the criticisms that were originally made of the assumptions of Realism are as applicable now as then. We have only to ask the question, Is the State an entity in the same sense as a human being? in order to find out that the conception of *universalia ante rem* is practically untenable. We can see, and hear, and touch human beings, but States have an invisible and intangible existence. Just so soon as we begin to reason of the State as if it were an independent reality instead of an abstraction, we inevitably make it a being superior to man, and it is but a step farther to make rulers beings superior to their subjects.

The particular form in which this fallacy is advocated by the school which Mr. Bosanquet represents, is that of the wills of man. Voluntary action may be of two kinds; it may be in response to desires and impulses, or it may be in accordance with enlightened reason. In the latter case we have the *real* will in operation. When a man does what we think he ought to, we say that he is acting according to his real will. When he does what he thinks he ought to, but what we think he ought not to, then he is not carrying out his real will. That, of course, is not the way in which Mr. Bosanquet puts it, but it is necessarily implied in his theory. We may grant that "the good at which I aim extends beyond my trivial or momentary self—that is to say, is universal as against myself as particular." But the great question, so far as human liberties are concerned, is whether I am to judge of this good, or to take the judgment of some one else.

"The average individual," Mr. Bosanquet asserts, "such as each of us takes himself to be in his ordinary trivial moods, when he sees, or thinks he sees, nothing in life but his own private interest and amusement—this average individual is no longer accepted as the real self or individuality." In order to be ourselves, we must be always becoming something which we are not. Hence, we may speak without a contradiction of being forced to be free.

> "It is possible for us to acquiesce, as rational beings, in a law and order which, on the whole, makes for the possibility of asserting our true or universal selves, at the very moment when this law and order is constraining our particular private wills in a way which we resent, or even condemn. Such a law and order, maintained by force, which we recognize as, on the whole, the instrument of our greatest self-affirmation, is a system of rights; and our liberty, or, to use a good old expression, our liberties, may be identified with such a system considered as the condition and guarantee of our becoming the best that we have in us to be, that is, of becoming ourselves. And, because such an order is the embodiment, up to a certain point, of a self or system of will which we recognize as what ought to be, as against the indolence, ignorance, or rebellion of our casual private selves, we may rightly call it a system of self-government or free government, . . . all of us, as casual private units, being subject to an order which expresses, up to a certain point, the rational self or will which, as rational beings, we may be assumed to recognize as imperative."

No doubt anarchy is intolerable. Under the worst of despotisms there may be more liberty than under no government at all. But the reason is that, where anarchy prevails, force, arbitrary force, is all-powerful. Government differs from anarchy for the better in the degree in which force is dispensed with, and the best society would be that in which individuals are constrained by their own consciences and by public opinion rather than by law. The theory which Mr. Bosanquet elaborates does not sufficiently distinguish the rulers, who exercise force, from the society—which is properly the state—which acts by moral suasion. A state, or society, may thus have a very different constitution from its government. The "real will," to use Mr. Bosanquet's expression, of the society may be hostile to the will of the rulers. Rulers are to be regarded as quite as capable of thwarting the ends and ideals of a society as of promoting them. But the tendency is almost irresistible to regard the Government as expressing the will and aim of the subjects.

Mr. Bosanquet's examination of the views of Rousseau and Mill is interesting and effective, but we cannot comment on it. We are approaching, in this country, a period of Constitutional agitation and possibly modification which will turn the thoughts of our citizens toward the discussion of theories of the state, and such books as this will command readers. While we cannot accept Mr. Bosanquet's fundamental assumption, there is much in his argument that is suggestive, and we commend his careful essay to all students of political science.

The Life of Madame de Longueville. By Mrs. Alfred Cock. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1899.

Mrs. Alfred Cock writes the first Life of Mme. de Longueville which is to be found in English, and, apart from critical or biographical essays, no French author has made her his special subject since the days of Bourgoing de Villefore, 160 years ago. From the death of Richelieu to the end of the Fronde she had a career which is without parallel among the lives of French women, and into which the most exceptional elements enter. To the highest lineage, to youth and beauty, to command over her brother, the hero of Rocroi, she joined ambition and a restless spirit of intrigue. The court of France provided scope for her attractions, and the minority of Louis XIV. permitted her plots to multiply. As it was an age of memoirs, stories about her abound, and even the weightiest works of history are filled with references to her name. Some knowledge of her actions and character will always be a good introduction to the study of the period when the nobles of France rallied for their last revolt against the Crown.

Without the aid of her elder brother, Mme. de Longueville might have accomplished something in politics, but her influence over the Duc d'Enghien (or Condé, as we may more fitly call him) brought schemers to her side who would never have joined her but for their confidence in a great general. She had the pride of the Bourbons and their love of power, with about an average share of the tactlessness which that family has ever displayed. She could organize a "Cave of Adullam," but could not hold the disaffected together. Mazarin's wretched system of finance, in addition to his Italian birth, had so stirred the nobles and the nation that Mme. de Longueville and her faction needed only to observe a masterly inactivity. They lost the game by their stupid haste. As a statesman, Mazarin had failed on the domestic side as clearly as he had succeeded in his foreign policy. When the peace came, a heavy reckoning with the nation was in store for him. De Retz and Mme. de Longueville tried intrigue where none was required. tarving Mazarin out of his po- challenged him to a duel with ch he could use better than

We comment thus on Mme. de Longueville's part in the wars of the Fronde because Mrs. Cock makes the political aspect of her heroine's life more prominent than the personal. She avoids taking the view which the Comte de Ste.-Aulaire has espoused, namely, that the Frondeurs had noble purposes and might, if successful, have anticipated the French Revolution. But if she cannot praise the cause, and if she acknowledges the Duchess's love of heading a coterie even when it led straight towards treason, she shows herself rather too indulgent in her analysis of motives. We cannot think that Mme. de Longueville was very deeply stirred by the popular grievances of which Paris became the champion. She shared the turbulence of the great feudatories who had lost their power at the end of the Middle Ages without losing their pride. She would be second to no woman, not even to the Queen Regent, in the degree of her political influence; and whither ambition took her she recked little.

Mme. de Longueville lived to be sixty, but all the action of her day is crowded into the decade 1643-1653, when she was still in the glory of early womanhood. Her life as an episode in public affairs forms a perfect contrast to that of Mme. de Maintenon or to that of Mme. des Ursins. She disappears from politics at thirty-four; they begin at a later age than that of her retirement; and their work had real importance, while her schemes were wholly unfruitful. Mrs. Cock's description of Mme. de Longueville's later years, and particularly of her connection with Port Royal, is good. The repentance of French women in the seventeenth century is a large subject of itself, but we shall not question the sincerity of Mme. de Longueville.

What, it may be asked, does Mrs. Cock say of La Rochefoucauld? As may be inferred from her fondness for Mme. de Longueville, she has a strong dislike of him. We need not take up the question of how far the Duchess permitted her gallantries to extend, but the bare mention of her name beside that of La Rochefoucauld recalls the difference of opinion between Victor Cousin and Sainte-Beuve regarding the lady's character. Mrs. Cock accepts Cousin's attitude entirely, and thus lays herself open to severe attack. Cousin styled himself the "posthumous lover" of Mme. de Longueville, and wrote as such, not as a critical historian. But the affair cannot be adjudicated here. We must say, with Sainte-Beuve, "Laissons donc cette querelle interminable et toujours pendante entre Mme. de Longueville et M. de La Rochefoucauld." Our sole observation is that Mrs. Cock does not give any hint of there being two sides to the quarrel.

The shortcomings which spring from affection can never be condemned with much harshness, and the worst we shall say of Mrs. Cock's book is that it seems too strenuous a defence of Mme. de Longueville. The author ascribes to malicious gossip many stories which we must consider well-founded, and she is over lenient towards Mme. de Longueville's political misdemeanors. Otherwise, this biography is a creditable one, although Condé was not (as it states) a greater soldier than Turenne, and France did not get her natural frontier at the Peace of Westphalia.

Java et ses Habitants. **Par J. Chailley-Bert.** Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.

M. Chailley-Bert is no novice in the study of colonial problems, for he has written with acuteness and learning upon French colonies, and especially on Indo-China, on Dutch officialdom in the Netherland Indies, and on Colonization Companies under the Old Régime. He has also treated special subjects, such as education in and the emigration of women to the French colonies, and upon the British in Hongkong and Burmah. His style is attractive and pleasing, and there is a luminous analysis of the matter contained at the head of each chapter. While his main object in this work is to compare French colonial methods with those of Great Britain and Holland, yet his substance and point of view are valuable to all statesmen and intending colonizers. At the same time one must, in weighing his praise of the Dutch, bear in mind his Dedication, to "le ministre réformateur des colonies Hollandaises," by "his pupil, admirer, and friend."

Part First of his book deals with the native society of Java. Here one secret of the success of the Hollanders is revealed in their practice of the old Roman policy, "Divide and rule." The Javanese do not form a nation. There are three groups of the islanders, each with strongly marked characteristics which isolate them from the other two groups. The Surdanese in the west are economical, agricultural, and religious. The Javanese proper, who are improvident and live only for the day, are most submissive to law. The Madurese are the most refractory to culture and are fiercely independent. There is but little real religion and scarcely any morality. Superstition abounds and is all-powerful. Slowly, but surely, however, the Dutch influence is modifying that of heredity and Orientalism.

There are about fifty thousand Dutch in Java—soldiers, officers, planters, merchants, etc. The planters live tranquilly on their coffee plantations. Every Dutch city is like a large park, with avenues, vegetation, houses, gardens, and abundance of trees. There is great simplicity of manners with much comfort. The chief aim of life with many is to live plainly and gather riches, with a view to spending their later days at home at The Hague. With so many divers factors, native and foreign, each distinct from the other, government is not the most easy thing in the world. There are the Holland domination, the Dutch colonists, the natives, the Eurasians and other mixed races, the Chinese, and the Arabs. No union of any of these races is known, except temporary ones for financial benefit. In separate and brilliant sketches, the author treats of the Japanese, the Arabs, the Chinese, giving more space to the last, because these present a grave "problem," the desired solution of which is to get rid of them.

Tracing the history of the colonial system of the Dutchmen, in which they and the Javanese made a sort of political alliance, the author shows that the government of Java is at basis a protectorate, and that the Dutch protection is applied to every one and to all classes. Especially are the natives protected against the Europeans. There has been great reform of late years in the methods of selecting and training European administrators for the Dutch Indies.

Formerly officeholders were recruited by chance among the elements offered—that is, the Dutch had their system of haphazard and spoils. Now all this is changed; the appointee must know the native institutions, the habits, and the language of the conquered people. The new officers are put at first into subordinate positions, until the local peculiarities of thought, language, and custom are understood. From the lowest to almost the very highest position, the foreign officers are assisted by native functionaries continuously, so that the one class depends upon the other, both working in harmony. This is the whole idea of Dutch administration in Java—to understand the native interests, to respect them, and to reconcile them with those of the Europeans. Above the lower or local officeholders, there is a higher administration of advisers, councillors, and inspectors, and, over all, the Governor-General.

The author treats of the education of the natives, discussing what should be taught, and what pupils should be admitted to the lower and the higher grades. The beginnings of education were with the missionaries, Catholic and Protestant. The East India Company did nothing. Both religionists, ignorant of the native language, taught Latin at first as a common idiom. Then the Protestants broke away from this, and taught the Dutch tongue. Great improvements in methods were made after 1815. After various modifications we have the system of to-day, in which the Dutch officers learn Malay, but the natives are not encouraged to master Dutch. M. Chailley-Bert holds that the consequence of educating the natives is in every country fatal to the suzerainty of the conquerors, because it leads to emancipation. The "duty of civilization" and "the interests of the native people" come into conflict. He tells us what he would do if he were Governor of Java, with power. There should be a plan of study suited in detail to the different classes. He would have technical teaching, arts, and trades for the people, technical administrative training for the sons of the petty nobles, and a liberal education for the sons of the great chiefs; but all of this should be in the home schools, and not in the schools and universities of Europe.

A long chapter in the appendix is very properly given to a description of the Botanical Institute of Buitenzorg, which is a scientific and practical instrumentality, greatly assisting agriculture and carrying high and far the renown of the country. The work has an index.

Orestes A. Brownson's Middle Life. From 1845 to 1855. By Henry F. Brownson. Detroit, Mich.: H. F. Brownson. 1899.

Your convert is apt to be more orthodox than those born to his new-found religion, and Orestes Brownson was not an exception to the rule. Moreover, nothing if not controversial, he at once developed differences with other Roman Catholics, and made them the subject of elaborate discussion in his *Quarterly Review*, which he kept up after his conversion, with much ecclesiastical assistance, mostly financial. He was quite equal to furnishing all the articles himself, and occasionally did so, filling one number with a single article reviewing Theodore Parker's "Discourse of Matters Pertaining to Religion." His first controversy after his conversion to Romanism was with no less a person than Newman, who had made his peace with the Mother Church almost simultaneously with Brownson. The bridge that carried him over was his own "Essay on the Development of Christian Doctrine." It would never do, thought Brownson, to concede that there had been any development of Roman Catholic doctrine. The concession was a plain abandonment of the *semper* part of the *semper, ubique, ab omnibus* claim of the Roman Church. So hard and fast was Brownson in his new belief—the last of many kinds—that he was always suspicious of the English Tractarians. They were too apt to consider the Roman Church the logical outcome of the Anglican, but Brownson would have them know there was no such logical relation between the two. It is easy to imagine what scorn he would have rained upon the recent Anglican claim for the validity of Anglican orders. He insisted that an Anglican was not a Christian, and needed to be converted as much as a Unitarian or Mormon. The scheme of Pius Ninth's dogma of infallibility was originally built, we are told, on the lines of Newman's development theory, but, as so built, was repudiated by Pius, who would have his infallibility as old as St. Peter, the first Bishop of Rome. Another respect in which Brownson found his new friends too easy-going was that of eternal punishment. Nothing but hell for those beyond the Church's pale—such was his creed; and he denounced as namby-pamby the softening of this creed by his Roman Catholic associates.

Brownson was always an ardent politician, and after his conversion his politics were such as to give no offence to his co-religionists. He hailed Webster's 7th of March speech as the greatest of his life, as "rising above mere intellectual greatness and approaching the morally sublime." The son assures us that "no man in this country was more strongly opposed to chattel slavery." In short, "Brownson and Webster were equally opposed to the institution of slavery, and to the Abolitionists' plan for getting rid of it"—not only to the Abolitionists', apparently, but to any other. The Free-Soil party was "a party formed against the common reason, common sense, and common interests of mankind"; "its leaders, almost to a man, infidels and blasphemers." "Mr. Winthrop, the Whig candidate for the Senate, was not a whit sounder than Mr. Sumner, and would have made a far more dangerous Senator." Brownson agreed entirely with Seward and Parker that there was a "higher law" than that of the Constitution, but only the infallible Church could at any time decide what it was; and she "wasn't going to tell."

This biography is not meant to be amusing, but it is extremely so in spots, and especially in those which correspond to Brownson's criticisms on his literary contemporaries. Wordsworth had much to answer for in "the sins of the Brownings, the Barretts, the Tennysons, the Lowells." The elder Dana had over-praised Wordsworth, but he had overthrown "those Boston idols, the utilitarian Edgeworths." Lowell, in general, was severely dealt with, and his "Vision of Sir Launfal" in particular, because of its indifference to sacramental piety. Emerson's 'Poems' of 1847 was pronounced the saddest book Brownson had ever read. "We know these poems; we understand them. They are not sacred chants; they are hymns to the devil. Not God, but Satan, do these praise." Bancroft's 'History of the United States' was found to be another infidel publication, and Hawthorne's 'Scarlet Letter' meets with the sternest condemnation on account of the sympathy which it excites for Hester Prynne. All his old Unitarian friends were made to feel the lash of Brownson's criticisms, at one time or another. It is refreshing to find him criticising Parkman for his skepticism as to the Indian's capacity for civilization. But Trojan and Tyrian were treated by him without much discrimination. The Roman Catholic novelists were far too lax in their theology for his exigent demands. They did not understand or fairly represent their own religion.

There is much interesting correspondence with Brownson's Roman Catholic contemporaries, Montalembert and others. His attitude towards them is so knowing and infallible that he should have lived to be the first Pope under the new infallible régime. When Newman became rector of the Catholic University of Ireland, he invited Brownson to become a professor of—geography! Brownson objected that he was not much of a geographer. A philosophy-of-religion chair was then offered, and Brownson accepted it, but he had given offence to certain Irishmen in America, hence, to others in Ireland; and he advised Newman, for his own comfort and the interests of the University, to bring the negotiation to an end. Newman did so, with some feeble show of disappointment and regret.

The Elementary School Record. University Press of Chicago. 1900.

Esquisse d'un Enseignement basé sur la Psychologie de l'Enfant. Par Paul Lacombe. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.

Those who take any interest, even the slightest, in lightening and at the same time rendering more effective the task of children in learning all that they need to know in order to become efficient human beings, will study for themselves the account of the work done in the Elementary School of the University of Chicago, as it appears from time to time in the School Record. Professor Dewey seems to have solved to perfection the first problem in education—how to keep the children at a keen point of interest and attention. According to the testimony of all who have seen the school, these children are active and unflagging, and, as a natural consequence, happy the live-long school-day. The psychologists have lately come to the conclusion that the function of childhood is to furnish a time for play—that in play the child performs over and over again, in a simpler form and without any pressing responsibility for having them turn out successful, what will be the serious actions of his future life. We have sadly interfered with the plan of Nature in setting him down at his book and forcing upon him the sad task of plain learning. There seems to be no escape, indeed, from the necessity of cramming into his poor head a vast amount of pure knowledge which will be of service to him in after life, but Professor Dewey has devised a plan for making real work, and a large amount of it, as delightful and as absorbing as purposeless play is to the unthinking.

We have not space here to give the details of the method, but only to mention one feature of it from which the idea of the whole can be gained. The children weave, but not in the babyish, kindergarten way; they are taught to reproduce the processes of weaving (including spinning, carding, etc.) in the various ways in which they were carried out by primitive peoples long ago. Different fibres are studied, and simple plans are devised by the children themselves for working them up into fabrics. It often happens that they reproduce, with more or less exactness, the idea of the earliest inventors. The machines thus thought out (with or without the suggestion of the teacher) are constructed by the children themselves during the manual-training hour, and afterwards they are used in the actual weaving. This is only one instance of the way in which the children are kept at learning by doing, and are led to reproduce in their own school-life the successive stages of activity and of thought of the past ages of man. This, of course, cannot be carried out without something like genius as well as erudition on the part of the teacher, even after its general features have been worked up by the enthusiastic originator of the scheme; and it will be long before its admirable methods will become widespread. Moreover, it will certainly be asked, Has the young generation a right to receive from us such sacrifice of talent and of money as would be involved in carrying it out on any large scale? The children of twelve in Professor Dewey's school keep the school accounts; it is to be surmised that the per capita sums with which they deal are very large. But, aside from that, it is a great thing achieved that the plan has been actually carried out, and with success.

The idea of making children learn only what they are interested in learning has impressed itself strongly at the same time upon a Frenchman, M. Lacombe. The keen wit and cutting satire with which the author lays bare the absurdities of present methods will be a source of intellectual enjoyment to every reader; he will also be easily convinced that something should be done to create a more fitting environment for the helpless child, one in which he is active spontaneously and not from being forced into becoming a receptacle for uncared-for knowledge. But the only plan that M. Lacombe offers in substitute is a little too simple for meeting so grave a difficulty. He would have the children appear in the schoolroom at an appointed time, and the teachers as well. A teacher, or one of the clever boys or girls, starts a topic for discussion, and the eager children ask for more; if they do not, they are left alone in their idleness until another day. But the clever ones are easily interested, and the others are soon led, by suggestion and imitation, to follow in their wake.

It is so extremely desirable that children should be in an active instead of a receptive state of mind during their school years, in a state of spontaneous rather than of forced attention (by which one means a state of attention awakened directly by the subject-matter presented to them, instead of indirectly by rewards, and punishments, and examination marks), that every effort should be welcomed to break down existing methods, especially when the effort is such a brilliant attack upon existing deficiencies as is that of M. Lacombe. It is to be feared, however, that his plan has, besides others, one fundamental and fatal weakness—there is great danger of its introducing an atmosphere of artificiality if not of deceit. The teacher whose first aim it must be to make subjects attractive, is not a teacher in the right frame of mind. Moreover, a certain amount of direct coercion is good for the child at this age. It is a great gain if the child is enabled to work with pleasure in spite of the fact that he also works because he must. For the coercion of real life, which the child is too much of a wild Indian to be able to feel for himself, we must substitute the direct coercion of the teacher.

A History of Modern Philosophy: A Sketch of the History of Philosophy from the Close of the Renaissance to Our Own Day. By Harald Höffding. Translated from the German edition by B. E. Meyer. Macmillan Co. 1900. 2 vols. 8vo, pp. 532, 600.

At the nineteenth century's midday, a doubt used to be entertained whether human powers were adequate to writing the complete history of a great branch of science entirely from primary sources. If the requirement is that the whole matter shall be thoroughly well digested, the feat remains, probably, unaccomplished yet. The larger histories of Modern Philosophy have hitherto belonged to one or other of two varieties. There have been essays, long and heavy, on the leading philosophical tendencies of the successive generations, mentioning none but the supreme productions. These have been too vague and too much colored by their authors' predilections to repay more than a skimming. There have, besides, been set chronicles, one painfully like another, each containing a quasi-bibliography of the subject, with more or less penetrative criticisms of a few writings, adopting current views of the rest, and enumerating a throng of publications with which the compiler's acquaintance seems limited to their names and some guess at their affiliations. These are extremely useful works, but no more entitled to be called histories than a gazetteer to be called a geography. Höffding is the first to furnish Modern Philosophy with a history, in the high sense of the word, an intelligible and interesting chart of the course of the main stream of thought, based upon actual soundings of his own, upon studies minute, critical, and mature. Nor have these been jotted down as in a notebook, but generalized with unusually good literary judgment. If he calls his work a sketch, it must be because only the great questions are touched upon, and because minor writings that he has not himself carefully read and considered are left unmentioned. For in other respects it is no sketch at all, but an elaborately finished work of literature.

The very table of contents promises freshness, especially in dwelling most upon neglected men and movements. The "philosophy of romanticism," as the author rather too wittily (and a little anachronistically) calls German post-Kantian idealism and its accompaniments, is confined to a seventh of the whole space, instead of its regular quarter. Two hundred of the eleven hundred pages go to Positivism, J. S. Mill and Darwin by themselves getting ninety, against the 6, 8, 10, 26, which are the respective proportional allotments of the two combined in four reputable histories of modern philosophy that happen to lie at our hand. A still greater novelty, and a most welcome one, is the allowance of 160 pages to the philosophy of the Renaissance. This is treated under two heads, "The Discovery of Man" and "The New Conception of the World." Thomæus and Cæsalpinus being passed by without mention, which can only be because Höffding has not read them, we come to Pomponazzi, of whose half-dozen books interesting to the historian of philosophy only that one of which there is a modern reprint is noticed. We discover how broad is the author's notion of a history of philosophy when we find eight of his large pages consigned to Macchiavelli, whose 'Discorsi' as well as the 'Principe' have been studied. Althusius is another figure not before introduced into the history of philosophy. "The Discovery of Man" ends with a chapter on Jakob Boehme precisely equal in length to the account of Macchiavelli. Under "The New Conception of the World" we meet only familiar names; but the treatment continues to be original. Of the forty pages occupied with Giordano Bruno not one would be willingly spared by the reader.

It was an excellent idea, after the Renaissance, to appropriate a space equal to that which Bruno fills to Lionardo, Keppler, Galileo, and Bacon. Copernicus had been already treated. For the scientific men, however, the execution is not at the height of the conception. It is no light task, even for an astronomer, in these days, to read Keppler's great book 'De Motu Stellæ Martis' so as fully to appreciate the motive and import of each step of the investigation. Yet no work of special science can be more significant for philosophy, in that no other describes with anything like the same fulness all the steps of a difficult hypothetic reasoning; and, perhaps, man never achieved another reasoning of any kind so elaborate and so triumphant, while its historical influence was of commensurate importance. It cannot be concealed that Höffding has no idea of what the work really was. The chapter on Galileo is not quite so inadequate. The author has evidently run through Galileo's correspondence, and has not contented himself with the famous dialogues. Still he does not begin to do Galileo justice. When one knows next to nothing of the matter except what the celebrated *Giornata Terza* of the 'Discorsi intorno a Due Nuove Scienze' discloses, the founding of the science of dynamics seems such an easy matter! The *ars celare artem* was never carried further. It is requisite to have other reading in order to place one's self where Galileo set out, in that state of mind in which it was considered manifest that when we throw a ball, that which causes it to move on after it leaves the hand can only be the rush of air behind it. It is requisite to have some experience in physical experimentation to appreciate the fineness of those observations of Galileo, made with almost no apparatus, by which he refuted that false notion. It is requisite to be one's self something of an investigator to realize how far he yet stood from his final clear understanding of the matter, even after he had refuted that error, though the little-read 'Sermones de motu gravium' come in to help us here. The whole investigatory procedure of Keppler is laid bare to whoever chooses to peruse it, while we can gather what that of Galileo was only from slight indications. Those are, however, quite sufficient to show that quantitative experimentation played a much greater part in it than the reader of the *Giornata Terza* would gather that it did, Höffding might as well have read nothing else, as far as his conception of Galileo is concerned.

We can notice in this interesting and original work only a few points here and there selected to illustrate its characteristics. Equal space is allotted to Descartes and to Hobbes. Spinoza gets more, as much as Bruno; and Spinoza is pronounced to be *the* thinker of the seventeenth century—high praise considering that the author rates seventeenth-century philosophy as far more accurate and valuable than that of the nineteenth. Newton, with his doctrine that space is a peculiar entity, receives some notice, which is more than he does in most histories of philosophy. But Professor Höffding evidently has no suspicion that Newton's proposition is less purely gratuitous than the opposite notion that position and motion are entirely relative. Hartley is disposed of in two pages. The other father of the association of ideas is mentioned only as "a little-known author called Gay." Rousseau is treated with some respect, and at greater length than either Locke, Berkeley, or Hume. Kant has evidently been studied with the utmost thoroughness; and a good many small points are made which appear to be new. Thus, the suggestion that the 'Kritik der reinen Vernunft' must have been largely a patchwork of detached papers strikes one as happy. Again, in regard to his metaphysical dualism, several passages are cited whose bearing upon this question might easily escape the most attentive student. Yet, after all, Höffding apparently fails to see that the decisive consideration in Kant's mind was no other than that for which, in his second edition, he invented the most prominent situation he could contrive. But it is curious how insensible some men are to this argument, although to others it seems a knock-out. The chapters on the German philosophy of the Hegelian period are the only ones where a little skipping can ever enter the reader's thoughts. But interest is thoroughly roused again when the more recent Germans are reached, especially in the dozen pages about Dühring, whose 'Natürliche Dialektik' is treated with admiration, and much preferred to his later doctrine. Nothing subsequent to 1880 enters into the *cadre* of the work; and much that is previous to that date is too close to us to be accurately sized up. There is not a word about Renouvier, whose principal work was published in the fifties.

The second-hand translation, though authorized, is regrettable. It has been executed by one of those types of German humility who undertake to improve upon our language and rules of style before they know English well enough to avoid effects, now comical, now ungainly, now indecent, now enigmatic, now self-stultifying, now merely silly. He improves a little, however, as the work proceeds; and, besides, the reader becomes inured to his lingo. A book that in another dress would have been a literary treat has, we are bound to warn the reader, thus been rendered somewhat unpleasant reading. The volumes, though large, are comfortable to hold and read. The print is good, the paper particularly so. Each volume is provided with a sufficient index.

The Kinetic Theory of Gases: Elementary Treatise with Mathematical Appendices. By Dr. Oskar Emil Meyer. Translated from the second revised edition by Robert E. Baynes. Longmans, Green & Co. 1899. 8vo, pp. 472.

The kinetical theory of gases is without doubt the great triumph of that corpuscular philosophy which endeavors to explain the universe by turning its splendid tapestry wrong side out, and showing that it is all nothing but bits of matter moving under their attractions and repulsions, according to the three laws of motion. As an ultimate explanation, even of that which it contemplates explaining, the corpuscular doctrine was doomed from the moment when the seed of evolutionism was dropped into the intellectual soil, since it provides no possible way in which the state of things it supposes, the existence of the atoms and their attractions, could have come about—not to speak of its leaving inexplicable the laws of motion, with space and time, the semi-rationality of which things calls loudly for further elucidation. But the spirit of science (which much better deserves the name of philosophy, or pursuit of knowledge, than any cock-sure metaphysical system does) is to adopt provisionally the simplest promising hypothesis—which, in being simple, is necessarily thereby extreme, radical, and skeptical—to follow it out rigidly to its last consequences, and, by carefully comparing these with the phenomena, ascertain what amendments of the hypothesis may be requisite. In the case of the kinetical theory of gases, no positive disagreements of the phenomena with the hypothesis have ever yet been met with; but, on the contrary, each new deduction that the restless activity of the mathematicians brings to light is still found to fit into its place among the facts, as each piece of a boy's dissected map finds its place as soon as he has once begun to fit the pieces rightly together. There is in all science no other theory so interesting in these three respects at once: first, for the logic of the inductive argument, as it has been historically followed out; second, for the subtle deductive reasoning by which the consequences of the hypothesis are, one by one, getting discovered; and third, for the insight it affords into the ways in which different forms of phenomena may arise in nature.

The work of Oskar Emil Meyer has had a great charm for the generation of physicists now beginning to grow old. They were not, for the most part, such accomplished mathematicians as are those who are now taking the stage; and Meyer's plan of dividing his book into two parts, of which the larger called for no more mathematical processes than anybody may perform in his head, while the other set forth deductions in the most elementary way that the subject permitted, suited those men very well. But this is not all. The first division shows how the consequences of the theory compare with observation; and to see one phenomenon after another falling into the ranks of the theory's defenders, as Meyer skilfully, yet simply, shows they do, is mighty pretty and delightful. This division of the work is, from the nature of the case, very nearly a history of the whole course of the investigation; and we do not know what more instructive basis for a course of lectures on the logic of explanatory science could be found than the history of the theory of gases. Whoever cares to see how explanatory research proceeds cannot fail to be interested in this handsome volume. As for the mathematical division, that, too, affords excellent exercises in reasoning, though of a different kind of reasoning, and exercises of quite an opposite character, since this division is infested with subtile fallacies.

To give a single plain example, the author professes to demonstrate that the mere assumption that the molecules of a gas move in broken straight lines suffices by itself to account for Bayle's law that at constant temperature the volume of a gas is inversely proportional to the pressure. Anybody can see that if the molecules are incompressible bullets, this is not so, whether their motion is rectilinear or not, since in that case there is a minimum volume which no pressure, however great, can diminish. Meyer's wrong conclusion arises from his assuming, in his mathematical work, that any infinitesimal volume within the gas is filled with matter in all respects like, and moving like, that in any other such volume; in flagrant conflict with the theory that the gas consists of separate molecules. In the revised edition such fallacies are not so easily found as in the first, but there remains abundance of game for the logical sportsman.

We may remark, by the way, that this translation is much to be preferred to the original, since the additions have been incorporated with the text, and the translator's notes, though infrequent and short, are always pertinent and useful. The English bears some disagreeable traces of being a rendering from German, but they are not very offensive. The non-mathematical division has been brought nearly to date with all the old ability of its author. There are a great number of useful references to memoirs, and, considering how rich the book is, we are inclined to regret that it should not have been made a repertory of all that is really needed to compare the theory with the facts that have been brought to light. But nobody at all acquainted with the subject can fail to remark that much work has either been passed by unmentioned, or too slightly noticed, both on the side of theory and on that of observation. The author's motive evidently was not to fatigue the reader, or choke with dry details the life and movement by which the work is eminently distinguished. There are books, as our readers know to their sorrow, that are neither popular nor scientific, but fall between the two: this one is at once popular, or, at least, very readable, and highly scientific, at the same time; for, though called elementary, it leaves no important feature of the theory untouched, excepting where the theory crosses the border into the domain of liquids.

Among the special points which will be found important for those who are up in the subject, we may mention further argument concerning the author's views of diffusion, a discussion of the effect of dissociation upon viscosity, a theory of the resistance of the air and of the reaction of a jet, and a synthesis of all the evidence concerning the size of molecules.

Naval Yarns of Seafights, etc., from 1616 to 1831. Collected and edited by W. H. Long.

London: Gibbings & Co.; New York: F. P. Harper. 1899.

Many of these quaint sea yarns and nautical notes appear for the first time in a printed form. Most of them seem truthful contemporary pictures of doings at sea and in port; and the battle narratives, though short, will afford data for the historian. Such portions of the collection as exhibit life afloat in the eighteenth century are of especial interest, though of a coarseness not infrequent in literature of the time, especially in relation to the sea.

A description of two sea-fights of the seventeenth century is followed by several pages of quaint directions for carrying on a naval action, taken from the 'Seaman's Grammar' of Captain John Smith, sometime Governor of Virginia and Admiral of New England. These instructions cover the handling of a ship under sail in all the phases of a sea engagement as fought in the middle of the seventeenth century. The midshipmen are directed to see the tops and yards well provided with stones, fire-pots, and "brasse bales," to throw amongst the enemy before "entering" (as boarding a ship was then called). Upon a surrender, you are to "examine them [the enemy] in particular, but always have as much care of their wounded as your owne." Furthermore, young captains were instructed, if either young women or aged men were found on board, "to use them nobly; which is ever the nature of a generous disposition."

The journal of a naval surgeon, though vivid in its description of ship life, is full of the faults referred to as characteristic of the literature of the eighteenth century. On the other hand, the account of the loss of H. M. S. *Phœnix*, commanded by Sir Hyde Parker, written by Lieut. Archer, who was on board at the time, is one of the best descriptions, in every sense, of a shipwreck that can be found in print. The *Phœnix* was lost on the coast of Cuba on the 4th of October, 1780, in a hurricane, and Mr. Archer, the first lieutenant, not only wrote well concerning this affair, but evidently acted in a most gallant and creditable manner both before the wreck occurred and afterwards. Further on in the book we find very interesting phases of life on board an English ship of war at the time of the battle of the Nile, in an account by one of the gunner's crew of the *Goliah*, seventy-four, commanded by Captain Foley, one of Nelson's best commanders.

"My station," says this narrator, "was in the powder magazine, with the gunner. As we entered the bay [Aboukir], we stripped to our trousers, opened our ports, cleared, and every ship we passed gave them a broadside and three cheers. Any information we got was from the boys and women who carried the powder. The women behaved as well as the men, and got a present from the Grand Signior. When the French Admiral's ship blew up, the *Goliah* got such a shake we thought the after-part of her had blown up until the boys told us what it was. . . . I was much indebted to the gunner's wife, who gave her husband and me a drink of wine every now and then, which lessened our fatigue much. There were some of the women wounded, and one woman belonging to Leith died of her wounds and was buried on a small island in the bay. One woman bore a son in the heat of the action; she belonged to Edinburgh."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allen, F. O. The History of Enfield, Connecticut. Lancaster, Pa.: Wickersham Printing Co. Vol. I.
Bailey, Prof. L. H., and Miller, W. Cyclopedia of American Horticulture. E—M. Macmillan. $5.
Bazán, Doña Emilia P. Temprano y Con Sol, y tres otros Cuentos. New York: W. R. Jenkins. 35c.
Byars, W. V. "An American Commoner": The Life and Times of Richard Parks Bland: A Study of the Last Quarter of the Nineteenth Century. With an Introduction by William Jennings Bryan and Personal Reminiscences by Mrs. Richard Parks Bland. Columbia, Mo.: E. W. Stephens. $3.50.
Cortina, R. D. de la. Fortuna, y otros Cuentos. New York: W. R. Jenkins. 35c.
Cotton, Mrs. Olive A. Chafing-Dish Recipes. New York: A. Mackel & Co. 25c.
Dagnell, J. M. Love is in the Stomach, not the Heart. London: Marshall, Hall, Kent & Co.; Brooklyn: Published by the Author.
Damon, P. Jonathan's New Boy. Chicago: T. S. Denison. 25c.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 2, 1900.

The Week.

Light has at last broken through the fog surrounding Pekin. Dispatches have reached the outer world from the German, British, American, and Japanese embassies, dated as late as July 20, showing that the legations, after having been attacked continuously from June 20 to July 16 inclusive, were at last enjoying a truce, were well provisioned, and the inmates in good bodily condition. A further encouraging detail in the Japanese dispatch is the statement that the German, Russian, American, British, French, and half of the Japanese legations were still standing, and in condition suitable for defence. It is clear, therefore, that the Powers have been premature in assuming that the foreigners in Pekin were all dead, and that nothing could now be done to save them. Incidentally, the confirmatory good news is another vivid illustration of the brutality of yellow journalism. With nothing, apparently, to go upon except rumors and their own imaginings, unscrupulous correspondents in China have filled columns with hideous details of massacre, outrage, and pillage, and of flaming riot and anarchy on every hand. It is a relief to know that much of it is a tissue of lies, but it would be a greater relief if there were any assurance that the same sort of thing would not be repeated at the first opportunity.

The situation of the allies, in view of the actual condition of affairs in China, is certainly a difficult one. Whatever foundation there may be for the persistent reports of disagreement about the choice of a commander-in-chief, there is certainly a growing impatience at the failure of the international army to advance. If the legations at Pekin, with a handful of men and no special preparation for defence, have been able to withstand almost constant attack from thousands of Chinese troops and rioters since the 20th of June, there would seem to be some reason for thinking that the military prowess of the enemy has been overrated, and that a European army, even if not able to reach Pekin, might before this have secured command of the situation. On the other hand, if the foreigners are really being held as hostages, and if, as Li Hung Chang implies, a military advance will seal their fate once for all, the Powers have the hard alternative of pushing an advance which they know means death, perhaps in frightful form, to their imprisoned countrymen, or of making a bargain with the Chinese for their speedy and safe deliverance. Civilized states have an instinctive repugnance to bargains of this sort. Moreover, Li Hung Chang is a wily person, and the whole thing may turn out to be only an adroit game of bluff. If, however, the Chinese are sincere, and can really deliver our foreign representatives at Tientsin or any other place, there would seem to be nothing unreasonable in giving them a chance to do it. There would still be plenty of time to discuss "indemnity" and "satisfaction." It is not, of course, exactly in accord with diplomatic tradition thus to withdraw under fire, while as yet there is no formal state of war; but there are things more valuable than diplomatic tradition.

Admiral Kempff's account of the Taku bombardment shows conclusively that it was an act of war on the part of the allied commanders. For that reason, he very properly declined to take any part in it. Just why the naval officers thought it necessary to seize the Taku forts "temporarily," has never been satisfactorily explained. The correspondent of the *Ostasiatischer Lloyd*, who was on board the German gunboat *Iltis* during the action, says that the allied fleet determined to attack for two reasons. One was that the Chinese were laying mines in the river. The other was that they were strengthening the garrisons. In either case, the Chinese were perfectly within their rights. The English Admiral, however, appears to have thought it necessary to take the forts in order to protect the railway. But the true way to have gone about the matter would have been to demand guarantees from the Chinese commander. If these had been refused, it would have been time enough to talk of warlike measures. As the case stands, the foreigners took the aggressive, and began the war, if war there is. According to the *Ostasiatischer Lloyd's* correspondent, orders came from Pekin, "Kill all Europeans and blow all the ships in the river out of the water." But none of the naval officers has spoken of any such telegram, and it must be regarded as mythical. The standing orders of the Chinese General to resist attack were quite enough to account for his opening fire.

The celebration of amnesty which took place last week in Manila was not distinguished by spontaneous enthusiasm. According to the dispatch of the Associated Press, the people fail to perceive any tangible results from amnesty, and therefore say that they can see no reason for celebrating it. It is conceivable that the news of the killing of eighty-nine of the natives and the bombardment of their town, in revenge for the murder of a soldier, may have had a slightly chilling effect. These untutored savages may not have understood that this chastisement was mercifully intended, and that it really signified that American sovereignty, as President McKinley says, is "the symbol and pledge of peace, justice, law, religious freedom, education, and the security of life and property." Another very untoward circumstance was the prohibition by the Provost of the proposed display of the Filipino flag and of pictures of McKinley and Aguinaldo framed together. Such combinations indicate very rudimentary ideas of the real purpose of our occupation, and show that mistaken views of amnesty are prevalent. For Judge Taft and the members of the Commission to participate in a fiesta marked by such shocking incongruities would have been, of course, impracticable. Such participation would have encouraged the unfortunate delusion which the promoters of the festivity entertained concerning the possibility of independence under American protection. The fiesta is said to be generally considered in Manila to have been premature and unfortunate. Such a view of it appears to be fully justified by the circumstances.

In striking contrast with it is the apparent success of the British in pacifying the disturbed parts of South Africa. The British troops have not, indeed, overtaken President Krüger's railroad capital, nor have they escaped occasional reverses in the field, but they continue to follow up the roving bands of Boers, and to make the guerrilla warfare of less and less consequence, and they have just compelled the surrender of Gen. Prinsloo and 1,000 men. More than that, however, Lord Roberts is contriving to set up efficient civil government in the various places under his control, and paving the way for the contentment and prosperity which it has been foreseen would ultimately follow the British occupation. In the southern part of the Transvaal, as well as in the Orange Free State, this civil conquest is now practically assured, and "pacification" comes near to being an accomplished fact. Evidently, our representatives in the Philippines have something to learn about the business of handling subject races. Lord Roberts has not talked much about either "benevolent assimilation" or the "strong arm of authority," but somehow or other he seems to be attaining the one and using the other with marked success.

It seems strange that the Porto Ricans should hate us, in view of all we have done for them, but if the observations of a *Herald* correspondent are correct, they do hate us, in very truth. It appears that the local magistrates are giving the

Americans a taste of Spanish law, just to show them what it is like when strictly enforced; and the Americans naturally feel that they are being persecuted. In the meantime, the Commission that was to reorganize the courts and revise the laws has not yet left the United States. The enactment of the Porto Rican tariff has been followed by business depression, and many Americans who went into business in the island are reported to be anxious to get out. Taxes are still practically as heavy as under the Spanish régime, while the improved roads, better schools, and better sanitary conditions which the wise application of the revenues has procured, are benefits which the average Porto Rican does not appreciate. The fundamental reasons for this unhappy state of things are not far to seek. As the *Herald* correspondent points out, the Porto Ricans are indignant at the loss of three things for which they had confidently hoped—the extension of the Constitution of the United States to the island, a Territorial form of government, and free trade. In other words, the United States has been guilty of bad faith, and the Porto Ricans realize it; and they are consequently at no pains to conceal their deep dislike of the people who, coming to them in the guise of liberators and friends, turn out to be, from their point of view, very like conquerors and despots.

Neely's Cuban embezzlements are shown to be somewhere between $131,000 and $150,000. The chief part of these frauds consisted in selling "surcharged stamps" that should have been destroyed, and reporting them as actually destroyed. Surcharged stamps were United States postage-stamps bearing the Cuban stamp also, which had been sent to the island for temporary use until regular Cuban stamps could be prepared. In making false reports of the number of surcharged stamps destroyed, Neely had the assistance of Reeves, assistant auditor of the island of Cuba, not a post-office appointee, but who had been designated by Rathbone as a member of the commission to destroy surcharged stamps. Other forms of fraud in which Rathbone, Neely, and Reeves were concerned are detailed by Mr. Bristow, Assistant Postmaster-General, and exhibit much ingenuity. The report is a thorough one, so far as it goes, but it is probable that a trial in court would disclose many new facts. That all these rascals may find their way to the Cuban penitentiary is the ardent hope of all decent people in the United States, and in this we have no doubt that Mr. Charles Emory Smith shares. We hope that he will give us a résumé of the whole affair in *Collier's Weekly* at the proper time.

The race quarrel broke out again *New Orleans last week* with more violence than ever. Nothing like it has been known in this country since the draft riots in New York city in 1863. Then the mob hunted down negroes and burned their houses, as the New Orleans mob is doing to-day. Here an orphan asylum was destroyed; there a school building, the finest negro school in the city. What adds to the horror of the affair, this building was erected with money bequeathed by a negro, who divided his fortune of $600,000 equally between the institutions of both races. The latest outbreak was caused by the desperate resistance to arrest made by the negro, Charles, who had already killed two policemen. When he found that he was surrounded, he of course knew what his fate would be if he surrendered. He would be torn from the officers of the law, and be beaten, cut, shot, and hanged or burned. That he should sell his life dearly was to be expected. It was the natural consequence of the supremacy of mob law. Ferocious punishment makes ferocious criminals, and when a community tolerates lynching, it paves the way for a reign of terror. There will probably be more violence, but even if there is not, race hatred will have been intensified.

Two negroes, charged with assault in Florence County, South Carolina, by some failure of mob justice fell into the hands of the Sheriff. That officer, warned by many recent lessons of the insecurity of jails as refuges, allied with himself the Sheriff of an adjoining county and some forty men belonging to the militia, and undertook to defy the will of the people. Seizing the prisoners, he boarded a railroad train with his party, and contrived by this subterfuge to insult the majesty of the mob. This bold attempt to interrupt the usual course of lynch law was resented by the citizens, and they attempted to capture the audacious Sheriff at several stations, and finally chartered a special train in order to hunt down the fugitives. So hot was the chase that the minions of the law retreated to North Carolina, thereby escaping temporarily from the jurisdiction of the South Carolina mob. Eventually, by circuitous railroad routes, they succeeded in reaching Columbia, S. C., and found an appropriate refuge in the penitentiary. This high-handed interference with the usual course of justice was promptly condemned by the citizens of Florence County. Assembling in mass-meeting, they protested against such an arbitrary subversion of their liberties, and adopted resolutions denouncing the action of the Governor in permitting the removal of the prisoners from Florence County, and demanding their return. To this demand the Governor made the evasive, not to say contumacious, reply, that the prisoners were safer in the penitentiary than they would be in Florence County jail. The proposition is obviously true. Some years ago the Governor surrendered a prisoner to representatives of such a mass-meeting held at Lexington, who pledged the honor of their county that he should be protected. But so soon as they got hold of him they killed him; and when Gov. Tillman complied wih a similar demand, a year or two later, the same result followed.

The excuse for disfranchising the blacks in Mississippi, South Carolina, and Louisiana was that they outnumbered the whites, very largely in the first two States; that they were, as a rule, very ignorant; and that, if they should be allowed to vote, the commonwealth would be ruined. This argument does not seem to apply to a State which has twice as many whites as blacks. But the distribution of the two races in North Carolina is very uneven. The blacks are largely massed in the eastern counties, while there are a number of counties in the west where the population is almost exclusively white. The result is that some sections of North Carolina are as badly off in this respect as the other States. The whites throughout the commonwealth have taken up the cause of their brethren in the "black counties," and the zeal for the disfranchising amendment to be voted on to-day appears to be as strong in the west, where there is no excuse for it, as in the east. The amendment establishes educational and poll-tax tests which ostensibly apply to all alike. But a reading and writing qualification would rule out a host of whites, for the proportion of illiterates is greater in North Carolina than in any other State. To prevent this, another section of the amendment provides that no male person who was entitled to vote anywhere in the Union on the 1st of January, 1867, and no lineal descendant of such persons, shall be denied the right to vote. On the 1st of January, 1867, only a very few negroes anywhere in the United States enjoyed the right to vote, so that this "grandfather clause," as it is called, will let in all the whites, but hardly a single black.

The most curious feature of this campaign is the fact that it arouses scarcely any protest from the Republican party of the North, which is now committed to the policy of letting "the superior race" rule "the inferior" abroad, allowing it only such privileges as may seem prudent and wise. If this is the right rule in the Philippines, who shall say that it is wrong in North Carolina? A touch of grotesqueness is added to the picture by the fact that it is the North Carolinians and South Carolinians and Mississippians and Louisianians and their fellow-sympathizers in the disfranchisement of the blacks at the South who are ostensibly defenders of the political rights of the Filipinos. The history of American politics hardly presents a picture of greater impudence than that of Senator Tillman, fresh from his boasts of the way in which his party had bulldozed the blacks of South Carolina, proclaiming the noble sentiments of the Kansas City platform in favor of justice for another inferior race on the other side of the globe.

Ex-Speaker Reed is not, it appears, on the "black list" of the Republican National Committee, which would be glad to obtain his services for the campaign. But would it not have to make a condition that he recall and recant his epigrams at the expense of McKinley and the party? Would it not be necessary to allow him to speak only to audiences that had never read his gibes about the "Emperor of Expediency," and that had never heard of his famous question to the Republicans in Congress—why they should bother to pass a bill to punish petty larceny in Cuba when they themselves meant to steal the whole island? The National Committee would no doubt be glad enough to employ Mr. Reed's sarcastic tongue against Bryan; but the danger about asking him is that the very application might bring down irony upon their own heads. The ex-Speaker has had too much fun indulging in flings at his old associates to renounce the amusement easily. He knows them so well that he can lay his finger on the raw every time.

Representative Littlefield of Maine takes advantage of the opportunity which was offered him and his fellow-opponents of the Porto Rican tariff by the platform of the Philadelphia Convention. He says that he can find nothing in the platform that commits the party to the idea of Empire or Imperialism, or that justifies the inference that it has any such purpose; "on the contrary, it failed to specifically endorse the Congressional action that could legitimately be held to give rise to that inference." Mr. Littlefield consequently holds that the question of Empire or Imperialism cannot be an issue in the campaign, and he apparently means to rest upon the somewhat evasive platform rather than upon the clear and explicit speech of the candidate when he was notified of his nomination. This may in some latitudes be thought a clever policy.

For the first time the value of the foreign commerce of the United States during a single year exceeds two billions of dollars. It surpasses that of any previous year by $320,000,000, while the exports of manufactured goods have increased over $90,000,000 in value. Their value is returned as $432,000,000, which is almost one-third of the total value of all our exports. So recently as 1895, exports of manufactured goods were less than one-fourth, and in 1885 but one-fifth, of the total. If we go back to 1860, such exports were less than one-tenth of their present amount. In correspondence with the increase of this class of exports, we find a great increase in the imports of what are described as manufacturers' materials. The value of crude articles of this class was last year $302,000,000, while it was in 1899 but $222,000,000; the increase being nearly 40 per cent. In fact, the increase of manufacturers' materials imported is more marked than that of any other branch of our commerce, amounting last year to $107,000,000. Under other conditions than those which now prevail, such commercial returns would at once arouse a demand for a rational tariff. The evidence is conclusive that the manufacturers of this country have fairly engaged in export trade, and that protection against foreign competition can no longer be demanded. Instead of maintaining duties on foreign products, our manufacturers should insist on the abolition of duties on the materials which they import in such prodigious quantities. They could well afford in return to surrender the protective duties on imports of manufactures. Unfortunately, many of our business men are so much absorbed in chasing the rainbow of Oriental traffic as to overlook the certainty of commercial expansion attainable by reforming our own tariff system.

Whether the general election in England takes place this fall or next spring, the Liberal party seems certain to approach it with divided counsels and ineffective leadership. The row the other day about the handful of radical Liberals who openly set Campbell-Bannerman's lead in the Commons at defiance, is but symptomatic of a deep-seated trouble. Even Conservatives of a thoughtful type are bewailing the pitiful estate into which English Liberalism has fallen, as they recognize the advantage, for both their own party and the country, of a stronger Opposition than the next appeal to the country is likely to return. Imperialism and the African war have been as a knife in Liberal vitals. Lord Rosebery is making bids for the leadership on a basis of Liberal Imperialism which he defines as "sane" and moderate; but John Morley and the social-reforming Liberals will have none of it, and vow that they are not able to distinguish one brand of Imperialism from another, the Tory article being every whit as good as the Liberal. If present divisions and heart-burnings continue, what is to become of the old Liberal party? Mr. Morley himself predicted in his latest speech that, if it abandons its principles and breaks up, its place will be taken by the Socialists. He added that, though he had for years fought Socialism within the party, with his back to the wall, if he were ever so unfortunate as to be compelled to "choose between the Socialist and the Militarist with all his random aims, his perversion of the national resources, his disregard for the rights and the feelings of other people, I declare to you that I consider the Socialist's standards are higher and his aims are not any more wild."

The news that rain has fallen generally through the famine-stricken regions of India is encouraging, but Lord George Hamilton, the Indian Secretary, describes the situation as still very gloomy. The expenditures of the Indian Government on account of the famine have been £13,000,000 within the last two years, and the fund set apart for this purpose is almost exhausted. The budget shows that a credit balance last year of £2,870,000 has been converted, by famine expenditure and remission of taxation, into a deficit of £826,000. The Indian Government is prepared to apply £3,000,000 more in famine relief, and it announces that if its own resources prove insufficient, it will appeal to the British exchequer. Lord George Hamilton expressed himself warmly in admiration of the courage and patience displayed by the fifty millions of people who have suffered under this awful scourge. There seems to have been no increase of crime, in spite of the immense loss of property, and this fact should be an additional encouragement to the benevolent to continue their donations. They will be needed as much as ever for months to come.

The loss to Italy through the assassination of King Humbert is incalculable. His unfailing popularity, inherited from his father and increased by himself, was of great value to a country torn by parliamentary strife, while the moderation of his personal expenditure was a constant rebuke to the thievish officials who hang about the Italian Treasury. The last tie with the glories of the *Risorgimento* is sundered, and the new Victor Emmanuel must face the stern realities of a deeply troubled social order. The name of King Humbert, rightly or wrongly, will be associated with disaster to the kingdom of Italy. The oppressive burden of the "Triple Alliance," the humiliation of the Abyssinian campaign, the corruption of Italian officialdom, the crushing weight of ever-increasing taxation, and the consequent growth of Socialism and Anarchy—these are the products of Humbert's reign; they are of his time, if not of his doing; and it appears that the King now has borne vicariously the penalty for the ills of Italy. The assassin, one Bresci, is an Anarchist; he comes from Prato—an industrial town which figured prominently in the "bread riots" three years ago—by way of America.

THE HURT AND HELP OF A THIRD TICKET.

The earnest men who are demanding a Presidential ticket for which they can vote without either fear or shame, are tearfully implored by either party not to do anything to "hurt" it. We do not think they are primarily or seriously concerned over the question whom they are going to hurt. Like the non-resistant Quaker, about to fire at the crouching burglar in his room, they simply announce, "I am going to shoot into that corner, friend, and if thee stays there, thee 'll get hurt." If a resolute stand for right and liberty hurts McKinley, so much the worse for him; if it harms Bryan, that is *his* lookout. Ah, but the cause! Are you against the gold standard? No, Mr. McKinley, we are for it, as we were when you were a wabbling silverite, as we shall be if a gust of popular sentiment again makes you veer to free silver; only, we propose to take our gold standard pure, without the base alloy of extravagance and Imperialism. Then (we are told) Bryan's cause must be yours. Not if he poisons his Anti-Imperialism with a threat to financial and social stability.

But all this, we say, is a minor consideration with the promoters of a third ticket. Their prime object is not to hurt this or that candidate or party, but to help on to something better than either. They wish to help, in the first place, that large body of intelligent and conscientious voters who keenly resent the choice of evils thrust upon them this year by political bosses. Many of these men will not vote at all unless they get a ticket which they can vote without having to hold their handkerchiefs to their noses while they deposit their ballot with a pair of tongs. To them a third ticket is the only road to an exercise of the right of suffrage at all. They have grown weary of weighing feebleness against folly, hypocrisy against recklessness, and making up their minds which, on the whole, is least dangerous, and therefore most worthy of their vote. For once they would like to support a man and a cause that mean strength and truth, and so enthusiasm instead of misgivings.

Let blind partisans make no mistake about the existence of this noble discontent. It is, indeed, to a "discontented class" that a third ticket appeals. It is a class which is discontented at being led by the nose year after year, and compelled to make a nauseating choice of nauseating evils. The country is dotted with such people. Everywhere we see party lines burst through, life-long relationships abandoned, a kind of universal dissatisfaction and break-up. The intelligence of the nation is discontented—that is the true portent of the times. The old hypocrisy of going through a campaign "supporting" a candidate with your eyes shut, asserting that your man is a saint and his rival a devil, has grown too repugnant. That easy division of nominees into the class "hero" and the class "villain" is too farcical this year. The political play is "long" on villains; the stage is full of them. But where is the hero? Well, the third-ticket men are trying to find him.

They also have the growingly vicious conditions of party management in mind, and intend to make the most effective protest within their power against boss impudence. Their watchword they take from Lowell, who, a dozen years ago, pictured prophetically the present crisis: "If parties will not look after their own drainage and ventilation, there must be people who will do it for them, who will cry out without ceasing till their fellow-citizens are aroused to the danger of infection." It is a kind of political sanitary reform in which the Independents are engaged. For many years it has been enough for them to play off their competing Democratic and Republican landlords against each other. The Blaine sewer-gas made them give up their Republican apartments in 1884. They fled from Bryan's leaky roof and choked pipes in 1896. Now both parties have agreed to make no repairs, to leave their plumbing rotten and their walls mouldy, and grinningly ask their Independent tenants, "What are you going to do about it?" The prompt reply is, "We are going to move out into the open air."

Nor will the third ticket be helpful by way of protest alone. Besides raising an alarm, it will appeal strongly to honest men who cherish high political ideals. For one thing, the entire disinterestedness of the movement makes it like a fresh breeze blowing in upon foul vapors. Self-abnegation will be the very note of a movement which necessarily breaks with the sordid theory of politics, and knows nothing of serving a cause for gain. The Latin professor at Harvard used to say, in opening an abstruse elective, "This, gentlemen, is a course which will never, under any circumstances, enable any one who takes it to earn a dollar, or to gratify any worldly ambition." A similar warning is served upon all who are asked to support a third Presidential nomination. They must sign a self-denying ordinance. Gov. Roosevelt's "weaklings" cannot, of course, be expected to do it. But his "strong men" ought to feel their blood stirred within them by this summons to undertake a forlorn hope.

It is purely this ideal principle of the matter that gives the movement its strength. The "practical" sneer is already heard, "What can you possibly accomplish?" Well, all that is proposed can be accomplished. Conscience can be satisfied. The truth can be told. A standard can be raised to which honest men may repair—a political creed promulgated which will not have to be apologized for. "I can see how a man can vote for him, but I do not see how any one can speak for him," our Ambassador to England is reported to have said of Blaine in 1884. It will be something if the Independents nominate a man for whom one can both speak and vote with enthusiasm. The result it is not for them to reckon up. Their true "success" they win before the votes are counted. "Italians!" said Garibaldi to his men, "what have I to offer you? Kingdoms, rewards, victories? I know not if victories, but certainly none of the others. I have to offer you wounds and stripes and death—in the cause of liberty!"

THE POSITION OF THE GOLD DEMOCRATS.

The National Committee of the Gold Democrats, or the National Democratic party, decided on Wednesday of last week at Indianapolis that it was not advisable to nominate candidates for the offices of President and Vice-President. As a delegation from the Plaza Hotel conference of Anti-Imperialists were at Indianapolis at the same time, and as a few members of the National Democratic Committee were themselves Anti-Imperialists of pronounced type, there was a mingling together of the two ideas in the proceedings. It should be borne in mind, however, that conventions called by the Plaza Hotel Committee and by the Anti-Imperialists will meet at Indianapolis in the middle of August.

The National Democratic organization, for it can scarcely be called a party, sprang into existence as a protest. It consisted of men who had acted with the Democratic party when it had the wise and conservative platform of 1892, and who, after being arbitrarily suppressed in the convention of 1896, found themselves with nothing to stand on but the radical and revolutionary platform then adopted. A large number of these men, influenced either by principle or prejudice, could not bring themselves to support any Republican candidate or to endorse any Republican platform. A third ticket was their only resource, if they voted at all; and probably no one who voted for that ticket regrets it. A hundred years from now, one of them has said, we shall have a society composed of the descendants of the men who voted for Palmer and Buckner in 1896; and the future members of that society may be congratulated on an ancestry more intelligent, more conscientious, and more patriotic than any which is now honored by its offspring.

The situation is now very different from what it was four years ago. The Gold Democrats have seen that their protest has been entirely ineffectual to modify the radical creed adopted at Chicago. They separated themselves from the men that had got control of the party organization, and those men propose to keep up the separation. They do not want the Gold Democrats to come back unless they will apologize for their independence and promise submission. On the other hand, the Gold Democrats may feel that their protest succeeded, in so far as it encouraged the Republican leaders to pass a gold-standard act. Many of them therefore feel that their party is *functus officio*. It has wholly and perhaps hopelessly failed to rescue the Democratic party from the Populists who have captured its organization. It has succeeded, partly at least, in establishing an honest currency. It will continue its existence in order to promote the completion of this reform; but it does not seem probable that this end would now be furthered by nominating a candidate for the office of President.

It can hardly be denied that the sound-money issue was that which gave the Gold Democrats their strength; nor that on that issue they are now divided. Some of them believe that free silver coinage is dead beyond hope of resuscitation; others believe that, in view of the abject submission of the Democratic leaders to Mr. Bryan, this danger will never cease until his rule is ended. Some of the former are willing to accept the remainder of the Chicago platform, having convinced themselves that the call for free silver is meaningless; most of the latter probably believe that to vote for McKinley is the only practical way of putting a final quietus to free silver and the Jacobin doctrines together. Under such circumstances, it would have been unwise for the Gold Democrats to nominate a ticket of their own. So many of their number, while agreeing in their devotion to the gold standard, disagree as to its present security as to make it probable that such a ticket would receive very few votes. Such a result would deceive the country as to the real numerical strength of the party.

A crisis has occurred in the history of the Republican party, similar to that which the Democratic party experienced in 1896. What the Republican party originally stood for is known to everybody. It was founded on the revolt of conscientious people against the treatment of the negroes as inferior beings. Its main principle was stated by Lincoln when he said that no man was good enough to rule another without his consent. That principle has been openly repudiated and trampled on by the present Administration. Its platform is just as reactionary as that of the Democrats is radical. Its position has changed since the last election quite as much as that of the Democratic party changed between 1892 and 1896. If there were thousands of Democrats independent enough to organize in revolt against an arbitrary change in party principles in 1896, there ought to be enough Republicans in 1900 to organize a similar revolt against a similar betrayal.

For such an independent movement on the part of Republicans, the action of the Gold Democrats clears the way. The grand old party must be decadent indeed if the worthy citizens who have felt that it contained most of the virtue of the country, are willing to allow themselves to be surpassed in devotion to principle by members of the despised Democracy. We know very well that thousands and thousands of these good people, in New England especially, are ashamed of the attitude of the Administration. Senator Hoar tells us that, after his great anti-Administration speech, letters of approval poured in on him at the rate of five hundred a day. Where are the writers of these letters? What do they propose to do about endorsing the policy of Imperialism? Will they follow Senator Hoar, and aid in carrying out a policy which they regard as cruel, unjust, and pernicious; or will they unite in an expression of their sentiments which will be unmistakable? This question will be answered by the conventions to be held at Indianapolis in the middle of August.

CUBA'S FOREIGN RELATIONS.

It has leaked out from some official source at Washington that the Administration, while taking steps to give to Cuba the independence promised to her, intends to retain control of her foreign relations in the same way that Great Britain controlled those of the Transvaal before the war in South Africa. By the convention of 1881 the South African Republic agreed to make no treaty with any foreign Power except with the assent of her Majesty's Government. Of course the control of the foreign relations of Cuba to this extent would end in complete control, since everything of a diplomatic nature would have to pass through our hands. It would be incumbent on us to see whether anything in the nature of a treaty was involved in any correspondence between Cuba and any foreign Power.

This is not all. The power to control the foreign relations of Cuba leads up to the control of her military and naval resources, if any, and of her coast defences. It points also to supervision over her finances and her power to contract debt. In short, there is very little that a government may do independently if control of her foreign intercourse is surrendered. A plan that has been published in several Western newspapers as coming from official sources in Washington, embraces the following points:

> "(1.) The foreign relations of Cuba to be managed through the American Government at Washington.
>
> "(2.) Cuba to have no power to declare war without the consent of the United States.
>
> "(3.) The United States Government to have a veto power over legislation increasing the Cuban debt beyond certain limits to be set forth in the new Constitution.
>
> "(4.) The United States to have a certain well-defined supervision over the Cuban Treasury.
>
> "(5.) The United States to retain for a period of years, if not indefinitely, control of the fortifications which command the port of Havana and other important cities of the republic."

This plan is evidently put forth as a feeler, to test public opinion. It is part of a plan not to release our hold upon Cuba—not to fulfil the promise we made when we declared war against Spain—not to carry out the platform of the Republican party adopted six weeks ago at Philadelphia. As the Chicago *Times-Herald* says, it is "Cuban independence with a string to it." The question whether we are to keep our word in this particular or not is therefore likely to enter somewhat into the campaign, and become part and parcel of the general problem of Imperialism. It is doubtful, however, whether we shall find anybody in authority willing to stand sponsor for a plan to annul our solemn obligations so soon.

It is true that some politicians of note have publicly declared that the promises we made in regard to Cuban independence were sentimental and silly and ought not to be regarded now; but the nation is not of that opinion, or not yet. It is sometimes said by men who approve of our holding the Philippines, that Cuba would be of much more value to us than those distant and half-civilized possessions, but that we must keep faith and give her the independence we promised, and trust to annexation coming in the natural way, as the result of gratitude, friendly intercourse, and trade. This, we think, represents the most influential part of public opinion in the United States to-day. At all events, the number of those who avow any different purpose or desire is very small.

Control of the foreign relations of Cuba would be simply an entering wedge for control of everything, and it is well to inquire whether there is any greater reason for our controlling her foreign relations than those of any other American country, as Mexico, for example. Seventy-two years have passed since the Monroe Doctrine was proclaimed, and it has answered every purpose of restraining foreign nations from extending their power or acquiring new possessions in the American hemisphere. It has never been necessary for us to curtail the treaty-making power of any country on this side of the ocean. In fact, we never thought of doing such a thing. Not even in the case of Santo Domingo, or of the smallest republic of Central America, did it ever flit through our dreams that we ought to usurp or even seek to control their foreign relations. There were good reasons why we should not do so. Control of their foreign intercourse would make us responsible, more or less, for their behavior toward foreign Powers, and this might prove, in the case of peoples of hot temper and revolutionary instincts, burdensome in a high degree. It has been our interest not to relieve them of responsibility for their own acts. Ought we to relieve Cuba from hers?

Unless we are prepared to take Cuba, for better, for worse, and for ever, we ought to take no portion of her duties and responsibilities. What we promised her was independence, not suzerainty. It was proclaimed to the world by Congress and President in these words:

> "That the people of the island of Cuba are, and of right ought to be, free and independent.
>
> "That the United States hereby disclaims any disposition or intention to exercise sovereignty, jurisdiction, or control over said island, except for the pacification thereof; and asserts its determination, when that is accomplished, to leave the government and control of the island to its people."

This promise was reiterated in the Philadelphia platform, which declared that the pledge so made should be fulfilled "to the letter." A reservation of control of Cuba's foreign relations was not made or thought of at the time when Congress passed these resolutions, nor when the Republican party adopted its platform. There is no avowable reason why it should be made now.

THE WHITE PERIL.

Whatever the exact form of words used by Emperor William in his latest harangue to the troops, both the official and unofficial reports reveal him as threatening the Chinese with bloody vengeance. He may not have bidden his men give no quarter, but he certainly did urge them to make the German name a scourge and terror in China. If not in violation of the laws of civilized warfare, at any rate under their cloak, the German army was to inflict such cruel reprisals that the memory of them should not perish for a thousand years. In other words, the Emperor proposes to meet barbarism with barbarism, to beat the Chinese at their own game.

We might pause to ask if this is not one more proof of the effect of militarism in coarsening the German character during the past century. The Kaiser's truculent speech marks for us the contrast between the Germany of Goethe and Schiller and Herder and Kant, and that of Hartmann and Nietzsche and Nordau. William's barbarous utterances are naked and unashamed; the great Frederick could be brutal, but his was at least a *barbarisme de bon goût*, like that of the Bourgeois Gentilhomme. But we do not press the point. If Germany has deteriorated in moral tone, she has done so only in company with all Europe. There seems to be no doubt that Lord Salisbury and M. Delcassé have made threats almost as dire as William's. They have informed the Chinese Ministers to England and France that those civilized and Christian nations will demand life for life, apply the *lex talionis* as vindictively as any savage, and for every envoy killed in Pekin hang two viceroys and all the Tsung-li-Yamen.

This is the great danger of the situation—that the allied Powers will be tempted to a vendetta in China. We have heard much of the Yellow Peril. Here is the White Peril. Civilization undoubtedly has a stern and terrible task before it in China. But let it not mistake the temper in which it must be executed. We cannot compete with the Chinese in cruelties. Just see what is implied in the German Emperor's threat to outdo the Chinese in exacting vengeful reparation. It is that the "resources of civilization" are to be employed for barbarous ends. The Chinese are adepts in refinement of cruelty. Killing they will not mind. A thousand heads might fall for every Christian massacred, and China would think nothing of it. So if the Kaiser's wild words mean anything, they mean that our superior knowledge must be drawn on to rack the nerves in exquisite tortures more fiendish than anything the Chinese ever dreamed of. This is what we come to if we merely set about terrifying China. We put ourselves on the level and fight with the weapons of the barbarians against whose enormities we cry to Heaven!

The peril is, in short, lest civilization renounce itself, lest Christianity deny itself. The Empress-Dowager has trampled upon the precepts of Confucius; why should we be bound by the commands and sanctions of our religion? That is the question which it is so easy for the brute in us to put. Civilization, we must remember, is for ever a running fight with the ape and tiger that lurk in man. The civilized man is, in essence, in native passions, the same as the savage man; only he has learned to restrain himself, to yield to the motives that make for social peace and civic stability. But the savage instincts are there. Every sage ruler knows it, dreads the mob, fears the breaking loose of the chained dog. To appeal publicly to the motives of the red Indian is the hugest blunder of which modern statecraft could be guilty. The German Emperor has come very near making it. At the moment when the civilized Powers should be thinking only of justice, of the sole cause (that of right and truth) in which it is ever lawful to "broach the blood o' the world," he clamors for vengeance as would an Apache chief.

This recrudescence of barbarism is suspiciously connected with the great colonizing movement of the end of the century. In its early years we harried the coasts and penetrated into the interior of Africa in search of slaves. It was the persons of the natives we desired; now we boast ourselves that all we want is their lands and goods. In the last analysis, the difference is not so great. Greed was at the bottom of the slave-trade; and it is unquestionably at the bottom of much of our colonization in the name of humanity. A recent letter from the French Congo declares that Europeans, in their haste to become rich through exploiting the natives, are causing discontent everywhere, which promises to lead speedily to a sanguinary outbreak. That is, in little, the way in which the new-fangled mode of spreading civilization means stirring up strife and shedding blood. Dr. Johnson said that men were seldom so innocently employed as when engaged in making money. But this can be true of nations only when their money-making trade is not blood-stained. Commerce with uncivilized nations, relentlessly pursued without regard to the rights or wishes of other peoples, is only a new form of slave-trade. As we see, it rouses savage passions, which are dormant, not dead. China is in great danger, no doubt; but the civilization confronting it is in peril almost as acute, viz., lest, in shattering the power and breaking the pride of the Chinese Empire, we allow the barbarians really to triumph over us by making us as barbarous as themselves.

THE MYCENÆAN HOUSE OF THE DOUBLE-AXE.

OXFORD, July, 1900.

Since the days of Dr. Schliemann's discoveries, nothing has made an epoch in European archæology in the sense attaching to those words when used of the revelations for which we have to thank the indomitable energy and unflagging enthusiasm of our compatriot by adoption. But now, since Mr. A. J. Evans has returned from his last archæological campaign in Crete, we are fairly entitled to say that a new era has dawned upon us, and that the blank spaces in the earliest records of European letters and arts are soon to be filled up by an array of new facts.

Six years ago, Mr. Evans discovered in Crete a system, or, rather, two systems, of writing older than that of historic Greece, and distinct from the Phœnician, as well as from the so-called "Hittite" of Asia Minor. The characters of this script he found on seal-stones, and, finally, about two years ago, on a steatite libation table unearthed in the Dictean cave of Zeus. This last was demonstrably of the Mycenæan period. Naturally our investigator's thoughts turned to Cnossos, "the city of Minos and Dædalus," and the "traditional centre of early Cretan civilization." Indeed, as early as 1894, he copied linear characters from a Cnossian seal-stone, and obtained further indications from that site, which confirmed him in a wish to make systematic excavations there. Mr. Stillman had attempted to dig on the site, attracted by the presence of Mycenæan pottery, and by curious signs upon stone blocks showing on the hill of Cephala, near the modern town of Candia. Dr. Schliemann also had striven to secure the right to excavate the site. But all efforts were defeated by the impossibility of coming to terms figure, identified by two white feet and the hem of a highly variegated robe. Among the marching youths here and there are heavily draped figures of men and occasionally a woman. These were plainly magnates decked out in full festal attire.

It is not, however, in these ceremonial robes and magnificent personages that our interest centres. The tribute-bearing youths, especially, of course, the one marvellous figure among them which is preserved almost entire, come to us, out of the dark backward and abysm of time, clothed in a youthful brightness and perfection of manly beauty which far outshine the known perfections of Mycenæan art as elsewhere unearthed. Looking at these youths, we feel that the perfected art of vase-painting in the red-figured style of the fifth century B. C. was, after all, no new departure, but a revival. And yet the one youth's face, seen in profile, that has been unearthed is by no means definitely of the generalized Greek type—it is far more individual. We seem to have before us, united in the prehistoric perfections of early Cretan art, the realistic style of the earliest Egyptian dynasties (*cf.* the well-known statuette of the scribe in the Louvre), and the idealizing manner of the sculptors and vase-painters who preceded Phidias.

That the Labyrinth might not lack its bull, there was, at the end of one of these processional paintings, a painted bull. This painting covers three independently frescoed surfaces, upon each of which in its day had stood the picture of a bull. Nor were other representations of bulls lacking in this, the Minotaur's lair. The head of a bull and parts of its body, the whole modelled with consummate skill in high relief and wonderfully painted larger than life, has been unearthed on this site. Wonderful as the technique of the bulls on the Vapheio cup undoubtedly is, this Cnossian bull is of even finer workmanship. To proceed from the colossal to the minute, let us here mention a curious piece of crystal, found also by Mr. Evans, which bears upon it the enamelled miniature of a bull. Here, again, the technique is marvellous, and the glittering intensity of life which looks out through the bull's eye from this miniature has the speaking power of the wonderful donkey's eye that looks out from behind Watteau's well-known "Pierrot" in the Louvre.

Even yet we have not done with the frescoes discovered by Mr. Evans in the palace of Minos, for the greatest surprise of all in many ways is the discovery of another group of wall-paintings, the remains of which are unfortunately almost pulverized. These fragments have been ingeniously pieced together, and even more may be made out of them by further industry and skill. Their scale is as small as that of the tribute-bearing procession is large. They are miniatures executed in a very sketchy style, but with a freedom of hand and an eye for the attitudes of aristocratic ease and graceful *savoir-faire* which are simply amazing. The chief interest here centres in groups of extremely well-dressed ladies, belonging, it would seem, to the most exclusive circles of a highly organized social world. They are swiftly sketched in on a white background, and are sitting in the open air. One of them has seated herself near the horn and pillar of a temple, the counterpart of which may be found on various Mycenæan seal-rings. All of them are *décolletées* to an extent which prompts a hope that traces of some sort of a gossamer fichu may eventually be made out. Their attire is otherwise most elegant, and the curled tresses of their coiffures form a pleasing feature in their picturesque silhouettes. Far more sketchy are the groups of men similarly sketched in black on a reddish background. These are for the most part merely the outlines of various male profiles. The effect of a crowd achieved in all these groups is quite unique.

Space is lacking for discussing the rich and various vases, jars, lamps, and the like which Mr. Evans found in several corners of the great palace. And I can say but a word of the vast accumulations of inscribed clay tablets which form a part of the new discoveries that has a universal importance. Of these Mr. Evans has spoken in detailed letters to the *Athenæum* of May 19 and June 23, 1900. The tables are "oblong slips of hand-moulded clay, flat on the engraved sides, with almost adzelike ends, but thickening towards the centre of the back." They vary in length from about two to upwards of seven inches. They were found in receptacles of wood or clay, and the clay seals with which they were secured have been found. These seals still bear the impressions of engraved Mycenæan gems, and in many cases have been carefully countersigned (presumably by some superior officer) both on the front and the back. It seems tolerably sure that a large portion of them relate to palace accounts. One set plainly refers to chariots, and on another group are discovered pictorial representations of Mycenæan vases and the like. Numbers, of course, abound on these inventories.

As to the characters of the script, several of them are identical with linear forms found on Cretan seals of the same period. Affinities with the Cypriote syllabary and with Lycian and Carian characters are not lacking. Let it be understood that the above description applies solely to the first 1,000-odd inscriptions discovered at Cnossos, and that the numerous characters thus discovered (sixty-seven have been so far distinguished by Mr. Evans) chiefly resemble one of the systems previously discovered in Crete and the Aegean in being linear rather than pictorial. The execution of these Cnossian linear inscriptions shows a firmness of touch and deftness of hand not achieved elsewhere. Their general aspect has the beauty of archaic Greek inscriptions, and is palpably not of Babylonian, Egyptian, Hittite, or Phœnician inspiration. Here, as Mr. Evans says, we have "the work on Cretan soil of an Aegean people."

Quite apart from these linear characters are the pictographic inscriptions found last of all by Mr. Evans in one of the "magazines" of the Labyrinth. The clay tablets here found are inscribed with a "hieroglyphic" type of writing identical with the pictographic characters long since published by Mr. Evans from various prism seal-stones of eastern Crete. This system is more or less obviously allied to Egyptian hieroglyphics, although it embraces not a few linear forms. It is probably pre-Mycenæan, and plainly was at home among the Eteocretes of the region of Mount Dicte.

LOUIS DYER.

THE PARIS EXPOSITION.—V.

THE AMERICAN SECTION.

With that absurd building standing to our discredit on the banks of the Seine, it is a pleasure to find the American the most interesting of the foreign sections in the Grand Palais des Beaux-Arts. I have said that the French have spared to all other countries only the same amount of space reserved for their own Decennial Collection. Even under these conditions, they have been more generous to Italy and Spain, whose painters can barely fill the rooms allotted to them, than to the United States. But, in a way, what at first seems so unfair has proved an advantage. There is too much in the French section; you cannot see it all, nor, for that matter, do you want to see it all. Acres of the usual Salon commonplace must be waded through before you come to the few pictures of importance, either in themselves or in the history of the last decade. But in the United States section small room is left for commonplace. The difficulty has been to fit in the work of men really distinguished or prominent. Fortunately the committee realized that, at whatever cost of heart-burning for others and criticism for themselves, only the best should be exhibited. Several other things have crept in—no committee is beyond reproach. Several omissions might be noted. Where, for instance, are Mr. McLure Hamilton, Mr. Dewing, Mr. Frank Mura? Where Miss Mary Cassatt? Where Mr. Duveneck, Mr. Elihu Vedder? Nor is there an endeavor to bring forward younger men so as to make new reputations. But, on the whole, the poor work is rare, the omissions are not many, and it is the object of an exhibition of this kind to record the past, not to predict the future. Besides, the mistake of the British committee in overloading their walls with numbers, bad work, and dead reputations, has been avoided. It is better to show a few good things than a patchwork of any sort of pictures reaching from floor to ceiling.

The hanging is excellent; each painting treated with due respect and given the necessary margin. The cool neutral green of the background is admirable for the purpose, and refreshing after the red walls of the English and French galleries. There are only two faults. One is that an extra room down stairs—put at the service of the committee at the last moment, one would say, from the look of it—has been used as a sort of rubbish heap; the other, that the balcony has been turned to so little account. In almost all the other sections, additional wall space has been gained by building up small galleries on this balcony. But the American prints, drawings, and architecture are crowded into a corner that almost any one of the exhibitors could have covered had he had the chance to do himself justice. However, the arrangement, on the whole, is so excellent that these faults can be the more readily forgotten.

I confess I came to the American section prejudiced. That is, I was more curious to see it, more interested in it, than any other. I know the work of American artists who live in London and Paris, who exhibit, year after year, in the Academy and the two Salons, and who, in their art, are usually as French as the native-born Frenchman. The work of American artists who stay at home I know less well, and yet race; and the beautiful "Virgin Enthroned," by Mr. Abbott Thayer. This last, probably familiar enough in New York, I see now for the first time, and I cannot help noting, as I am sure has been noted many times already, the dignity of the composition, suggested by the early Italian and Flemish Madonnas, and the independence with which Mr. Thayer, adapting to it his modern method, has steered clear of the sensationalism of Jean Béraud at the one extreme, of the prosaic literal affectation of Van Uhde at the other. He has not been affected by the passing fashion for the religious picture. Love of beauty has been his inspiration, and so well has he succeeded that the little child, wholly modern and American, kneeling to the right of the Virgin, against the vague blue background, is as lovely as the angels of Bellini. It would have been strange had a gold medal been refused.

These pictures, however, represent the interests and tendencies of individual painters. It is another matter with the landscapes, which, whether the artists are conscious of it or not—and I do not think attention has been called to the fact—represent a distinct school of American landscapes, purely and entirely American. I should say that these painters are distinguished chiefly by their desire to render the aspect of the landscape before them, or their impression of it, as truly as Monet and his followers, but with a beauty that shall not be lost, as too often happens in the present dealer-boomed, made-and-sold-while-you-wait phase of so-called impressionism. The painters of the American group never forget this beauty in the study of the vibration of light, the quality of color under varying atmospheric conditions, the division and subdivision of tones into streaks of paint, or any other problem, however absorbing in itself. Let it be understood that I have no objection to impressionism. It simply means the work of men of strong individuality, and, therefore, great men; and among them, some day, may be found the name of Claude Monet. But that is no reason why his every study, his every unsuccessful experiment, should be accepted as a work of genius. As the American landscape painters seek their motives in a country as different in character and atmospheric effects as well can be from that of the masters of the Continental schools, they have been forced to cultivate their powers of observation, and to see and experiment for themselves.

It is not an exaggeration to say that, from one end of the Exposition to the other, I found no painter who seemed so legitimate a descendant of Corot and the Barbizonians as Inness, though in method and style so entirely unlike them. His love for beauty is as evident as theirs, but his originality is no less remarkable. They never would have ventured upon so gay a scheme as his "Sunny Autumn Day," with the gold and red of the foliage repeated in the gold and red of the flowers below; the austerity of French landscape would have been against it. But they were never more graceful in their tree forms or lovelier in the lines of their composition. The picture has the dignity, the serenity of a fine Corot, with a quality as strikingly individual, and a color scheme not any other painter I know of has succeeded in carrying out. It is interesting to compare it with a landscape by Mr. East in the adjoining English rooms, an attempt to produce the same harmony of gold and red; but Mr. East's picture is nothing more than a mosaic of hot color, while Inness's brilliant autumn tints are softened and fused and harmonized in the radiant October sunlight. There is no question that he holds a place among the greatest masters of landscape.

Wyant I do not think strikes as individual a note. He is more nearly akin to the French Romanticists, at least as I see him in the Exposition, with his solemn "Sunlit Valley" winding between low hills, the lofty arch of the trees "In the Adirondacks," opening to show the vista of delicate green beyond and the fine gray moonlight. I do not know more of his work; I can speak of it only as it now appears to me. Two charming little pastorals, by Mr. Dessar, show something of the influence of Millet. In the stately "Brooklyn Bridge," by Mr. Ranger, I should say the development of a new and amusing convention rather than strict accuracy was his object: I doubt if the bridge ever looked like that, but I doubt, too, if a more faithful report would have produced such an effect of height and size. There is more of convention than of Nature again in certain men like Mr. Gihon and Mr. Dearth. Then, one or two others—Mrs. Macmonnies, in her brilliant "Lilies and Roses," Theodore Robinson, Mr. Benson—have come largely under the spell of Monet; one or two, like Mr. Parrish, seem to have been caught and badly entangled in the so-called decorative movement of the day. But they are the exceptions. The larger number of landscape painters are as individual, as American, as Inness.

Nowhere is this more marked than in the numerous studies of snow and snow-effects; Mr. Childe Hassam's wonderfully true Fifth Avenue, on a white winter day; Mr. Platt's low hills under their covering of snow; Mr. Needham's cold frozen park, with the few figures to mark its whiteness, and the sunlight falling on the buildings beyond; Mr. Alden Weir's ice-cutters among the brown trees; Mr. Coffin's daring and surprisingly successful attempt to give the lurid splendor of the red-streaked sky at sunrise on a snowy morning; Mr. Palmer's little red house, where a Senator was born, stranded in snowy wastes; the wintry pictures of Mr. Taber, Mr. Ochtman, Mr. Nettleton, Mr. Eaton. There are few things more difficult to paint than snow. James Maris, M. Thaulow, and M. Monet are almost the only Europeans I know of who have managed to suggest both its truth and its beauty. And here you come upon a large group of painters who have approached the subject fearlessly, and rendered its loveliness, under many aspects, more perfectly than it has ever been done before, and without any reference to European work. And the same success marks the other landscapes, in which the motive, as a rule, is the simplest, as if to emphasize the fact that the magic is in light, in atmosphere: Mr. Chase's wide stretch of empty country, with the gleam of the sea beyond—though Mr. Chase shows his European training and is much less American, less individual, than many; Mr. Homer Martin's wooded hills bathed in blue mist; Mr. Bruce Crane's lovely little white house; Mr. Davis's quiet summer evening; Mr. Redfield's desolate road; the landscapes of Mr. Meakin, Mr. Metcalf, Mr. Francis Murphy. There is always evidence of something seen, something observed, something felt. And so it is with Mr. Winslow Homer's fantastic dance by the sea, his man on the lookout, gray in the blue night, his "Coast of Maine" with the great waves rolling in; he has seen these things for himself, though, perhaps, not as pictures. In a word, it is the genuineness of the land- and sea-scapes that impresses one. They are the work of men who have learned all the schools can teach technically, but are not hampered by tradition nor bound by convention; men who are alive to the fact that a picture, though true, may be a thing of beauty; and this, of course, was exactly the stand of the Romanticists, of Mr. Whistler when he painted his nocturnes. They do not strive after technical eccentricity, they make no attempt at classicism, at what is called impressionism, or any other ism, except Americanism. There is no doubt that the exhibition proves absolutely that we have a genuine school of American landscape.

Their pictures do not exhaust the excellence of the collection. I have said nothing of Mr. Muhrman's stately, impressive designs, which do not, however, tell as they should; Mr. Mark Fisher's "Drove of Swine," a regrettable choice, since it does him scant justice; Mr. Hitchcock's Dutch gardens; Mr. Swain Gifford's little green landscape; Mr. Church's fantasy; Mr. Bunce's Venetian waters; R. Blum's Japanese markets; Mr. La Farge's South Sea notes; Mr. Johnston's Summer Night Idyl; Mr. Fromuth's boats. I have said nothing of the pictures of Mr. Harrison, Mr. Gay, Mr. Bisbing, Mr. Kendall, Mr. Bridgman, Mr. Weeks, Mr. Ridgway Knight, Miss Elizabeth Nourse, that carry the stamp of the Salons with them. But it seems to me that whatever is freshest in the art of America comes from the men who have stayed at home and ignored Salons, and made a movement of their own. I do not want it to be thought for a minute that great artists like Mr. Whistler are to be dismissed by this summing up. There are several American artists in Europe who, deservedly, are recognized as the masters of American art. But it is especially interesting to see a new phase of that art, which has never been properly represented in Europe before.

The American artist has distinguished himself no less in his sculpture, drawings, prints, and miniatures. But of all this work I must wait to write until I can give it the necessary space. N. N.

THE MUTINY OF THE "BOUNTY."

DUBLIN, July 11, 1900.

Sixty years ago, children had, more than now, to be content with oft-told tales. Many that then held us enthralled have now almost faded from general consciousness. Amongst them is that of the mutiny of the *Bounty* and of Pitcairn's Island, upon the first chapter of which Byron founded his poem of "The Island." We wonder how many young fellows have by its perusal been sent to sea in the expectation of visiting the South Sea Islands. Many passages still haunt our memory:

> "The morning watch was come; the vessel lay
> Her course, and gently made her liquid way;
> The cloven billow flashed from off her prow
> In furrows formed by that majestic plough;
> The waters with their world were all before;
> Behind, the South Sea's many an islet shore."

Or, further on in the poem:

> " 'Huzza! for Otaheite' was the cry,
> As stately swept the gallant vessel by.
> The breeze springs up; the lately flapping sail
> Extends its arch before the growing gale;
> In swifter ripples stream aside the seas,
> Which her bold bow flings off with dashing ease."

The recent republication in New York (by M. F. Mansfield), without note or comment, of Lieutenant Bligh's 'Narrative of the Mutiny' (an excerpt from the account of his whole voyage) renders it opportune, if only in justice to the memory of the Mutineers, now to repeat the chief points of the story.*

Tahiti had been discovered by Wallis in 1763, and was subsequently visited by Captain Cook. The possible capabilities of the breadfruit as a food for slaves attracted the notice of the British West Indian planters. At their instance, the Admiralty in 1787 decided to transport a cargo of plants from Tahiti. The *Bounty*, a full-rigged ship of 215 tons, was selected. It was put under the command of Lieut. William Bligh, aged thirty-four, who had accompanied Cook on one of his voyages. Second in command was Fletcher Christian, aged twenty-four. He was of good family. His brother Edward became professor of law at Cambridge, and well known as editor of 'Blackstone's Commentaries.' The *Bounty* sailed in December, 1787, reached Tahiti in October, 1788, took in her cargo, and left for the West Indies in April, 1789. Bligh had from the first shown himself to the last degree irritable, suspicious, and passionate. The crew had been on short allowance since within a fortnight of leaving England. He was not even on speaking terms with his officers; they had come to take their meals separately. Affairs culminated three weeks after they had left Tahiti. Bligh accused officers and men of stealing his cocoanuts. "I hope you do not think me so mean," exclaimed Christian. The appellatives "—— hound," "thief," and threats to flog and make him jump overboard, were Bligh's rejoinder. That night, brooding over his wrongs, Christian upon the moment conceived the idea of seizing the ship. The watch on deck gladly seconded him. Bligh and those likely to be his friends were secured in their hammocks, a boat was lowered, and they, with a scanty supply of water and provisions, were hurried into it. In reply to Bligh's protestations and appeals, Christian said it was then too late. "I have been in hell this fortnight past, and am determined to bear it no longer. You know that during the whole voyage I have been treated like a dog." He handed his own sextant and nautical tables to Bligh. Bligh's navigation of the twenty-three-foot boat, with eighteen officers and men, loaded at first to within eight inches of the gunwale, 3,600 miles, to the Dutch settlement of Timor, is a thrilling story of the sea. Twelve of the party, by different routes, lived to reach England. Bligh was afterward appointed Governor of New South Wales. His conduct was so arbitrary and outrageous that the settlement rose against him, imprisoned him, and sent him home. He was appointed an Admiral in 1811 and died in 1817.

As Bligh's better qualities were, in the perils of the boat voyage, fully shown, so were those of Christian, the wave of passion over. He clearly recognized and accepted the irrevocable consequences of the step he and his had taken. To the last he appears to have conserved the respect of those—at first twenty-five, all told—who had thrown in their lot with him or whom he had detained. They reached Tahiti again in June, took on board a party of natives, sailed for the neighboring island of Tibouai, and there set about the construction of a fort. Contests ensued with the natives. They returned to Tahiti. Sixteen of the mutineers decided to sojourn there, while Christian and eight others, accompanied by a number of Tahitian men and women, sought some refuge in the *Bounty*. As he embarked on the 17th of September, 1789, he advised those who remained, in best chance for their lives, at once to deliver themselves up to the British vessel which, if Bligh and his crew reached civilization, would certainly be sent in search of them. He alone was responsible for the mutiny. He exonerated all, even his adherents, from so much as suggesting it. He begged young Heywood, a midshipman, who was fully clear, should he reach England, to communicate to his (Christian's) family all the circumstances of the case "which might extenuate, though they could not justify, the crime he had committed against the laws of his country."

The *Pandora* frigate appeared off Tahiti in March, 1791. Two of the mutineers on the island had been killed. The fourteen survivors gave themselves up or were taken. The partings between many of them and the native female connections they had formed were heartrending. On the *Pandora* they were treated with barbarous severity. The frigate cruised for some weeks in the neighboring seas in vain search for any trace of the *Bounty*, and then left for England. She was wrecked upon a reef in Endeavour Strait, thirty of her crew and four of the mutineers perishing. The voyage of the ninety-nine survivors in three open boats, 1,400 miles to Timor, was another thrilling passage in the general tragedy. Of the ten mutineers who reached England, four years after their departure, and were tried by court-martial, three were acquitted, two were executed, one imprisoned, and the others, although found guilty, were so patently innocent that they were pardoned. Among these last was Midshipman Heywood, who afterward rose to distinction as a commander in the navy.

Nineteen years passed from the day on which the *Bounty* sank below the horizon of Tahiti before the mystery which hung over the fate of those who sailed in her was revealed. In September, 1808, the *Topaz*, a United States vessel, sighted an unknown rocky island in the South Pacific, and, short of water, sailed close in. The shore, upon which a tremendous surf was breaking, appeared inaccessible. The cliffs were crowned with luxuriant vegetation. Smoke, showing habitation, was perceived, and a canoe was presently seen approaching, manned by a dusky crew, who hailed the ship in English. The captain went ashore, and what was his astonishment to be greeted by a white man, calling himself John Adams, who stated that he was the last survivor of those who had stood by the *Bounty*, and that his thirty-four companions were Tahitian widows, or the widows of the Tahitians who had accompanied them, and their descendants. When told of the French Revolution, and the series of naval victories achieved by his countrymen, the worn man threw up his hat, and exclaimed, "Old England for ever!" He had changed his real name of Alexander Smith to that which he then bore.

Christian knew of the existence of Pitcairn's Island, discovered by Carteret in 1767, and must have thought of it as likely to be a safe refuge. He was out of the ordinary track of vessels—truly 25° 3′ 37″ S., 130° 88′ 23″ W. Thither he directed the *Bounty*, but had some difficulty in finding it, as it was laid down 200 miles out of its real position. This was an additional safety, and the reason why the *Topaz* supposed hers to be a fresh discovery. A landing was with some difficulty effected. The small extent of the islet (under two square miles) was divided into nine equal portions among the whites. The *Bounty* was dismantled and sunk, so as not to attract attention from possible passing vessels. For three years all went tolerably well. The little community settled down to spend out their lives in their new home. Then the wife of one of the mutineers was killed by falling from a cliff. He attempted to allocate to himself the wife of one of the Tahitians. Disputes ensued, which, it is believed, Christian did his best to allay. But he and four others fell in the carrying out of a plan of the Tahitian men to kill all the whites. The few white survivors cleared off the colored males. Tragedies ensued between the whites themselves, and the year 1800 found Adams the sole survivor, with a community of women and young children. Misfortune had elevated and broadened his character. He had done his best to inculcate religious principles and to establish civilization and order in the little community.

The discovery of the retreat of the surviving mutineers, by the *Topaz*, in 1808, was not followed up. The Napoleonic wars gave people at home enough otherwise to think of. Six years later, two English frigates came upon the island. The commanders were so impressed with the almost idyllic state to which Adams had brought his charge, that no thought was entertained of transporting him to England. The fears of the community lest he should be, led to affecting scenes. Thenceforward Pitcairn was taken specially under British patronage. Adams passed away in 1829, aged sixty-five, in the presence of his family and of his affectionate flock, all of whom loved and revered him as a parent. He was succeeded in the government by George H. Nobbs, a missionary, who had landed, and who had married a granddaughter of Christian's.

By 1856, the population so pressed upon the means of subsistence that they, 250 in number, were transported to Norfolk Island, placed at their disposal by the British Government. Bishop Patteson took special interest in their welfare there. Three years later, sixteen hired a vessel and returned to Pitcairn, followed by twenty-seven in 1864. News was occasionally brought by her Majesty's ships that called off the island, leaving stores of provisions, clothing, and sundries such as soap and iron. Until of late years these reports were on the whole satisfactory. The last are of the most discouraging character, tending to prove the impossibility of a community that has once been brought in touch with civilization long existing without the power of expansion or of its members fully exercising their faculties. These last particulars are set out in the Parliamentary paper already referred to. They consist chiefly of reports of the commanders of H. M.'s Ss. *Comus*, *Constance*, and *Royalist*. The island now presents a barren aspect from the cutting down, and little care in replanting, trees. The population in August, 1898, was 142—fifty-one the descendants of Christian, forty-seven of Midshipman Young, the others of blood mixed with that of stray arrivals. There is no liquor, smoking is unknown, water the only drink. The men are strong and active; the women the same. General loss of the front teeth is noticeable, and "a want of something." "They do absolutely nothing all day," and refused the literature offered them. "An American missionary and his wife, who have been on the island since June, 1896, superintending the school, both assured me that the want of intellect among the young was simply appalling, and they had no hesitation in putting it down to this intermarrying. In fact, they had given up all hope of improvement and intended leaving by the first opportunity." "I am told the morals of the community are not what they should be." "I have no hesitation in saying," continues Commander Dyke of the *Comus*, "that soon the question will have to be faced—are they to continue as they are?—viz., marrying among themselves and increasing. The slender resources they have will not stand a much larger population, and among the young men a desire is evinced to leave the island."

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*The most comprehensive book upon the subject is Lady Belcher's 'Mutineers of the Bounty and their Descendants in Pitcairn and Norfolk Islands,' published by Murray in 1870. A Parliamentary paper (C. 9148, February, 1899) brings the history of Pitcairn's Island down to 1898.

This is a gloomy ending of the story of Pitcairn's Island that opened so tragically over one hundred years ago. Relics of the *Bounty* are shown in the United Service Museum, Whitehall, London. D. B.

Correspondence.

TROS TYRIUSVE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: After reading your editorials in the *Nation* of the 20th inst., I cannot see how any one thinking like you on the questions of the day can help doing his best to beat William J. Bryan in the present contest. He stands for free silver and unlimited greenbacks; you admit that his success will break in upon our present prosperity; you might say that it would, as soon as the first coupon on a United States bond is paid in silver dollars, bring about a crash in the business world more acute than those of 1837, 1873, or 1893. Mr. Bryan is also pledged against "government by injunction"—that is, against any efficient repression of riots. The unruly elements would soon feel who is holding the reins, and anarchy, like that which raged in Pittsburgh in 1877, or at Chicago in 1894, would spread from the Aroostook to the Golden Horn.

All this, you think, ought to be submitted to in order to save the principles of the Declaration of Independence by restoring self-government to the Filipinos. But in another article you say that Bryan's platform was skilfully drawn so as not to pledge him or his party to the withdrawal of the American forces. He first wants to establish a stable government on the islands. The millennium may come before he has succeeded; meanwhile fighting and killing must go on. And when at last the islands are independent, he wants the American army and navy to guarantee that freedom against the rest of the world—a job requiring more men and more ships than if we held the islands as our own possessions. It is clear, therefore, on your own showing, that his professions against Imperialism and militarism are utterly hollow, and you yourself point to the Expansion Democrats in the South, such as Snodgrass and Morgan, in deference to whom the platform was cast into such unmeaning or double-sensed words. Would you, then, have the people of the United States take the risk of beggary and anarchy at home for the very remote possibility of freedom to the Tagalos and Visayas six thousand miles away?

So much from the general American standpoint. But to us Kentucky folks, this man Bryan, with his love for Filipino independence, looks like an unusually bold character. If Aguinaldo, the irregularly chosen Governor of Luzon, is now a fugitive from his home through the wickedness of McKinley, William S. Taylor, the regularly chosen Governor of Kentucky, is a fugitive from his State through the wickedness of Bryan. In November, 1899, William Goebel, the murderer of Sanford, the author of an infamous election law, the man who had by trickery and force gotten some sort of a Democratic nomination, was, notwithstanding numberless frauds on the ballot perpetrated in his behalf, defeated for his coveted Governorship, through the revolt of the best elements in his party, among them over two-thirds of the former rebel soldiers. But he was still reluctant to give up the fight. He had by false returns and by bribery secured a close majority in the two houses of the General Assembly. Then William J. Bryan came to Frankfort all the way from his Nebraska home, to encourage Goebel and Beckham and the other defeated candidates on the State ticket in their treason against free government, which rests on the expressed will of the majority. In a speech before the Democrats of the Legislature and the beaten candidates, he congratulated the latter that they had a partisan body before which to try their case. Without his advice and encouragement there would have been no contest. That Kentucky is now governed and administered by a set of men whom the majority of the voters had deliberately rejected, and who are denounced this day by the greater part of the people of Kentucky as robbers and thieves, is due to William J. Bryan, who wants self-government for the distant Malays, but thinks a self-chosen band of schemers are a good enough Government for the great State of Kentucky.

Truly yours, L. N. D.

Louisville, Ky., July 28, 1900.

[Every item in the above indictment of Bryan has weighed with us in resolving to cast no vote for him. But most of them are reflected if not matched in McKinley's career as an unprincipled politician; and, character for character, we have no choice between these charlatans. We repudiate both, and we propose to do what we can to prevent this people from giving its seal of approbation to the present misruler of its destinies.—Ed. Nation.]

ARITHMETIC AND GRAMMAR.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have not had an opportunity to read the paper on Arithmetic, read at the recent Charleston meeting, from which I see interesting quotations in the *Evening Post* of last Monday. These quotations indicate that the author is in sympathy with the now prevailing opinion that too much time is given in schools to the subject of arithmetic. It may be that too much time is given to certain rules, some of which he enumerates, such as partial payments; but that too much time is given to the accurate working and to the reasoning which most of arithmetic demands, is quite another question.

The attack upon arithmetic is at bottom the same as that made some years ago upon English grammar. This attack proved so powerful in the latter case that old-fashioned grammar, with its parsing drill, was largely banished, and we were deluged with new language lessons, each with some wonderful method and catching device. What has been the result? I believe I am correct in saying that the verdict of examiners is almost unanimous that pupils who have been through the first and the second part of these language lessons are clearly behind the former students of the old grammars in real knowledge of the structure of English sentences, and in the power to analyze intelligently the force of a simple prose passage. As a teacher of freshmen I find a woful lack of knowledge of the simplest syntactical principles—such, for example, as the passive voice and the predicate nominative, which seem to be favorite rocks of offence to the scions of language lessons.

The trouble, it may be said in passing, appears to lie not so much in the work of high schools as in that of the grammar schools. The high schools have their own work to do, and the pupils who come up to them poorly drilled in first principles are likely to remain so. There is reason for the general dissatisfaction with the work and results of the last two years of the grammar schools. In these years pupils seem to suffer a sort of arrested development, and to be merely marking time. My own conviction is that it is because the work is not hard enough.

At bottom the attack upon arithmetic and grammar is an attack upon training and drill, and in support of a demand for what is supposed to be directly useful and practical. This spirit, good to a certain extent, has substituted many ill-digested fads for the systematic training which formerly obtained. The feeling that it is necessary to give young pupils an amount of useful information has produced the necessity of making a fight upon the time of the old studies that made largely for mere mental training. If we are to teach Nature studies and hygiene and physiology, we must, of course, parse less and do fewer examples in arithmetic.

That the devotion of a short time in grammar schools to simple talks on the wonders of nature and the well-established laws of health is a good thing, no one can doubt; but the text-books on such subjects cannot be of real value for mental training, for the reason that it is impossible, in the nature of the subject, for them to be full and scientific.

To return to arithmetic, my own observation leads me to the conviction that, in our American schools, we do too little rather than too much. The average boy out of our high schools would go to pieces in any English civil-service examination. The examinations at West Point and, especially, at Annapolis are the only rigid examinations in arithmetic that we have.

The sooner we can get back to the idea that schools are primarily for training, which can by and by inform itself, and only secondarily for enforced information, the better it will be for the cause of real education. Our aberrations have been altogether natural and somewhat beneficial; but we need to get back into simpler lines, with fewer studies, better done and followed farther.—Very respectfully,

J. H. DILLARD.

July 25.

Notes.

Following Schiller's "Wilhelm Tell," Act I., in their "idiophonic texts for acquiring languages," Hinds & Noble, New York city, have in preparation the second act of the same drama, also edited by Prof. George Hempl of the University of Michigan, and the first book of the 'Anabasis,' of which Professor Hempl will be consulting editor. These volumes present on facing pages the original text, a verbatim English translation, a free translation, and the pronunciation of the original "by means of the universal alphabet of the International Phonetic Association and its publication, *Le Maître Phonétique*."

'The Encyclopædia of Etiquette,' by Emily Holt, is announced by McClure, Phillips & Co.

Cassell & Co. have in course of publication 'The Life and Times of Queen Victoria,' by the late Mrs. Oliphant and (for the latter portion) Robert Wilson. It will be issued in twenty-nine parts.

In our recent notice of Graham's 'English Political Philosophy from Hobbes to Maine' we omitted to give the name of the American publishers, Messrs. Henry Holt & Co. This firm will soon issue 'The Art of Debate,' by Dr. R. M. Alden.

A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, have in press and will shortly publish 'The Private Memoirs of Madame Roland,' edited by Edward Gilpin Johnson, with illustrations.

Mrs. Charles S. Fairchild (Cazenovia, N. Y.) has printed some pages additional to her interesting 'Journals of John Linklaen,' reviewed by us three years ago.

In M. C. Jones's 'European Travel for Women' (Macmillan), inexperienced travellers may find an almost bewildering number and variety of hints on equipment and deportment that are too intimate for the pages of Baedeker. The volume, though it runs to 300 pages, is light and portable, and is a singular monument of the passion for detail that governs the feminine mind. Every contingency, from one's bath to a "reputable undertaker" for one's burial, is provided for. The game of travel, if one must live up to all these rules, would be a hard game to play, and Italy reduced to a question of appropriate tips and precautions about wraps. It is a very correct and ladylike little work, and may be safely followed by any woman going abroad for the first time, alone, or with others as inexperienced. There is an appendix of simple and useful phrases in several tongues.

The list of books concerning "*Trusts*" is enlarged by Prof. J. W. Jenks's 'Trust Problem' (New York: McClure, Phillips & Co.), a work containing an interesting collection of facts, together with a fair amount of theory. The general impression conveyed is favorable to large combinations, as effecting material savings in production and distribution. With those who are hostile to these combinations, Prof. Jenks's authority will be impaired by the fact that he obtained his material through his employment by that "non-partisan" body, the Industrial Commission, and by the Department of Labor. The praise which he gives to the report of the Industrial Commission tends to produce a similar effect on the minds of those who have no pecuniary interest in these semi-political investigations.

Dr. E. F. Henderson's 'Side-Lights on English History' (Holt) is an accession to source-book literature, and a particularly handsome one in respect to printing, binding, and illustrations. It begins with Queen Elizabeth, and the text ends at 1818, although early portraits of Queen Victoria and the Prince Consort are reproduced. The method followed by the editor is to select a topic like the "Personality of Queen Elizabeth," "The Spanish Armada," "The Gunpowder Plot," "Characteristic Traits of Oliver Cromwell," "The Stuarts in Exile," etc., and then to examine it through the eyes of contemporary observers. In following out this system of portrayal, recourse is most often had to letters and memoirs. The illustrations with which the book abounds are likenesses taken largely from engravings. The thirty-two subjects chosen are all important ones, and Dr. Henderson has used good authorities, but we are somewhat surprised that he has furnished no notes and virtually no editorial comment. The book is intended for junior students, as may be gathered from what is said in the preface about the best means of employing it. Accordingly, we should expect some explanations, for it may well be doubted whether many persons will prepare themselves for reading the excerpts by following the course of preliminary study which Dr. Henderson suggests. Still, each man does his work in his own way, and perhaps we have no right to criticise the editor of a book like this for not filling in the gaps by disquisition, especially where so much valuable material is put within reach. Let us hope that Dr. Henderson will publish a similar volume on the period from the Saxon conquest to Queen Elizabeth.

'Historical Memoirs of Alexander I. and the Court of Russia' (Chicago: McClurg) is a translation, by Miss M. B. Patterson, of the book which Mme. de Choiseul-Gouffier produced in 1828, three years after the Czar's death. The author's own title has been preserved, and the text used is that of the first edition rather than of the second, which appeared in 1862. Although we shall not attempt to disparage the translator's part in this work, we cannot praise the 'Memoirs' very highly either as a piece of literature or of history. The Comtesse de Choiseul-Gouffier had the advantage of knowing the Czar well, but her writing is frothy and vain where her own contact with the Russian court is to be described, and her moralizing is of the most vapid kind. She had an extravagant admiration for Alexander, which, considering his personal appearance and fine sentiments, is not surprising. But she possessed neither remarkable knowledge of politics, unusual wit, nor much sharpness of observation. While she repeats several anecdotes that are worth preserving, her narrative does not sustain the tone of alertness and discernment which a good volume of memoirs should display. In short, the book is worth the labor of translation, but is distinctly of the second class.

Mr. H. R. Whitehouse, who has, we believe, been an attaché of the American legation at Rome, gives in his 'Collapse of the Kingdom of Naples' (Bonnell, Silver & Co.) an elaborate narrative of the events which lie between the publication of Gladstone's 'Letters from Naples' and the surrender of Gaeta in 1860. The motive of the work is purely historical, for there is no more likelihood that another independent state will be erected in the two Sicilies than in Poland. So far as Mr. Whitehouse advocates a special view, it is depreciation of the part which Garibaldi had in the annexation of the Bourbon dominions to Italy. He terms the campaign of the *Mille* a "filibustering expedition," and quotes with approval Professor Dicey's saying: "Low as Naples had sunk, the Government would, I am convinced, have been strong enough to withstand the onslaught of the Garibaldian invasion, if behind Garibaldi there had not stood the Kingdom of Italy." In estimating the character of Ferdinand II. and of Francis II., Mr. Whitehouse professes that he has chosen his authorities in the most eclectic manner. But while he shows the existence, in Italy as well as in England, of a desire to magnify the misdeeds of the two last Bourbons, he attributes the downfall of their dynasty more to the "benighted policy" which they followed than to external pressure. The book is written by one who has a good knowledge of modern Italian politics, and should be very serviceable to English readers.

Mr. W. H. Woodward's 'Short History of the Expansion of the British Empire' (Cambridge [Eng.] University Press; New York: Macmillan) is a school-book intended for the use of students who are entered at the training colleges of England—that is, for teachers in training. At the same time, the author wishes it understood that he has not prepared his book for purposes of "cram." The preface opens with: "This History is not a 'Manual,' *i. e.*, a digest of the general body of facts relative to colonial history. Events have been dwelt upon, or passed over, as they serve, or do not serve, to illustrate the broad, underlying principles which from time to time governed British Expansion." The distinction is well made, and, moreover, it is justified by the character of the finished work. At a moment when Jingo Imperialism is in the air, Mr. Woodward writes a quiet, sober account of British settlement in both hemispheres and in all latitudes. His volume is not a panegyric in disguise, and, from its broad manner of treating events, together with its general information, is of real educational value. A merely patriotic tract would deal at much greater length with recent developments than Mr. Woodward does. He maintains the historical temper, and writes even more fully about the American colonies which severed themselves from Britain than about Australia and South Africa, which are still politically united with the mother country. The circulation of this book should not be restricted to schools. One or two slight slips may be mentioned. Francis Parkman was not a professor, and in Canada all powers unassumed by the Dominion are not granted to the provinces. The reverse is the case.

The 'Second Book' of the Tarr & McMurry series of Geographies has just been issued by the Macmillan Co. Its convenient form and new method of treatment at once attract attention and call for commendation. The political and relief maps are excellent, but the same cannot be said of all the other illustrations, although in general these are distinctly executed. The entire book (435 pages) treats of North America, including the new dependencies of the United States. The first four sections, which take up so much of physiography as seemed to the authors to be necessary to explain man's relation to the earth, are less satisfactory in treatment than succeeding portions. This is the case notably with the first section. The treatment by States is abandoned, and that by larger regions is adopted instead. The topics introduced are discussed at considerable length and in connection with the region in which they seem most prominent. Thus, coal-mining, iron-ore, and iron-manufacturing are explained in connection with the Middle Atlantic States, while agriculture by irrigation, grazing, and gold-mining are considered with the Western States. Repetition is thus avoided and room for additional details is gained. The causal idea is consistently emphasized in the handling of all the topics. Teachers accustomed to many of the older style of books will miss some features, whose absence, however, is for the most part no loss.

T. J. Medina of Santiago, Chili, adds 'El Tribunal del Santo Oficio en las Filipinas' to his former works on Philippine bibliography. His large volume on 'La Imprenta en Manila desde sus Orígenes hasta 1810' (1896) has recently been corrected and enlarged in Spain by Señor Retana's 'La Imprenta en Filipinas.' Medina is also the author of 'Bibliografía Española de las Islas Filipinas (1523-1810).' This work was printed in Santiago (Imprenta Cervantes) in 1898.

The process of sanifying the centre of old Florence, by demolition and reconstruction, revealed most interesting relics both mediæval and Roman. These objects were carefully observed and preserved for the Crocetta Museum by the Historico-Artistic Committee appointed to that end by the municipality. A first volume discussing these finds has appeared, under the title 'Il Centro di Firenze: Studi storici e Ricordi artistici' (Florence: R. Bemporad). It has sixteen plates and fifty illustrations, and is of much importance, especially as to the city's rank in the Roman period. The builders who reconstructed the once noble quarter that had fallen from its high estate and become a menace to the health of Florence, are censured for the architectural decadence of their work.

Another significant Italian publication is 'La Revoluzione francese nel carteggio d'un osservatore italiano' (Milan: Hoepli). The editor, Senator Giuseppe Greppi, has availed himself of the family papers to annotate the letters, almost uninterrupted, of Paolo Greppi, a Milanese nobleman, Austrian Consul-General at Cadiz, to his father and friends. He was witness of many stirring scenes in Paris, Vienna, and Italy, and passes judgment on numerous historic characters of the Revolution.

The *Virginia Magazine of History and Biography* for July prints some interesting letters from Mrs. Ralph Izard, written from Paris in 1781-83. She describes how her husband, then in America, dined with Lord Cornwallis at Gen. Knox's soon after the surrender. "Mr. Izard was so vexed at the cruelty of his conduct throughout the whole course of his command, that he could not be induced to hold any conversation with him, and it was with difficulty he was prevailed on to meet him at dinner." She was won by the Marquise de Lafayette, who spoke with great warmth and affection of Washington, and "says I must look upon her as an American, for her heart is entirely so." From the new instalment of Conway Robinson's "Notes," it is learned that the first man-child born in the colony was in 1643 fined for contempt of court. Even at that early day, Virginia returned servants to Maryland—a sort of fugitive-servant practice, for no law existed in the matter. A very curious account current, 1777-1787, is printed, giving the items in paper, in specie, and the "rate of depression." The rate starts at 1½ for 1, and reaches 500 for 1, the latter quotation being purely nominal.

A conference, similar to that of 1890, met last month in Berlin for the discussion of reforms in the higher education in Prussia. Of the forty-one members invited by the Cultus-Minister, more than half were professors from universities or other higher educational institutions, while all who participated in the deliberations were men whose opinions are of weight. An important resolution passed almost unanimously by this august body, and which will no doubt ere long become law in Prussia, settles the "Berechtigungsfrage" to the effect that the universities and technical high schools shall be open to graduates of the Gymnasia, Realgymnasia, and Oberrealschulen alike; in other words, the "Gymnasium monopoly" will cease, and students whose secondary-school course did not include all the branches required for a certain profession, will have an opportunity at the University to make good the deficiency. On the other hand, it is not expected that the present constitution of the three classes of secondary schools will be much disturbed in the future. Thus, while the democratic idea of equal rights has found recognition, the continuance of the humanistic Gymnasium in its traditional form is at the same time assured. The conditions for obtaining the new degree of "Doctor Ingenieur" are published in the June number of *Hochschul-Nachrichten*, and include the presentation of a certificate of maturity from a German school of one of the three classes above mentioned. Hence, foreigners will be debarred from candidacy for that degree, unless they have received their secondary education in Germany.

In an address delivered by Archduke Rainer, the curator of the Vienna Academy of Sciences, at the recent annual meeting of that body, the fact was particularly emphasized that the coöperation of the leading academies of sciences, a consummation which had been so devoutly wished, has now been practically attained through the Convention at Wiesbaden of the representatives of the academies of Berlin, Goettingen, Leipzig, London, Munich, Paris, Milan, St. Petersburg, and Vienna. The object of this union is the achievement of literary undertakings of a grand and international character, the management of which is not possible for a single one of the federated societies. The determination of the details of this union is to be left to future conventions.

The Congress for Christian Archæology, at the recent Convention in Rome, by formal resolution, expressed its desire that the famous crypts under the Vatican be opened to the researches of specialists. It is, perhaps, not generally known that underneath the Basilica of St. Peter there are long galleries, a subterranean church, incomparably richer than the church above ground. Here, among other things, was discovered, in a kind of dark cellar, a massive granite block, which proved to mark the grave of Otto II.; moreover, statues of bishops, masterpieces of Ghiberti, and a large number of bas-reliefs, in which the artistic hand of Mino da Fiesole was detected. Unfortunately, this storehouse of art is closed, not only to the general public, but also to the student; entrance being allowed to those only who secure permits signed by the Pope himself.

Among the results of Mr. J. E. S. Moore's scientific expedition to East Africa are the determination of the maximum depth of Lake Nyassa (430 fathoms), and the real position of Lake Tanganyika, the northern part being some twenty miles further to the west than it appears on existing maps. From his observations, doubt was thrown on the suggestion "that the lake had at one time been connected with the sea, but the geological formation on the west shore favors the supposition that at one time the lake extended far to the westward, and covered some portion of what is now the Congo Basin." The highest peak of Mount Ruwenzori was ascended, and found to be 16,500 feet, the snow-line being about 13,000 feet. Mr. Moore came to the conclusion that it is neither an isolated mass nor a plateau, but part of a mountain range, with many jagged peaks extending for many miles in a north and south direction. He brought back, in excellent condition, about a thousand fishes, some of them of great size, and some new to science.

—The *Atlantic* for August opens with an article on "Political Education," by President Hadley, who dwells on the tendency to "cram with facts as a substitute for the development of ideals." In the course of his remarks he points out that the real justification of democracy, or majority rule, is not theoretic, but practical—the best means hitherto devised of getting at the opinion of those who in the end hold the power. It does not follow that there should be an election every six months, or that Croker and Platt should be the best we can show for it. Having Croker and Platt in mind, it is worth while to read Rollin Lynde Hartt's "The Iowans"—an account of a community at once distinctively American, and at the opposite pole from the one in which we live. Mr. Hartt's style is distressingly forced and pseudo-picturesque, but his description of Iowa, if not flawless, is suggestive. A community of farmers, without large cities, and having a high level of civilization, it is a community without a State debt, and which is capable of building a Capitol for $3,000,000 without a penny being stolen. It has "just a little political corruption," owing to railroads, but, generally speaking, good laws, good schools, and good morals. It has no literature but newspapers, no art, no great men; but then, says Mr. Hartt, repeating what has been said so often, it is "the merit of the mass," not of the individual, that establishes "the real greatness of a people." Leaving aside the question whether there ever was a very remarkable "mass" which did not soon produce remarkable men, the Iowan community (as described by Mr. Hartt) is a sort of resurrection of Jefferson's ideal agricultural *civitas* of honest farmers, perfected by a high material civilization, and the final crowning boon of the absence of greatness of any kind. Were Buckle alive, he might cite Iowa as additional proof of the truth of his theory that man is the product of his physical surroundings. Just as lofty mountains, dangerous precipices, and continual elemental strife produce timidity in man, so extensive prairies produce in him flatness. Mark B. Dunnell has a paper on "Our Rights in China," in which he analyzes Mr. Hay's recent correspondence with the Powers on the "open door." The matter would be a good deal simpler if it were clearly understood that Mr. Hay's whole effort was to find out whether the Powers intend to respect our treaty rights with China, or to override them. "We do," say most of them. "We do," says Russia, "in so far as they need to be respected." The correspondence merely makes explicit what was implied in the situation already. Its value lies in making public and more intelligible what was previously important but little understood. Mr. Hay's journalistic training stands him sometimes in good stead.

—The *Century* has for its Paris Exposition article a paper called "The Palace of the Dance" by Jean Schopfer, with many illustrations, and for illustrations in color gives some remarkable full-page plates (from drawings by James C. Beard) to accompany an article on the "Treasures of the New York Aquarium," by Charles L. Bristol. Amelia Gere Mason contributes a paper on "The Decadence of Manners." Formerly this essay—for its main drift is not original—was always replied to by a counter-essay showing the manners of the world to be about as good as they ever had been; but lately the reply has grown fainter and fainter, as if the world were gradually growing accustomed to think of itself as an ill-mannered world, and becoming indifferent to its evil name in this respect. And in truth, if we are all ill-mannered together, does it matter? One great recommendation of good breeding used to be that it enabled people to obtain admission to a society above them; but admission to society is now secured by money (the writer of the present article to the contrary notwithstanding) to such an extent that this view of the subject needs revision. Perhaps, after all, money furnishes the key to the whole question. Society has always, in every age and clime, been carried on by those possessed of the wealth and leisure of the community. Hitherto these have been more or less in the hands of the inheritors of breeding—breeding being confessedly something which is transferred from parents to children. At the present day, however, the ignorant, and ill-bred, and non-bred have been coming into possesion of the money and leisure by leaps and bounds, and naturally their first effort is, *not to qualify themselves for their position by copying the poor people who pay great attention to civility, but to get rid of the whole thing as an encumbrance.* For ourselves we do not believe that democracy has half as much to do with it as plutocracy, for democracy is connected with equality, and manners in this country were, by all accounts, much better when conditions were generally equal than they are since the multimillionaire has fashioned his new world.

—*Scribner's* is a "fiction number," but it also has its plates in color (drawn by Henry McCarter)—midsummer "art plates" they should, perhaps, be called. The story of the magazines is pretty much the same as that of the libraries—nine-tenths of what is read is fiction, and most of it fiction which can be turned out by the yard. The striking thing, to our mind, about the monthly fiction that comes under our eye, is not that there is so much of it—for the demand is evidently greedy—but that the people who supply it are of a totally different class from that of the last generation. The producers of fiction, as we knew them in the last era, were serious people. Thackeray, Dickens, George Eliot, Charles Reade, Hawthorne, Flaubert, Turgeneff were all writers, not only sufficiently educated to begin with, but occupied with the problems of life and destiny, and having something of their own to tell us about them. In reading them, the young felt that they were listening to persons who had reflected, and caught the infection themselves. But since "realism" and "the short story" came in, a crowd of writers have taken up their pens who evidently avoid serious thought or cogitation of any kind. They no doubt paint life as they see it—but what a very limited life it is! They not only point no moral (anything moral being anathema to them), but they create no characters, and turn out "short stories," in most cases, evidently because the strain of writing a real novel with a sustained plot and substantial interest would be too much for them. Subject to these limitations, *Scribner's* for August is a good number. It is full of examples, however, of what we mean. It is mainly a child's number. "Old Carnations," by Albert Bigelow Paine, is for girls of fifteen; "A Matter of Opinion," by George Hibbard, is a piece of private theatricals for older children; "The Green Pigs," by Sydney Herman Preston, is adapted to boys of twelve or fourteen. J. M. Barrie and Edith Wharton are in a different class; but no sane person can look through this collection without perceiving "what is the matter" with fiction.

—Professor Kaufmann's 'Politische Geschichte Deutschlands im Neunzehnten Jahrhundert' (Berlin: Bondi; New York: Lemcke & Buechner) is the fourth volume of a series in which the Germans are estimating the extent and character of their national progress during the past hundred years. Besides politics, the review covers the fields of literature, art, science, music, social life, and the history of war. The scheme is well outlined, and the separate parts of it assigned to very competent writers. Comparing their present position with that of 1800, the year of the Marengo campaign, Germans can hardly be expected to refrain from showing some signs of thankfulness, and the patriotism which assumes such a form as this is equally sober and praiseworthy. Dr. Kaufmann's Political History is a book of 700 large-octavo pages, but it does not, in spite of its considerable bulk, run at any point into minute detail. It is a disquisition on tendencies, processes, and results, rather than a synopsis of events. The author, a firm Imperialist, believes that, while Germany has already accomplished more than Arndt, Niebuhr, Dahlmann, Uhland, and Stein could have hoped, her real work is just beginning. "Wir Deutsche sind noch ein junges Volk, und unsere Aufgabe für die Welt ist noch längst nicht erfüllt." Having full sympathy with the achievements of Prussia, he not only keeps that state in the foreground (which every historian must do), but exalts it to the neglect of the smaller kingdoms. There is nothing unusual about this, but we would gladly have heard more regarding the condition of Saxony, Bavaria, Würtemberg, and Baden, particularly from 1851 to 1861. The most valuable part of the work is the third chapter, which is devoted to the origin of parties, Socialists, Liberals, Junkers, etc. The account of the great Revolution, 1848-49, is also remarkably good, in that it keeps the main issues separate, and avoids the confusion which most writers create when they deal synoptically with the affairs of Germany during this crisis. Coming to the Bismarckian era, one finds a greater degree of conciseness than might be expected from the importance of the period and Dr. Kaufmann's admiration for the Chancellor himself. What are usually regarded as the heroic years of the movement towards German unity (those between the opening of the Schleswig-Holstein question and the end of the Franco-German war) are not singled out for special embellishment. Dr. Kaufmann's chief task is to explain the conditions which Bismarck found when he entered office. The contests with Austria and France are comparatively simple in motive. He dismisses them rapidly and without excess of patriotic rapture. The book closes with an optimistic forecast, but the narrative proper closes with the fall of Bismarck. Why does not Dr. Kaufmann give his impressions concerning the character of the present reign? On p. 681 he speaks of the freedom which prevails in the higher schools and universities of Germany. He certainly does not illustrate it by his reticence on the subject of German politics during the last ten years.

—It was formerly taken for granted that all animals to which the zoölogists attributed an "organ of hearing" could actually hear; but after the existence of a static sense in the higher animals had been determined by Goltz, Mach, Crum-Brown, and Breuer, and they had made it highly probable that certain parts of the ear—namely, the semicircular canals and the otolith apparatus—have nothing to do with the function of hearing, it became an interesting question to what extent hearing could be attributed to animals so low down that they have only the organs corresponding to the otolith apparatus. It was shown by Kreidl, a few years ago, that there is no sufficient reason for ascribing to fishes any sense of hearing whatever, and Dr. Theodor Beer has now reached a similar conclusion in regard to the crustaceans. Already in 1896 he had maintained that, except in a few instances, no proof had been offered that any animals below the amphibia can hear, and he now finds that even in those exceptional instances the proof offered was very inconclusive. Crabs especially had been affirmed by some investigators, and particularly by Hensen, to have truly remarkable powers in this way, but Beer has now proved, by well-conducted experiments, that such is not the case; the organs which were once supposed to mediate the sensation of sound are now made out to be organs of orientation only. In accordance with this now certain fact, it is proper that the names *otocyst* and *otolith* should be replaced by *statocyst* and *statolith*.

COLQUHOUN'S CHINA.

Overland to China. By Archibald R. Colquhoun, Gold Medallist Royal Geographical Society, Correspondent of the *Times* in the Far East, etc. Harper & Brothers. 1900. Pp. xii, 466.

This is a book of a sad opportuneness. Its three lightest chapters describe Pekin and the life of the foreign settlement there. The group of legations, isolated in the midst of a swarming population, hostile, ribald, contemptuous, appears so tiny and hopeless in its weakness, with nothing but the great vermilion doors of a red-lacquered and pavilion-roofed Chinese palace between it and the multitudinous darkness without. Yet the wonderful, clear, keen air of Pekin, the sunshine and the swallows wheeling through it, the slow, smooth life of an underworked diplomatic community, the little festivals and amusements, the summer villeggiatura in a Buddhist temple in the Hills, the skirmishes and jests of club life, give the picture a strange unreality. It is Life, ignorant, light, joyous, in the midst of Death. It is like the scene in Boccaccio's garden at Fiesole—and now as far away.

But none can say that there were not signs enough of the end. Dealing with the brutal frankness of Russian methods in Mantchuria, Mr. Colquhoun says (p. 144), "These high-handed proceedings must bring their own retribution in insurrections and riots." And we now have evidence that the spark to the Boxers' rising was the conduct of Russian and Belgian engineers towards the peasantry through whose lands the lines of rail were being run. Again, on p. 164: "In Pekin . . . only the ever-present fear of bodily chastisement . . . restrains the populace to an attitude of sullen dislike, or, at the very best, of polite indifference." P. 324: "the incipient anarchy in central China," "the revolution is proceeding with great rapidity." P. 325:

> "Outbreaks which the authorities are unable or unwilling to suppress give encouragement to risings all round, and one rising begets another. If the working people should be driven to arm themselves for defence against brigands, the temptation is great to use such new-found courage and force for aggressive purposes. There are no large bodies of men in the world so docile and so easy to govern as the Chinese, but once the social and family bonds which hold them together are loosened, the artisan may as easily become a brigand as the laborious fisherman becomes a pirate. The process of dissolution is going on. The anarchy which has been the nightmare of all who have studied Chinese affairs for the last twenty years is looming in sight. Great affairs are in course of incubation."

P. 336: "It is as certain as such things ever can be, that one of these days some Power will be called upon, or feel itself called upon, to intervene to preserve order in China, for confidence is gradually being undermined all round, and cannot be restored out of native resources." P. 449: "Nominally still alive and in full operation, the organism of the Chinese Government is hardly perceptible, and is unable to cope with foreign aggressions, barely sufficing to keep in restraint the three hundred and fifty millions of its own people."

The truth of all this is now abundantly clear. Northern China is in complete insurrection, though whether it is an insurrection with the Government or against the Government we cannot yet tell; Oriental governments have before now had their hands forced without great unwillingness. In the valley of the Yangtse-kiang, and in southwest China, the insurrectionary movements are still sporadic, but are evidently spreading; the stage of brigandage and outrages is passing into that of formal rebellion. And there are other ferments at work besides that of the Boxers. In 1874 an eighteen-year Muhammadan rebellion in Yunnan culminated, and was suppressed only after a hard struggle. Yet twenty years later, a full half of the population of that province, according to a native Muslim, was Muhammadan. This, however, is probably an enormous exaggeration. The certain point is, that there is a great Muhammadan population which has been in insurrection already, and is now biding its time. Again, there is a native Christian element which will not always submit itself in patience; the Taiping rebellion is evidence as to that. With the case standing thus, it is evident that the stability of China depends upon the attitude of the southern viceroys. There, too, Mr. Colquhoun has something to say. His charge is, that the influence and authority of the viceroys have been too much neglected. Until the régime of the Dowager Empress, they had been practically supreme in their provinces, with full right of initiative and almost no interference from Pekin. Yet European diplomacy had failed to see this and to cultivate them accordingly. All the diplomatic force was concentrated at Pekin, and "early in 1899 there was neither Consul nor Vice-Consul to represent British interests in the whole vast province of Szechuan." Now, with anarchy at Pekin, their chance has come again; the power taken from them is back in their hands, and the change has been reflected even in our newspapers. How they will bear this responsibility is still to be seen.

Such are a few of the points in which the opinions and predictions of this book come now with the force of accomplished facts. There is much more behind, and time will show it. From some of the quotations already given, it is evident that Mr. Colquhoun has no hope of China righting itself and developing peacefully from within as Japan has done. For him, some external force must take hold to restore and maintain order. "The open door" must give way, in the inexorable march of facts, to "spheres" of influence and of occupation. And so the real object of his book is to arouse the English public to the existing danger that the acknowledged English sphere in the basin of the Yangtse-kiang will vanish into the control of Russia or France. Russia is advancing upon it from the north through Hankau; France from Tonkin by the Red River railroad. Only very slowly is the connection with the British Burmese system through Yunnan being surveyed and planned; yet control of southwest China is essential to the defence of India. So, Mr. Colquhoun.

In a sense, the title of the book is unfortunate. Only the first six chapters deal with the overland journey to China, and on p. 150 we are landed in Pekin itself. The book thus divides into two parts, united only by the thread of the traveller's route and the shadow of the Russian advance. The first part deals with Siberia, of the past and the present, of the gradual Russian colonization, and its more recent quick development, of the wealth of the country in minerals, timber, and crops. Two things in it all stand out clearly. The new Siberia is not a convict settlement, but a field for immigration. And that immigration, from the Urals to the Pacific, is enthusiastically national: "Russia, mistress of the world" is its word. The last chapter of the six describes the great trans-Siberian Railway which stretches already to Irkutsk, and is to cross Mantchuria to Vladivostok. The second half of the book is a description of things in China as the author saw them during a seven-months' journey in 1898-99, through Mongolia and Mantchuria, up the Yangtse-kiang to Szechuan, through the provinces of Kweichau and Yunnan, and back to the sea through Tonkin. Making allowance for its frankly Russophobe attitude, for which, it must be admitted, there is much justification from an English point of view, the book is of the highest value, as showing us the state of the country before the present volcanic outburst. It cannot be neglected by any student of the gigantic problem.

There are four fairly good maps, and many rather poor illustrations and diagrams, several being reproductions from Reclus's 'Géographie Universelle.' The diagram labelled "Russo-French proposed rearrangement of Asia" is not clear in itself and is left unexplained in the text.

BUGGE'S HOME OF THE EDDIC POEMS.

The Home of the Eddic Poems, with especial reference to the Helgi Lays. By Sophus Bugge. Revised edition, with a new Introduction concerning Old Norse Mythology by the Author. Translated from the Norwegian by William Henry Schofield. London: David Nutt. 1899. Pp. lxxix, 408.

The present book is, in its main part, a second edition in English of Professor Bugge's well-known 'Helge-Digtene i den Ældre Edda,' which appeared in Copenhagen in 1896. The original work, however, has been revised and considerably augmented by the author, so that in many ways this is a new book apart from its English form. The newly written Introduction, which is an extremely valuable part of the work, contains the author's views as expressed principally in his epoch-making 'Studies on the Origin of the Scandinavian Stories of Gods and Heroes,' published originally in Norwegian and subsequently in a German translation.

Professor Bugge's views on the origin of Old Norse myths are so well known along main lines that they need, it may be, scarcely more than a recapitulation. His contention is, that many of the most important of these myths were shaped by Scandinavian poets who associated with Christians in the British Isles, and particularly with the English and Irish. The Eddic myths, accordingly, show an unmistakable familiarity with Christian European culture, and with Jewish-Christian and classical mythology and legend current among the Western nations in the early Middle Ages—with the manner of thought, in other words, of the more cultivated people with whom Norwegians and Icelanders came closely into contact during the storm and stress of the Viking Age. The oldest and, indeed, the great majority of the mythological and heroic poems of the Edda, Bugge concludes, were composed by Norwegians in the British Isles—the greater number in northern England, some in Ireland and Scotland, or in the Scottish Isles—and in a written form were carried to Iceland and Norway.

Bugge's proofs in support of this thesis are brought forward with much acumen, along a range of scholarship apparently illimitable. Influence from England on the Eddic poems may be detected, he affirms, in poetic expressions; in poetic, saga-historical, and mythological motives; in the action of the story, and in its composition. As for the first point, in most of the poems there are numbers of words of English origin not in general use in Norway and Iceland; in many cases these occur only in the Eddic lays, and must have been transferred to them from English poems. There are, moreover, Norse poetic expressions which are but reconstructions of English expressions similar in sound; Latin words taken into Norse from English, and Irish words. Into the details of the author's elucidation of these particulars it is here impossible to go. Some of his conclusions are tenable and must be accepted; others are plausible or even possible as theories, but hang by an altogether too slender thread to be readily accounted as fact, and this is a characteristic of much of Bugge's argumentation throughout the book. It is, however, by no manner of means all idle fancy, as some of his critics would lead us to suppose. In the 'Lay of Völund,' for instance, many of us are already prepared to accept the author's conclusion that the Norse poet imitated an Anglo-Saxon poem; the English words and reconstructions are unmistakable, and in such numbers that any other theory than that of immediate Anglo-Saxon influence is well-nigh impossible. It is not so easy to follow Bugge elsewhere. That the 'Lay of Sigurd' is an imitation of Anglo-Saxon poems; that the 'Lay of Atli' is in part, at least, the reconstruction of a Danish poem, which in its turn imitated an Anglo-Saxon original on the same subject; that the author of the 'Lay of Hyndla' was familiar with Virgil's 'Æneid'; that the heathen 'Völuspa' was composed by a Norseman in England under the influence of an English Christian epic—all this, and more, Bugge seeks to prove.

To show how the mythological stories of the Edda arose under the influence of Jewish-Christian tales which the Scandinavians heard among the English and Irish, Bugge examines in detail the myths of Baldr and Loki. In the story of Baldr, he sees the reconstruction of an older epic myth, in which, under the influence of English-Irish Christianity in the west, a principal stress is laid on the fundamental moral elements of life. Stories heard about Christ, the Son of God, are transferred to Baldr, the Son of Odin, but transferred in accordance with heathen Scandinavian conceptions, so that the new myths are still genuinely national in character.

Loki, however, is considered to be a new creation at the end of the heathen period by Scandinavians, after they had heard Jewish-Christian tales from Christian peoples. The name Loki is but the reconstruction of Lucifer, and the myth embodies elements in the first place from the Christian prince of the fallen angels, but also from other sources, especially from classical stories about Mercury. Loki's progeny, the wolf Fenrir and Mithgarthsorm, the world serpent, owe their origin to similar conditions. Fenris, Fenrisulfr, is a change, by popular etymology, of the foreign *infernus lupus*. The myth in its details is primarily the embodiment of the Christian conception of the devil as a wolf, with which have been fused stories of the monster Behemoth, in the book of Job. Mithgarthsorm, in much the same way, has its prototype in the Biblical Leviathan, and stories of Hercules have exerted their influence upon the development of the story. It may be unfair from some points of view to isolate a single link from the chain, but, with the assertion that there are throughout this whole discussion numerous places of the kind, the last paragraph of the introduction may be quoted:

> "In the description of *ragnarökkr* we read how the Mithgarthsorm, amid the billows, 'turns himself about in giant-rage.' Then the sea rushes in violently over the earth. This description agrees with that of Leviathan in Job: 'He maketh the deep to boil like a pot; he maketh the sea like a pot of ointment. He maketh a path to shine after him: one would think the deep to be hoary.' "

It is astounding that such assumed parallelism as this should be brought forward as sober testimony, and Bugge seriously weakens his argument, here and elsewhere, in much more important places, by his fatuous use of it.

The introduction contains much of value for itself, but it has also a fundamental importance for the understanding of Bugge's whole attitude toward the material under discussion in the present book, whose main object is to clear up the question of the home of the Helgi lays of the Elder Edda. This investigation is carried out, from first to last, with the infinite minuteness that is characteristic of the author's method, with the same marvellous power of combination of material and results, and with the same extraordinary bias as to the real nature of evidence in a scientific argument.

The Helgi cycle of the Edda consists of the 'First' and 'Second Lay of Helgi Hundingsbani,' and the 'Lay of Helgi Hjörvarthsson,' all of which form a single group in respect to saga material, and, to a considerable extent, to similarity in poetic treatment. The author of the 'First Lay of Helgi Hundingsbani' knew a number of the mythic and heroic poems of the Edda which one and all show English and Irish influence, and there are thus good grounds for believing that this lay was composed by a Norseman who had lived among Englishmen and Irishmen, at the courts of Irish and English kings. Some parts of the poem are closely connected with Irish traditional tales. A principal source is the story of Conchobar and the 'Battle of Ross na Rig,' which has come down to us in the so-called 'Book of Leinster.' This story of Ross na Rig contains reminiscences of the battle of Clontarf, in 1014, and the date of the poem is apparently, then, from 1020-1035. The Helgi poet, in the author's opinion, lived at the court, at Dublin, of Siggtryg, whose father ruled both at Dublin and in Northumberland. The poet has also used Irish tales of the story of Cormac's birth and of the 'Destruction of Troy' as material in his lay, which is, nevertheless, not to be considered in any way a translation of Irish stories, but is a new and original poem whose real basis is Germanic heroic saga-material.

The Helgi poems, according to Bugge, were influenced, again, by the Germanic saga of Wolfdietrich. The beginning of the first Helgi lay is, in fact, an imitation of a lost Anglo-Saxon heroic poem on Wolfdietrich which in its turn was a working over of some Franklish epic, also lost. This is not the whole record of influence, for the classical Meleager story has also contributed its quota.

In the 'Second Lay of Helgi Hundingsbani' the authorship again points to the British Isles, and the poem was composed under external influences similar to those which affected the 'First Lay.' The 'Second Lay' includes fragments of prose and verse which did not all belong together originally, and which are not all the work of the same author. The two lays belong, however, to the same school. The 'Second Lay' has influenced the 'First,' which it antedates by perhaps half a century. The Helgi lays, it is here pointed out, are not historical poems, and Helgi, as he appears in them, is in no way an historical person. Vigfusson, who originally suggested in the "Corpus Poeticum Boreale" a Western origin for many of the Eddic poems, noted that the geography of the Helgi poet is, on the whole, merely fantastic. There are a number of names of places, however, which can be proved to have really existed, and these are throughout in Denmark and the adjoining lands. Both these poems on Helgi Hundingsbani represent him, too, as King of Denmark. Helgi's historical prototype was Saxo's Danish king Helgi, son of Halfdan. Some Danish poet in England, according to the author, made over the story of this Helgi into that of Helgi Hundingsbani, basing his work partly on an Anglo-Saxon story and partly on the Danish story. This work then suffered two fates: it was carried into Denmark and took the form of which there are fragments in Saxo, and it was worked over by Norse poets in Britain in the shape in which parts are preserved in the Eddic lays. Helgi, at the outset a Scandinavian hero, is brought in the lays into connection with other heroes, not Scandinavian, belonging from the outset to other Germanic people. The assumed connection with Wolfdietrich, whose historical prototype is the East Gothic Theodoric, has already been pointed out. Both the 'First' and the 'Second Lays' make Helgi a son of Sigmund and the brother of Sinfjötli, and thus bring him into connection with the West Germanic Völsungs, with whom as a Danish king he could originally have had nothing whatever to do.

The 'Lay of Helgi Hjörvarthsson' includes a short lay in dialogue, called after one of its characters the 'Lay of Hrimgerth,' which plainly was at first a separate poem by another skald. It is apparently by the same poet who composed the 'First Lay of Helgi Hundingsbani,' and was inserted by him into the earlier story of Helgi and his father Hjörvarth. As before, there are English and Irish influences. The author in particular shows an acquaintance with the story of Scylla and Charybdis as it was known in

Ireland in the Early Middle Ages. Svafa, the betrothed of Helgi, in this lay clearly resembles in character Sigrun, Helgi's victory-genius in the 'First Helgi Lay,' and both have features obviously drawn from the Irish battle-goddesses as seen in the 'Story of the Destruction of Troy.' In the 'Lay of Helgi Hjörvarthsson' itself, West-Frankish, particularly Merovingian, stories of Clovis and his immediate successors have left traces. Helgi Hjörvarthsson corresponds to the Frankish Theodoric, the son of Clovis. There are also obvious points of contact, as in the case of the other Helgi lays, with the story of the Völsungs. In the author's opinion, this lay too was composed by a Norse poet in England, after various Frankish stories, which are transferred to a Scandinavian saga-hero, who is, again, a poetical and in no way an historical personality. The lay is subsequent to the 'Lay of Helgi Hundingsbani,' which was its immediate model.

In conclusion, Bugge points out the wider bearing of many of the results of this investigation. The stories of both Helgis, as has been stated, are influenced by, and in many ways connected with, the stories of the Völsungs and Niflungs, which are West-Germanic, originally foreign to the Scandinavians. There has been no general consensus of opinion as to how these stories, as they appear in the Völsunga-saga and the Edda, found their way from Germany northward. Of the younger Eddic scholars, Sijmons, for instance, maintains the usual theory that this happened through Saxon intermediation; Mogk, that the story was brought to Gautland by the Erulians, who had heard it from the East Goths, who in their turn learned it from the Franks; Golther, that a knowledge of the story first came to Danish and Norwegian Vikings in France and was then brought by way of Ireland to Iceland. Bugge believes, however, that the Scandinavians learned these stories in the West, especially in the British Isles and by association with Englishmen, and that poems in the Anglo-Saxon language were in part the source of this knowledge. It is plain that if this is a correct conclusion it is far-reaching, and the author hopes ultimately to prove not only that the Völsung stories as contained in the Edda were first composed by Norwegian poets in the West, who had associated with the English and Irish, but that essentially the whole poetic Edda has had a similar origin. He holds, in contradiction to the usual notion, that it is susceptible of proof that the majority of these poems have belonged together from the time of their origin, and that the younger presuppose the older. They represent, he says, different sides of one and the same tendency, and were composed under practically the same conditions and external impulses. The nucleus of the poetic Edda was not first gathered in Iceland. Norwegians in England and Ireland possessed the oldest and, indeed, most of the Eddic poems, already united into one collection, as early as the middle of the eleventh century.

That this is an extraordinarily interesting book, full of suggestion and ingenious theory, must appear even from the hurried abstract here given. Much of it, however, is but ingenious theory unsupported by actual evidence. The whole assumption, for instance, of the influence of the Wolfdietrich story upon the Helgi lays and the conditions under which it was exerted, which plays such an important part in the discussion, is, although plausible as a theory, as a fact wholly unproved. It may in part be true, but, as Bugge has left it, it is but a shrewd hypothesis and nothing more. It is impossible, too, to give credence except as clever guesses to his long line of lost Anglo-Saxon and Irish originals which are needed to substantiate his argument. As studies in evidence, what shall be said, to take instances quite at random, of the argument as to Hlöthvarth and Laertes; of the evolution of Atli into the son of Ithmund; or of statements like that with regard to Atli's dwelling at Glasilundi? Such a book, on the other hand, cannot fail to stimulate interest and further investigation in this whole wide field, where there is so much of vital importance to the history of the culture, not only of the Norsemen, but of the whole Germanic race.

The book contains, at the end, several appendixes, not in the original edition, and a complete index. The translation from first to last is admirably done. For the very first time in an English book there is a consistent writing of old Norse proper names.

A History of the University of Pennsylvania from its Foundation to A.D. 1770. By Thomas Harrison Montgomery. Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co. 1900. 8vo, pp. 566.

In eastern central New York is a streamlet which flows south about ten miles and enters Lake Otsego; it may be considered to flow straight on and come out at the other end. To call this brook the Susquehanna River would be much the same as to call the College of Philadelphia, A.D. 1770, "the University of Pennsylvania." The brook grew and became a river; the college gained accessions and a larger name in 1779; but if a visitor to Philadelphia, in or about 1770, had inquired for the University of Pennsylvania, the probable answer would have been a silent stare, or, "There isn't any." If this work were the first volume of a series extending to the present time, or (say) to 1800, its title would be right enough; as it is, Miss Young is not called Mrs. Jones till she has been married, and it is well to give people and things their right names when we know them. So, again, on p. 35, Mr. Montgomery says, "The birth of the University marks the half-way point in Franklin's life." He means the birth of the Academy; nothing else (of that sort) was born in 1749.

A mere misnomer must not be allowed to detract from the author's laborious and exhaustive researches. He has gathered a vast array of documents and details, and it seems unlikely that anything related, however remotely, to his topic has escaped his clutches. Were his zeal in accumulating materials reinforced by equal discretion in sifting and arranging them, the result would be less ponderous and more penetrable by the average student's patience. The main points of his tale are these. "The Publick Academy in the City of Philadelphia" was founded, chiefly through Franklin's exertions, towards the end of 1749; it had a long array of "Constitutions," and twenty-four Trustees, whose office for some time seems to have been no sinecure. The often repeated story of its being started in 1740 as a charity school is based on the fact that, this school becoming insolvent, the new Academy purchased its premises and buildings on Fourth Street; later, the charity school was revived as an appanage of the Academy. In September, 1751, there were "above 100 scholars, and the number daily increasing." "The Rector, who teaches Latin and Greek," received a salary of £200; the English master, £150; the mathematical professor, £125; and three assistant teachers, each £60. The first rector, David Martin, died in December, 1751. His work was taken, though not his title, by Francis Allison, who became Vice-Provost in 1755. A new charter was granted in 1753. William Smith, afterwards eminent, became tutor in 1754, and Provost the next year, when the institution received an increase of dignity, being incorporated as "The College, Academy, and Charitable School of Philadelphia."

From this on, the history is mainly occupied with the Provost, as in its earliest part with Franklin. Smith (his name was not his fault, though it tends to confound him with his notable nephew and several others of that period or later) was a remarkable man; his abilities and attainments were fully equalled by his restless energy and fearless combativeness. He got into trouble with the provincial Assembly, who twice imprisoned him in 1758; by order of the trustees, he heard his classes "in the place of his confinement." Then he went to England, and came back triumphantly with degrees of D.D. from Aberdeen and Oxford, and a reproof from Privy Council to the Assembly. He was again in England 1762-64, raising money for the college, which by this time was drawing students from the country and from other provinces. New buildings were erected in 1762-63; we are favored with a minute specially ordering the carpenter to put up "shelves and cupboards." In 1757 a lottery had been resorted to for relief of the increasing expenses. In 1768 occurred what was probably the most important event in the whole history of the college, the opening of its famous medical school.

Among the minor details may be found some points of interest, as those relating to Hopkinson, Duché, and other alumni of those days, and to Leigh Hunt's father, who lost his M.A. diploma as the putative author of pieces alleged to be scurrilous. The experience of the trustees as to honorary degrees is notable. In 1760 they thought "it might be of service to the institution to confer" a few. Two years later it was their "unanimous opinion that the College must lose reputation by conferring too many." And as to coeducation, or anything approaching it, thirty "charity girls" had since 1753 been taught in the college building; in 1760 a committee found it "unbecoming and indecent to have girls among our students: it is a reproach to our Institution."

The history of the Academy and College to 1770, so far as it is important or suggestive, might be given in a few chapters. Mr. Montgomery has padded it out with "biographical sketches of the Trustees, Faculty, the first Alumni, and others," with liberal extracts from minutes of meetings, and other matter of a sort dear to a member of three Historical Societies and a Genealogical Society. This imperfectly digested mass suggests Whately's explanation of obscurity: a thing is so clear to the writer that he assumes it to be equally clear (and equally interesting) to his readers; hence he takes no pains to make it so. The sections badly need headings, but have none; even a table of contents is lacking. There is an index; but if you wish to know (*e. g.*) when the term "provost" was introduced, you are offered three cross-references, none of which proves of any use; then you can start far back in the history and read on till you are tired. You will get a date (say 1760) on one page, and further on find yourself advanced to 1757. In short, the book will be attractive to local antiquarians, but puzzling to the general reader.

The publishers' work can be praised more highly than that of the author-compiler. The volume is beautifully printed, and so correctly that we have noted but three errors; on p. 133, "Charles V. Krauth" for Charles P.; on p. 329, "1750" for (presumably) 1759; and on p. 304, "1910" for 1810.

The Civil Law in Spain and Spanish America, including Cuba, Puerto Rico, and the Philippine Islands, and the Spanish Civil Code in force, annotated and with references to the Civil Codes of Mexico, Central and South America, etc., etc., by Clifford Stevens Walton, Doctorando, University of Madrid, Licentiate of the University of Havana, etc., etc. Washington: W. H. Lowdermilk & Co. 1900.

The various influences that have combined since the Roman conquest to shape Spanish jurisprudence make it seem, in comparison with our own system, at once venerable and romantic. Here is no evolution of one homogeneous body of law out of two principal elements, themselves not too dissimilar to blend, but the persistence through twenty centuries of the enduring principles of the Roman law. Goths, Visigoths, and Moors came, took what they found, put each their own impress on it, and went—leaving the law of Rome the basic law of Spain. About its mighty fabric they reared their own creations, the *Fueros*, local and provincial laws and privileges that still remain, like the statutes and customs of Man and the Channel Islands under the British Constitution. Out of this lodgment the Spanish drove the Moors, in turn modified and added to the great edifice, and overgrew it with a tangle of ecclesiastical and administrative law that shut out much of its light and air; but it remained Roman still, not altered beyond recognition either by time or by fortune. Even Napoleon affected it but little. He was mainly concerned with codifying and clarifying what already existed—a proceeding that appealed to the Spaniard's love of logic and verbal exactness. This has been the principal contribution of French genius to Spanish jurisprudence, though the present century's slow trend toward liberalism, stimulated from time to time by the successive revolts of Spanish colonies, originated in the principles of the French Revolution.

This evolution is worthy to be studied by the profoundest philosopher. It is a poor imagination that would not kindle on finding in one body of law the codes of Justinian, the statutes of the Moorish Kings of Granada, the rules of the Holy Inquisition, the compilation of Philip the Second, made when Spain ruled the world, and those "Laws of the Kings of the Indies" which were in force in the capitals of the Aztecs and the Incas, over the North American continent, the Antilles, and the Philippines, more than two hundred years ago, and have not yet lost all virtue, although Spain has yielded her conquests to alien administrators. Mr. Walton attempts, in a hundred pages, a summary history of this evolution, which shows laborious study, but is necessarily dry. Unfortunately, too, his learning and industry are not accompanied by the gift of clear statement. He sums up his chapter on the existing civil law thus:

> "In defining the Spanish system of legislation, in general, it may be said that it comprises a collection of compiled and codified laws, and that it continues as such, even after the partial codification of the civil law by which, until the present, the so-called common law is alone referred to, besides which there are a multitude of laws still existing" (p. 87).

This is a very blind way of saying that Spain has a number of modern codes, like the civil and commercial codes, which, so far as they go, are the highest statute law; that, besides, there are many old codes or compilations, alive at least in part, among them the so-called *Partidas*, or codification of principles and maxims of Roman law, cited to-day even in the courts of Louisiana. Moreover, that, in addition to these codes, modern and ancient, alive or half-alive, there exists a mass of independent local laws and privileges (styled the *derecho foral*), and still other *leyes*, *reglamentos*, and *decretos*, of more or less limited authority. This produces a lack of certainty in Spanish law that is its worst defect. Were it not for the brevity and exactness with which Spanish statutes are written, and the strictness with which their language is construed by the courts, all would be chaos. Mr. Walton does not discuss this to any extent, nor does his translation of the Spanish Constitution, preceded by a brief sketch of its origin, compensate for the want of a clear statement as to how Spanish law is made or interpreted, and what comparative weight is to be given to its various elements.

The same endeavor to condense a great deal in a small space similarly limits the value of the rest of the book. It contains brief sketches of the Penal Code, the Codes of Civil and Criminal Procedure, the Mortgage Law, the Notarial Law, the Codes of Commerce, the Laws of the Indies; the Laws and Codes of Mexico, a translation of the Mexican Constitution; some observations on Cuban autonomy, a translation of the "Autonomical Constitution" of 1897; a few forms; an index of the Ancient and Modern Codes of Spain, the principal codes and laws in force in Cuba, Porto Rico, and the Philippines, and of certain Spanish-American constitutions and codes, necessarily abridged and incomplete. In addition to all this, there are given certain acts or proclamations relating to the American government of Cuba, such as the extension of the mortgage-suspension decree, among which the Treaty of Paris might well have been included.

In short, the book is full of clues for the student. He cannot rely on it alone to test a question of Spanish law raised in actual practice—say, the regularity of acknowledgment of a deed or articles of incorporation, the validity of a claim to mineral lands, or similar matters. The answer might be in the book, but there would be no certainty about it. The work is, therefore, a mere compendium of Spanish law, too broad in scope, and in execution too much abridged, to be of first quality. With this criticism, it may be said that it will find a place in every library where Spanish-American law is studied—not for citation as an authority, but for consultation as a book of reference, which is made easy by an excellent index.

Of the main body of the book, a translation of the Spanish Civil Code, elaborately annotated with references to ancient Spanish and modern Spanish-American codes, it is hard to speak so well. It does not fail for lack of pains, but for lack of skill. Unless the reader knows Spanish, he will find much of it wholly unmeaning, because the translator prefers to render Spanish words into their nearest phonetic equivalent in English, where an apt selection, a circumlocution, or the retention in parenthesis of an idiom incapable of exact translation would make the sense clear. For instance, we speak familiarly of the *status* of citizenship, not its *quality (calidad)*; of *powers*, not *faculties (faculdades)*; *gifts inter vivos*, not *donations (donationes)*; gifts *for valuable consideration*, not *having onerous cause (causa onerosa)*. This is bad workmanship, but capable of being understood. Where the theory of the Spanish law is strange to us, translation breaks down altogether. What sense do the words *institution of heir (institución de heredero)* or *forced heirs (herederos forzosos)* convey? The meaning of the first might have been rendered by *bestowal* or *creation of heirship*—*i. e.*, the power to dispose by will out of the circle of one's blood-kin. The second means *heirs defined* or *limited by statute*—*i. e.*, a limitation on testamentary disposition to certain blood-relatives, if living, somewhat analogous to our New York restriction on charitable bequests by a man of family. The following is mere jargon: "Art. 1274. In onerous contracts, the prestation or promise of a thing or services by the other party is understood as a consideration for each contracting party; in remuneratory ones, the services or benefits remunerated, and in those of pure beneficence, the mere liberality of the benefactor." Such a translation (and it is throughout marked by these defects) has no usefulness. In parenthesis it may be added that a good translation of the Civil Code has been prepared under the authority of the War Department.

The Distribution of Income. By William Smart. Macmillan Co. 1899.

In his interesting preface, Professor Smart explains how his mental attitude has been affected by the study of economics. For a number of years he was engaged in practical business, and in that way acquired the ordinary business-man's skepticism concerning economic theories and theorists. Taking up the systematic study of economics, he spent some time in revising his experiences and getting rid of his misconceptions. Thus he naturally delayed grappling with the "supreme problem" of distribution until the unconscious influences of learning and teaching made up his mind for him. When he finally reached the point when deliverance was necessary, he decided to take his own difficulties as representing those of the ordinary man. Even when he began writing, he retained the long-rooted conviction that the present distribution of wealth was bad, and even unjust; but as his knowledge broadened with his study, he was compelled to modify and, indeed, to surrender this conviction. For a great deal of the national income is distributed while and as it is made; the processes of production and consumption are the same. If we inquire into the conditions under which the disbursements of the employer, the paymaster of organized industry, are made, we find that the distribution is not arbitrary, much less chaotic. Professor Smart observes:

> "One may, perhaps, imagine a better distribution, although it seems to me it is not easy to do so except by assuming that society is much simpler than it is, or that it is willing to renounce many of its motives as well as its gains. Nor am I insensible to its anomalies and hardships. I confess, indeed, that they are enough to confuse the generous mind, and drive it to ill-considered action. . . . But when the question is whether a regulated state control, according to any social or socialist ideal, would bring us conditions of life wherein all would have the possibility of realizing their moral being, or of being what is called 'happy,' I am disposed to think that the invisible hand—however one interprets Adam Smith's reference—is bringing about these conditions more quickly than any deliberate rearrangement of industry would."

It is easy to see that, under a somewhat narrow title, Professor Smart really contemplates the whole science of political economy, and we are almost inclined to call this essay one of the best statements of the modern form of that science. There are more elaborate discussions and analyses, and Professor Smart claims no originality; but within a moderate compass he has succeeded in presenting the results of contemporary thought in a systematic and lucid manner. The modern conception of society is in accord with the philosophy of Heraclitus. Everything is in motion; there is an incessant flux. "Wealth is a flow, not a fund." The production and consumption of wealth describe a circle, as the water in a stream describes one. The water flows to the sea, is evaporated and condensed, and returns to the fountain-heads to renew its circuit. Man is in the stream of wealth, like a trout in a stream of water. He builds himself up and grows, and then sinks back and is resolved into the materials whence he came.

> "He is but a worm that fills its skin and draws its life from the earth, which it passes through itself and leaves on the grass again. He makes the world richer as the worm makes the surface richer—by bringing matter from one place and leaving it in another. . . . We think of man as somehow apart from and above his natural environment, contemplating it, working on it, and subduing it to himself. Yet any deeper consideration shows us that man is simply the last and greatest embodiment of his environment, and is, after all, but a temporary embodiment."

We do not need to question the metaphysical accuracy of this view of society, but whether it is so helpful as is believed in such practical matters as economic legislation is a different matter. If we are to take income in this broad sense, how can we exclude the services which every individual renders to himself? Moreover, we may not omit from our reckoning the vast number of what might be called negative satisfactions. Gambling is the regular pursuit of some persons, and the occasional occupation of many. In the broad sense, much wealth is thus created; the winner gratifies his desire, but so does the loser. Yet it is paradoxical to contend that the national income is enlarged by gambling. We have to distinguish between the kinds of satisfaction which make up life; and the distinction made in common speech between the destruction and the consumption of wealth, between material goods and psychological gratifications, cannot be disregarded. Nor are we prepared to concede that the line drawn by the older economists between productive and unproductive labor is not of the greatest importance. If we undertake to include the whole life of man under economics, we diffuse our investigation over infinity. We must abstract, if we are to create a science rather than an aggregation of phenomena, and we are forced back to the point of view taken by Mill. We must, indeed, regard man psychologically; but we must, for practical purposes, regard him only as engaged in producing and consuming wealth.

In treating of wages and profits, Professor Smart argues against the claims of the trade-unions, as set forth by Mr. and Mrs. Webb, but we fear that they will regard him as guilty of the fallacy of composition. Granting that the individual, or the "average" employer, can pay no higher wages than he does, it does not follow that the whole class could not do so, and that is exactly what the Webbs maintain. They assert that capital would not cease to be accumulated were the rate of interest reduced, and this Professor Smart, rather unguardedly, concedes. In that case it does not appear inconceivable that wages should rise with the fall in the rate of interest. Still, Professor Smart's argument is ingenious, and deserves careful study. He has an even more formidable difficulty to encounter in the phenomenon of rent, or the "unearned increment." Here his argument is altogether insufficient to meet the requirements of the advocates of the "single tax." It amounts to little more than saying that the rent of land is only one species of a large genus. In spite of some weak spots, however, Professor Smart's essay is a persuasive, if not convincing, argument in defence of the existing system of distribution, on the ground that it approximates as closely to the ideals of justice as any scheme that does not wholly disregard the requirements of practical life.

Wesley and Methodism. [World's Epoch-Makers' Series.] By B. F. Snell, M.A. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1900.

Except that new books are often read where old and better ones on the same subject are neglected, the demand for a new life of Wesley was by no means clear, much less acute. Tyerman's exhaustive biography gives all the necessary facts; Miss Wedgewood's psychological study is as good now as when it was written; while, for a short life, that of Overton in the "English Religious Leaders" series was too well done to be easily surpassed. Mr. Snell's book is distinctly inferior to Mr. Overton's. With such a wealth of material to draw upon, it is astonishing that it should be so meagre in its acquisition. It is fundamentally at fault because the writer has no genuine sympathy with Wesley, no real admiration for him. Coming to the last page, we read with a feeling of surprise that "Wesley was a glorious being," so little has there been in the course of the book to justify such a eulogium. A note of depreciation, of innuendo, continually recurs, and, while there is much rebuttal of charges made against Wesley by his opponents, we get the impression that Mr. Snell finds more satisfaction in retailing the injurious matter than in correcting its mistakes. This is particularly so in the chapter called "Love and Death," in which the voluptuousness of Wesley's sexual imagery in describing the soul's relation to its heavenly bridegroom is dwelt upon with an unction that betrays an unfriendly disposition. Another example is the chapter called "Miracles and Mysteries." The miracles are those in which Wesley too credulously believed, and the mysteries are those of Wesley's married life, and, in general, his relations with women. That he had here a silly side is one of the most patent facts of his career. Mr. Snell does not exaggerate the truth, but accentuates it out of all proportion to its importance in the synthesis of Wesley's life and work.

The arrangement of the book is topical, not chronological. No clear idea is given of the order and development of Wesley's life. The treatment of Whitefield is much more favorable than that of Wesley; his more rabid emotionalism is applauded; but of the Calvinism that distinguished him so sharply from Wesley and threatened to divide them by an impassable gulf, there is no mention whatsoever. There is no clear presentation of the spontaneous and largely accidental growth of that organization of Methodism which has been too much credited to Wesley's organizing genius. Equally unsatisfactory is the treatment of Wesley's extremely complicated relations with the Church of England. But these particular defects are trifling in comparison with the general inadequacy of the book in its report of Wesley's character and influence.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 9, 1900.

The Week.

The Commission headed by Judge Taft, it is announced, has organized a civil government for the Philippines, to go into operation on the 1st of September. The Commission will be the Legislature of the islands, and it must also be the executive and the judiciary. It may appoint judges, but they will necessarily be subordinate to the Commission and will be removable at its pleasure. The laws which it ordains will be enforced by our troops and it will be hard for the Filipinos to discover how their condition has been altered. They can hardly be persuaded that they are governing themselves, and if they are not, they are probably indifferent to the titles which their rulers bear. The only sign of progress that is discoverable is the report that Judge Taft is examining the heads of the religious orders concerning their estates, and finds that the extent of their claims is smaller than was supposed. If this be true, some settlement of a very difficult question may be feasible.

Gen. MacArthur reports the capture of a small body of American troops by the Filipinos at a place not far from Manila, a loss insignificant in itself, but showing how precarious our position is. At the War Department the occurrence is regarded as a proof that the insurrection is still in a fairly organized condition, and that Gen. MacArthur's objections to the withdrawal of troops from the Philippines were well founded. Indeed, the War Department is said to believe that the effect of withdrawing two or three regiments for service in China has been to encourage the enemy to renew active operations. The conduct of the officer commanding the band of Filipinos which inflicted this reverse on our arms appears to have been highly honorable. He returned to us the wounded American soldiers, and assured us that the prisoners should be well treated. Such behavior is hardly to be reconciled with the hypothesis that the only Filipinos opposed to our rule are robbers and cutthroats.

Secretary Hay's straightforward reply to Li Hung Chang's suggestion that, if the allies would not march on Pekin, the foreign Ministers there might be sent, under safe escort, to Tientsin, ought to have brought the Chinese Government to its senses, if any diplomatic communication could. Secretary Hay declared, in clear and unmistakable language, that "this Government will not enter into any arrangement regarding the disposition or treatment of the legations without first having free communication with Minister Conger"; that "the responsibility for their protection rests upon the Chinese Government"; and that if that Government can deliver the Ministers at Tientsin, it can open the direct communication with them which is insisted upon. Nothing could be in less need of construction or interpretation than this. It hardly needs to be pointed out, of course, that such a declaration of policy practically amounts to an ultimatum on the part of this Government. Until the demand of the United States is granted, diplomacy has in this direction no further field.

It is regrettable that, just as the allied forces are beginning their advance upon Pekin, news should be received of an alarming prevalence of sickness among the American troops. The Ninth Infantry, perhaps the best regiment we had in the Philippines, and presumably a first-rate example of the "well-seasoned troops" which the United States was to employ in China, reports a sick list of 257. If we add the 140, or thereabouts, which this regiment lately lost in battle, we have a total of about 400 men to be deducted from the regiment's effective strength. The sick list, of course, bears an extremely large proportion to the whole, and c[illegible] prove disquieting to the public m[illegible] With the dreadful experiences of th[illegible]nish war to guide us, and with the a[illegible] in much readier condition for the field than in 1898, there has seemed good reason to hope that the story of disease, whether epidemic or climatic, would not be repeated, but that the health of the troops would be abundantly safeguarded. The excessive amount of sickness does not, however, appear to disturb the officials of the War Department, who point out that Tientsin is an old and filthy city, without drainage or sanitation, and with a water-supply reeking with pollution and contagion. Under the circumstances, and considering the change of climate, a sick list of 50 per cent. would not, they say, be surprising. It is to be hoped that present conditions may speedily improve, and that the preparation of field hospitals and hospital-ships and other medical and surgical supplies may prove adequate to the emergency.

In Mantchuria the Russians have open hostilities to deal with; and while their forces appear to be sufficient to hold the Chinese in check, a considerable body of troops is likely to be required in that quarter for some time yet. This means not only less effective coöperation with the other Powers in the concerted movement towards Pekin, but also a serious check to the progress of the railroad. Great Britain is reported to be assembling a strong fleet in the neighborhood of Shanghai, not only for the protection of its own interests there, but also as a safeguard against a possible hostile move by other Powers. From the interior come reports of massacres of native Christians, but most of these lack confirmation. Whatever its causes, however, there is every evidence that the ferment in the empire is widespread. Just at present, fortunately, the divided councils in the Chinese Government itself, together with the apparent friendliness of some of the viceroys for the foreigners, while complicating the situation, make, on the whole, for safety, by preventing the united action which foreign interests have most to fear.

The extent to which the coöperation of Japan can be counted on, by Europe and America, in the ultimate adjustment of the status of China, is a question likely to become of increasing interest. The fact that Japan, at the close of its late war with China, was deprived by the jealousy of the Powers of some of the fruits of victory to which it felt itself entitled, has encouraged the feeling that it would be only too glad, when the convenient season came, to subject its old enemy to further humiliation. The willingness of Japan to send troops to the disturbed region, and to lead, if desired, in the work of pacification, has received no end of applause and sounding commendation, while the remarkable preparedness of the Japanese forces has been in striking contrast to the imperfect equipment of the European contingents. Beyond the restoration of order, however, it is by no means clear that Japan can be counted on to join, as a matter of course, any "concert" which the other Powers may choose to arrange, especially if partition is a part of the programme. So far as can now be seen, the interest of Japan, with regard to both its internal peace and its foreign relations, is in preserving the Chinese territory and the Chinese Government intact. It has no reason to wish half-a-dozen foreign nations established at its doors, nor anything to gain from the international friction which would inevitably result. Moreover, notwithstanding the strides which Japan has taken in civilization, we must not forget that the Japanese have, at bottom, more points in common with the Chinese than with Europeans, and that their present activity does not necessarily exclude great sympathy for their antagonists. Doubtless, this sympathy will not tie their hands in the present emergency, but it is a weighty factor to reckon with in thinking about the future.

Silence sometimes has a significance more impressive than speech. Such is the case when the man who was McKinley's chief rival for the Republican nomination in 1896, and who was elected Speaker of the Republican House in 1897, says that he is "too busy a man" to make any speeches for the party this year. The election in Mr. Reed's own State comes next month, and it will be the first time in thirty years that he has not been on the stump. The silence of Thomas B. Reed will contrast sharply with the volubility of John Barrett and the other substitutes who will be put in the field. The most significant feature of the incident, however, is not the loss of an orator whose support would be of immense service to McKinley. It is the fact that this great figure stands for a class of Republican voters of no small dimensions. A very noteworthy feature of the canvass is the large number of Republicans who manifest no enthusiasm for their party, and who are not inclined to exert themselves for its success.

The letter from Mr. Charles Francis Adams, published in Saturday's *Evening Post*, should be read and digested by the large body of citizens who are in doubt concerning their duty at the coming election. They will not be likely to meet with any clearer or more carefully reasoned statement of the conditions of the probabilities, and even those who do not find it conclusive will admit its cogency. Probably most independent voters agree with Mr. Adams that an opposition majority in the House of Representatives is desirable. If it cannot improve our situation, it can prevent its getting worse. Not so many have his confidence that Mr. McKinley will be more conservative in his second term, or that the Jingo Republicans of the Roosevelt type will be discredited by the loss of the House of Representatives. As to Mr. Bryan's Anti-Imperialism, Mr. Adams forcibly presents the conviction which deters a great many Independents from voting for him. They do not believe, judging from his course about the treaty with Spain, that he is opposed to extending our sovereignty over other peoples; and they still less believe that there is any such opposition among the Democratic leaders. As Mr. Adams says, no one thinks that the people of the Philippines can be elevated to Tammany ideals of self-government within one, or a dozen, Presidential terms. Concerning the wisdom of organizing a third party, we doubt if those who favor the movement will be deterred by Mr. Adams's argument. They are, for the most part, voters who have made up their minds that the condition of the country will not be much worse or much better, whether Bryan or McKinley is President, and who are tired of having their political activity limited to choosing between evils. They see no hope of anything better in the future unless there is a revolt, and whether their numbers are sufficient or not to make their protest impressive, they will at least have freed their consciences. But, of course, this can be accomplished by simple abstention.

Mr. J. Sterling Morton's paper, the *Conservative*, republishes the speech made by Senator Money of Mississippi against the treaty with Spain while Mr. Bryan was himself urging its ratification. It would seem as though Senator Money was addressing himself particularly to Mr. Bryan when he said:

> "We are told that we want peace; that we want to get the volunteers home. We all do. Everybody wants peace. I want the volunteers brought home. . . . Does any man say we are going to have peace by ratifying this treaty? Yes; we will have peace with Spain, but we will begin war with the Filipinos. . . . If we ratify the treaty with no declaration in it that we disclaim any right to enslave these people, or to hold them in subjection, or use language which does not mean giving them their liberty, we have already embarked in a war that will not release the volunteers, but which will call for fresh volunteers, and thousands of the best American youth will lay their bones upon the plains and in the jungle of Luzon and in other parts of the Philippines."

Referring to the Bacon resolution which Mr. Bryan wished to have adopted simultaneously with the ratification of the treaty, Senator Money said that there were several such resolutions before the Senate, but that they amounted to nothing because they were mere declarations of opinion. Congress might pass them to-day and repeal them to-morrow. They did not fix the status of the Filipinos. They did not disband the army. They did not put a stop to bloodshed. The only place to accomplish these things was in the treaty itself. He (Mr. Money) could not vote for a treaty without stipulations insuring peace engrafted in the instrument itself. With such stipulations he believed that it would receive every vote on his side of the chamber.

Perhaps the most noteworthy of all the Government returns for July are those which deal with the new issues of banknote circulation. During the month, $12,331,000 in this currency was issued to the banks, and, allowing for circulation retired by other institutions, the net increase was $10,455,000. The volume of increase has been surpassed in some previous months of the current year—in May, when the new issues aggregated $15,210,000, in April, with $14,325,000, and in March, with $21,518,000; but these earlier additions to the currency were the first-fruits of the new law of March 14, and the expansion was not expected to continue at any similar ratio. As the July figures show, however, there is little or no check to the movement. In the five months since the enactment of the law, the country's total bank circulation has increased $70,500,000. The magnitude of this addition to the circulating medium may be judged from the fact that it far exceeds the national banknote issues of any full year in the country's history, excepting only 1865 and 1866. It exceeds, in fact, the annual increase in all kinds of currency combined, in twenty-eight out of the thirty-five years since the civil war. In the second year named, the new bank circulation reached a total of $135,000,000. This is a striking figure; yet it will be observed that if the new issues of the current year continue at the rate reported for last month, the increase in circulation for the first twelve months of the law of March 14 will far exceed even 1866. Few expert observers ventured, last spring, to predict so huge a gain as this; yet it must be remembered that the relatively dull months of interior trade are now behind us, and that the harvest demand for currency, when bank issues would normally expand, sets in this month.

Thousands of our European immigrants come in by way of Canada, among them many who could never pass our strict inspection. So many have chosen this indirect route that the steerage business of lines touching at American ports is seriously affected. The united complaints of these steamship companies have brought the matter before the Treasury Department, which is now considering the serious problem of guarding a border of three thousand miles. There has long been an agreement with the Canadian Government that its inspection of immigrants bound for the United States should be strict and thorough. There has been, however, no means of enforcing such inspection, while nothing was easier for an immigrant having some defect in the eyes of the law than to announce himself as a candidate for Canadian citizenship. This usually sufficed to let him through, for it is still the policy of Canada to encourage immigration. Assistant Secretary Taylor of the Treasury Department and Commissioner-General Powderly of the Immigration Bureau have gone to Montreal to confer with Canadian officials about the whole matter. It is suggested by Commissioner Powderly that inspection points be established where the great railroad lines cross the border. The suggestion is a practicable one; and already, with almost suspicious alacrity, the Canadian railroad and steamship companies offer satisfactory assurance for the free return of rejected immigrants. The lines that get such inspection points will, of course, gain largely. Already there is a very pretty quarrel on between Canadian railroad and American steamship interests. It would be unfortunate if the fear of showing favoritism should confuse the whole issue, and leave us by default the old agreement.

Justice Davy of the New York Supreme Court has rendered a decision to the effect that an action for damages will lie when the "right of privacy" is violated. In this case a young woman's portrait was used as an advertisement without her consent, and a demurrer to her complaint has been overruled. The Court says that the plaintiff was not "within the category of what might be denominated a public character," and that there is no intrinsic improbability in the claim that she suffered mental distress because she was forced into this category. To desire a life of privacy, the Court continues, is entirely legitimate, and to print and post in public places as an advertisement the likeness of a person who wishes to avoid notoriety, may unquestionably injure the reputation as well as the feelings. Furthermore, if a lithographic likeness, owing to its beauty, is of great value as a trademark or an advertising medium, this value belongs to the person whose features are represented, and not to any person who chooses to make use of the likeness.

Some of the reasoning by which Justice Davy supports his decision is not altogether satisfactory. Privacy, he says, is regarded as a product of civilization, and was unknown and unsought among the barbarous tribes. The privacy of the home in every civilized country is regarded as sacred, and any invasion of it tends to destroy domestic and individual happiness. But many barbarous tribes are extremely particular on this point, and the customs of the Mohammedans are too well known to be referred to. On the other hand, it is only necessary to take up a copy of one of our sensational journals in order to see how far we regard the privacy of the home as sacred. It might more properly be said that civilization consists in giving the protection of the law to those customs and those feelings concerning privacy which the maintenance of the institution of the family in its perfection requires. Some years ago the Court of Appeals took the unfortunate position that a surviving relative could not suffer, in the eye of the law, because of the exhibition of a memorial of a deceased person which that person might have objected to if living. In that case all the surviving relatives of a woman of high position protested against the erection of a statue of her by an "art association" of dubious character; but the majority of the Court of Appeals held that the feelings of these relatives were injured only in their fancy. The judges of the lower courts, men not regarded in the profession as inferior in their abilities to those who reviewed their decision, gave substantial reasons for thinking such injuries not fanciful. But even the Court of Appeals admitted that living people had rights of privacy, and it is probable that Justice Davy's decision will be sustained.

The House of Lords has finally determined an interesting question under the law of copyright. During the year 1896 Lord Rosebery made a number of public speeches at meetings which reporters were invited to attend. The *Times* sent its representatives, who prepared reports of the speeches, which were then published. Other reporters were present, and also reported the speeches for publication. In 1899 a publisher, Lane, issued a book entitled 'Appreciations and Addresses by Lord Rosebery,' which was made up of verbatim copies of the *Times's* reports, the copying being without its consent. Lord Rosebery made no claim to copyright in his speeches. The *Times* then brought its action against Lane, alleging that he had infringed its copyright, it having duly registered its reports according to the requirements of the Copyright Law. There was no dispute concerning the facts, the sole issue being whether reporters of the public speeches of other people were authors or not, within the meaning of the statute. It was also admitted that the reports were practically exact reproductions of Lord Rosebery's words. They left out nothing they added nothing, and there was no paraphrasing or epitomizing or composing. The speeches might, in fact, have been reproduced by a phonograph, so far as any personal contribution by the reporters was concerned. An injunction was granted in the Chancery Division, but the decision was reversed in the Court of Appeal. Now the House of Lords, four judges against one, has definitively established the reporters' right, or that of their employers. Lord Rosebery, it was contended by counsel, was the author of his speech; but the reporter was the author of the report of his speech. One of the most effective arguments employed for the *Times* was that if a man had a perfect memory, and wrote out by heart with complete accuracy a speech which he had heard, he would have no protection, whereas, if he only gave the substance of it in his own words, he would be entitled to copyright. The case was extremely well argued, Mr. Augustine Birrell doing his best for the publisher, Lane; and the full report of the decision will be awaited with interest.

The exodus of the Jews from Rumania is explained by a correspondent of the London *Times* in a letter which reflects severely on the Government of that country. The independence of Rumania was established in 1878 by the treaty of Berlin. Article 44 of that treaty declares that "In Rumania the difference of religious creeds and confessions shall not be alleged against any person as a ground for exclusion or incapacity in matters relating to the enjoyment of civil and political rights, admission to public employments, functions, and honors, or the exercise of the various professions and industries in any locality whatsoever." In spite of this explicit provision and of the remonstrances of England, France, and Germany, the Rumanian Government has practically denied citizenship to the Jews. In 1879 about 800 Jewish soldiers were naturalized, but during the last twenty years less than 100 Rumanian Jews, members of a few wealthy families, have been enfranchised. Of the 260,000 Jews in the kingdom, most of them descended from those who have been settled there for generations, only 900 are now citizens. Even in their case the right is purely personal, and does not descend to their children. The Jews, being thus aliens in the eye of the law, are denied free education. There are 30,000 children of their race who are entitled to it, but only by paying fees are 3,000 of them able to obtain educational advantages which are free to Rumanians. The higher schools are closed to them, and they are hampered in establishing schools of their own. No Jew is permitted to hold a Government office, or a position in a hospital or on a railway. No Jew may be an architect, a veterinary surgeon, a dispensing chemist, or a lawyer. No Jew can be employed in the National Bank, or serve in the Chamber of Commerce, or hold a commission in the army. A Jew cannot sell tobacco or salt, and by a special act against peddlers 20,000 of these have been brought to the verge of starvation. They have been expelled from the country, and every obstacle has been placed in the way of their obtaining a living in the towns.

The Jews have until recently endured their persecutions with patience, and, while not enjoying the rights of citizenship, they have discharged its duties. They have performed military service, and fought in the campaign of Plevna. But the recent harvest failures have made their condition intolerable, and they are now trying to escape to the United States, to Canada, to Cyprus, even to Turkey, knowing that they can be no worse off, wherever they may go. This shocking spectacle has disgusted Europe and alarmed the Rumanian Government, which is trying to cover up its cruelties. It is said that the Rothschilds have let it be understood that that Government will find it hard to borrow money hereafter—a report which we hope is true. If the Jewish bankers will teach Christian rulers a few lessons in elementary humanity by cutting off their financial supplies, it will be an application of the "money power" which even the Bryanites might condone.

THE ALERT-PRESS FALLACY.

Memories are so short nowadays, and it has become so especially easy to forget the things we do not like to remember, that Imperialist newspapers may be surprised to be reminded at this late date of one of their glib assumptions of a year ago. This was that we had one sure bulwark against misgovernment or oppression in our new possessions. Grant that Congress might be apathetic, that the Administration might be indifferent, that our civil and military officials in our added islands might be supine, there was always the independent and enterprising press to fall back upon. Could there be injustice in the Philippines which the American journalist would leave for one day unwhipped? Could a Porto Rican be wronged in person or property without having the instant sympathy and championing of vigilant and fearless newspapers in this country? Put one side all sense of public duty; as a mere matter of news, as the basis of a sensational attack upon the Administration, every crookedness was certain to be exploited. Oh no, there would be no oppressive Imperialism anywhere in our new empire with the sleepless American press ready to hound it down.

That was the theory. We freed our mind about it when it was first produced. To us, it seemed only one of those "lounging opinions" which Lord Shelburne reproached the Duke of Grafton for holding. It was easy-chair and summer-afternoon philosophy. No man who bent his mind seriously to the problem would adopt it. One had but to think of the muzzling of the native Hindu press, and the general silence of English journalism as to all that concerns native aspirations or native wrongs in India, to see what was the far more likely Imperialistic course that our own press would pursue. Add its notorious fickleness, in response to a public as eager as the Athenian to tell or hear some new thing; its well-known inability to be indignant on any subject more than a week; its constantly changing personnel and management—and the alert press which was going to defend and rescue every imperilled new subject of ours was pretty certain to turn out a figment of the Imperialistic imagination. So we felt and said at the time.

We have now gone on with the thing long enough to take our bearings and ask how practice squares with theory. What do we see to be the facts? The special correspondents in the Philippines, Porto Rico, and Cuba have, almost without exception, been recalled. The press associations send but the most meagre dispatches, and those are censored. A few weeks since the editor of a prominent Havana newspaper was in this city, and declared that the New York press no longer took any interest whatever in Cuba. It was true, and he might have said the same of the press of the country at large, so far as the matter of Cuban news goes. The truth is, that this whole business of our new possessions is, from the newspaper point of view, an exploded sensation. There is nothing more in it. The biggest and reddest "scare-head" about the Philippines would not sell a copy. Our editors, like our reading public, wearily drop the entire subject. They take their cue from the sentiment which Lamartine once uttered from the tribune, "I warn the Chamber that France is being bored to death." If a bulwark of liberty, a champion of the oppressed, bores the public, why, it is his plain duty to give up those rôles at once. So reasons the press, wiser in its generation than the children of theoretic Imperialism.

To be more specific, of what smallest aid is the press in righting wrongs in the Philippines? The native newspapers cannot speak above a whisper; if they do they are suppressed, and a file of soldiers escorts their editors to jail. Of American newspapers in Manila, the less said the better. They live by advertisements of beer and whiskey. One sees with what zeal and courage they would expose the canteen abuse! In fact, their entire attitude towards the natives is one of antagonism and contempt. They would be the last resort in the world of a wronged Filipino. Our newspapers at home, as we have said, do little but languidly print the doctored Philippine dispatches. Where is there any persistent and rational discussion of the infinitely difficult questions of taxation, of education, of religion, of municipal and general government with which the Philippine Commission is wrestling? The American public is tired of it all. Naturally, therefore, the American press drops it all.

Which of our American newspapers know, or, if they do know, tell their readers, that great dissatisfaction with American rule now exists in Porto Rico, that the San Juan Chamber of Commerce is out with a strong protest against the new system of taxation and custom-house administration, and that the increasing discontent was what led Gov. Allen to make his sudden and hurried trip to Washington? What editorial bulwarks of liberty have the Cuban planters, who say that the United States is taxing them worse than Spain, at the same time that it is shutting them out of a market for their sugar and tobacco? Who among the noble champions of the Cubans in the American press even knows that the University of Havana, faculty and students, is up in arms against the recent military decree reorganizing and (it is alleged) demoralizing that institution? These are but specimen questions. The answer to all of them is that the American press cares for none of these things. It has other sensations in hand. That old orange is squeezed and thrown away. One short year has sufficed to show that this particular Imperialistic doll—this theory that our colonists would safely repose under the ægis of an independent and liberty-loving press—is stuffed with sawdust.

CURRENCY REFORM CONTINUED.

The Reform Club, through its Sound-Currency Committee, has issued an appeal for funds to carry on the work of currency reform from the point where it was left by the recent legislation of Congress (act of March 14, 1900), to the real and indisputable establishment of the gold standard. "Though much has been accomplished," it says, "the financial reforms advocated by this Committee and embodied in its enunciation of principles, are still incomplete." By way of showing its incompleteness the Committee publishes a tract embracing the recent article on this subject by Professor Laughlin, the recent address of Congressman Hill of Connecticut, the statement of Secretary Gage published in the *Journal of Commerce*, which was called out by Professor Laughlin's article, and the comments of the *Journal of Commerce* thereon. These papers, in the opinion of the Committee, point to the conclusion that the law recently passed, if administered by public officers who are hostile to it, by no means assures the maintenance of the gold standard.

It will be observed that the work proposed by the Committee does not relate to any point or subject in controversy among the friends of currency reform. It does not touch the question of "banking on assets." It does not relate to banknotes in any shape or form. It is directed solely to the defects of the present law regarding the gold standard. Those defects it may be well to point out again.

The chief defect in the act of March 14, 1900, is the omission of the law to make all contracts and obligations to pay dollars mean gold dollars. In this particular the only advance achieved is found in the clause which makes the new 2 per cent. bonds and the greenbacks and Treasury notes payable specifically in gold. The legal character and status of silver dollars and silver certificates remain unchanged. Private obligations remain unchanged. The old law of 1873 which made the gold dollar the unit of value is reënacted. This reaffirmation is not without moral effect, but its legal force is not augmented. Professor Laughlin showed that more than one thousand millions of the Government debt remains payable in "coin," under which phrase silver dollars are included. The House bill, for which that of the Senate was substituted, had contained a clause declaring "that all interest-bearing obligations of the United States for the payment of money, now existing or hereafter to be entered into, shall be deemed and held to be payable in the gold coin of the United States." This was stricken out by the Conference Committee, and it is one of the omissions which the Reform Club's committee desires to restore by future legislation. Another is the omission to make silver dollars exchangeable for gold dollars at the pleasure of the holder. The law declares it the duty of the Secretary of the Treasury to maintain the parity of value of all forms of money issued or coined by the United States—that is, parity with gold—but it gives him no new powers with which to execute the mandate. On this point Professor Laughlin says:

> "Suppose that Congress had ordained that the navy should have all the old powder exchanged for smokeless powder, and that it should have made it the duty of the Secretary of the Navy to make such exchange, but had provided no appropriation for this purpose, nor allowed any machinery for carrying out the plan beyond what existed before. Should we not regard this as something more than trickery? Certainly, it would be an insult to the intelligence of the public."

The law provides abundant means for replenishing the gold reserve when deficiencies occur for redeeming the legal-tender notes, and Secretary Gage finds a clause by which he is authorized to use the gold reserve "for all lawful purposes." Under this proviso he holds that it might be used to maintain the parity of all forms of money issued or coined by the United States. He is probably correct in this assumption. When a particular duty is imposed upon a public officer, he ought to construe all doubtful provisions of law in such manner as to promote the fulfilment of the duty. The immediate question, however, is not what a friendly Secretary would do, but what an unfriendly one might do.

The law, as a whole, contains provisions which constitute an advance toward the establishment of the gold standard, but it falls short of completeness in the particulars named. It is a good fair-weather law. Given prosperous times and a friendly administration of the Treasury Department, it will serve our needs in practice, although not perfect in theory. Even an unfriendly Secretary would be unable to disturb the gold standard by paying out silver dollars so long as the business of the country is active enough to absorb the silver dollars and certificates. In such case the Secretary, however unfriendly, could not get hold of enough silver dollars to do any real harm, although he might start a panic by attempting to force silver on the Government's creditors.

Under these conditions the Reform Club's determination to continue its sound-currency campaign is most commendable, and ought to be sustained by the contributions of the business men who have so liberally supplied it heretofore. No other agency has equalled it in furnishing to the public facts, arguments, and statistical information of value. No other can be named that possesses equally good machinery for disseminating such enlightenment.

THE ECLIPSE OF LIBERALISM.

As the nineteenth century draws to its close it is impossible not to contrast the political ideals now dominant with those of the preceding era. It was the rights of man which engaged the attention of the political thinkers of the eighteenth century. The world had suffered so much misery from the results of dynastic ambitions and jealousies, the masses of mankind were everywhere so burdened by the exactions of the superior classes, as to bring about a universal revulsion against the principle of authority. Government, it was plainly seen, had become the vehicle of oppression; and the methods by which it could be subordinated to the needs of individual development, and could be made to foster liberty rather than to suppress it, were the favorite study of the most enlightened philosophers. In opposition to the theory of divine right, whether of kings or demagogues, the doctrine of natural rights was set up. Humanity was exalted above human institutions, man was held superior to the State, and universal brotherhood supplanted the ideals of national power and glory.

These eighteenth-century ideas were the soil in which modern Liberalism flourished. Under their influence the demand for Constitutional Government arose. Rulers were to be the servants of the people, and were to be restrained and held in check by bills of rights and fundamental laws which defined the liberties proved by experience to be most important and most vulnerable. Hence arose the movement for Parliamentary reform in England, with its great outcome, the establishment of what was called free trade, but which was really the overthrow of many privileges besides those of the landlords. Hence arose the demands for Constitutional reform in all the countries of Europe; abortive and unsuccessful in certain respects, but frightening despots into a semblance of regard for human liberty, and into practical concessions which at least curbed despotic authority. Republics were established and Constitutions were ordained. The revolutions of 1848 proved the power of the spirit of Liberalism, and where despotism reasserted itself, it did so with fear and trembling.

To the principles and precepts of Liberalism the prodigious material progress of the age was largely due. Freed from the vexatious meddling of governments, men devoted themselves to their natural task, the bettering of their condition, with the wonderful results which surround us. But it now seems that its material comfort has blinded the eyes of the present generation to the cause which made it possible. In the politics of the world, Liberalism is a declining, almost a defunct force. The condition of the Liberal party in England is indeed parlous. There is actually talk of organizing a Liberal-Imperialist party; a combination of repugnant tendencies and theories as impossible as that of fire and water. On the other hand, there is a faction of so-called Liberals who so little understand their traditions as to make common cause with the Socialists. Only a remnant, old men for the most part, still uphold the Liberal doctrine, and when they are gone, it will have no champions.

True Liberalism has never been understood by the masses of the French people; and while it has no more consistent and enlightened defenders than the select group of orthodox economists that still reverence the principles of Turgot and Say, there is no longer even a Liberal faction in the Chamber. Much the same is true of Spain, of Italy, and of Austria, while the present condition of Lberalism in Germany is in painful contrast with what it was less than a generation ago. In our country recent events show how much ground has been lost. The Declaration of Independence no longer arouses enthusiasm; it is an embarrassing instrument which requires to be explained away. The Constitution is said to be "outgrown"; and at all events the rights which it guarantees must be carefully reserved to our own ctiizens, and not allowed to human beings over whom we have purchased sovereignty. The great party which boasted that it had secured for the negro the rights of humanity and of citizenship, now listens in silence to the proclamation of white supremacy and makes no protest against the nullification of the Fifteenth Amendment. Its mouth is closed, for it has become "patriot only in pernicious toils," and the present boasts of this "champion of human kind" are

> "To mix with Kings in the low lust of sway,
> Yell in the hunt, and share the murderous prey;
> To insult the shrine of Liberty with spoils
> From freemen torn, to tempt and to betray."

Nationalism in the sense of national greed has supplanted Liberalism. It is an old foe under a new name. By making the aggrandizement of a particular nation a higher end than the welfare of mankind, it has sophisticated the moral sense of Christendom. Aristotle justified slavery, because Barbarians were "naturally" inferior to Greeks, and we have gone back to his philosophy. We hear no more of natural rights, but of inferior races, whose part it is to submit to the government of those whom God has made their superiors. The old fallacy of divine right has once more asserted its ruinous power, and before it is again repudiated there must be international struggles on a terrific scale. At home all criticism of the foreign policy of our rulers is denounced as unpatriotic. They must not be changed, for the national policy must be continuous. Abroad, the rulers of every country must hasten to every scene of territorial plunder, that they may secure their share. To succeed in these predatory expeditions the restraints of parliamentary, even of party, government must be cast aside. The Czar of Russia and the Emperor of Germany have a free hand in China; they are not hampered by constitutions or by representatives of the common people. Lord Salisbury is more embarrassed, and the President of the United States is, according to our Constitution, helpless without the support of Congress. That is what our Imperialists mean by saying that we have outgrown the Constitution.

THE ORGANIZATION OF EDUCATION.

One of the advance steps which seem most likely to be taken in education in the immediate future is the organization of educational forces. We have colleges and universities to spare, with constantly increasing enrolments and rapidly swelling endowments. The efficiency of the various classes of preparatory schools has grown with rapid strides during the present generation. What seems to be demanded now is an organization of these multitudinous agencies, in accordance with some system which, while not destroying proper individuality or ambition, will bring about greater harmony and coöperation, and rid the educational field of not a little lack of uniformity and of waste of energy due to needless duplication.

There has been already a considerable number of hopeful steps in this direction. The Commission of Colleges in New England, the New England Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools, and such special organizations as the New England History Teachers' Association, have done much in the way of unifying the work of colleges and secondary schools, particularly in the matter of methods of instruction, college entrance requirements, and the conditions of various academic degrees. An association of colleges and preparatory schools for the Middle States and Maryland has been working along the same lines, and has lately set itself to organize and maintain a board for the conduct of college entrance examinations. There are similar associations for the Northwest, and, we believe, for other sections of the country, while the National Educational Association, now a highly organized and efficient body, has already, through the reports of some of its committees, profoundly stimulated discussion of educational problems.

What is needed now is a systematic gathering up of the results which these various bodies, each working, to a considerable extent, independently of the others, have attained, and a systematic attempt to apply their demonstrated principles to the work of organization over a given territory. There are several topics with which any such attempt would particularly concern itself. First in importance, doubtless, must be placed the much-discussed subject of uniform college entrance requirements. The point that now needs attention, however, and the one most to be considered in a general scheme of organization, is not the terms in which requirements are stated, but the uniformity with which the prescriptions are interpreted. Theoretically, at least, we have now practical agreement as to the kind and amount of work a boy shall do in each of the subjects which go to make up his "fit"; but the standards of examiners in testing his attainments vary widely. In one college the hard subject to pass is Greek, in another mathematics, in another history; yet the catalogue definition of requirements is, very likely, the same in all. After giving all due weight to the personal equation, it is still very apparent that, in education as in other things, only a beginning has been made when a "scheme" has been drafted, and that it is the spirit, rather than the letter, of the law that usually counts for the most.

The experiment undertaken by the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools for the Middle States and Maryland will be watched with special interest in this connection. This association proposes to secure, by means of a joint committee from colleges and fitting schools, the preparation and use of uniform papers for entrance examinations. The papers will be drawn up and corrected by the committee, or under their supervision. Whether such a plan is feasible or not, or whether it may not be defeated by the great amount of labor involved in carrying it out, experience must show, but the project is a bold move in the direction of which we have been speaking—that, namely, of reducing to the lowest terms the wide variations of judgment among college examiners.

The same crying need of uniformity arises in fixing the content of college and university courses. There would seem to be no insuperable difficulty in securing practical identity at this point. In departments such as languages and mathematics, the ground covered in a given "course" might easily be made substantially the same in all institutions in which that course is taught. In other departments, where library or laboratory facilities affect the extent and quality of the instruction, the courses of different institutions might well be arranged so as to bear a known and ascertainable value in relation to each other. The underlying feeling of the average man, particularly the average parent, that a term or year of work at Brown or Amherst or Bowdoin ought to stand for the same as a term or year at Williams or Tufts or Dartmouth, has too firm a basis to be much longer ignored. At present, each institution regulates the matter for itself, often by a rather crude rule of thumb. Harvard scrutinizes the content of a "course," as well as the record of the student who has taken it, and by this means reaches a conclusion as to how much, on its own scale, the offered work is worth. Other institutions, including many small colleges, rate the work of similar institutions, course for course, the same as they rate their own. Neither follows what any of the others recognizes as a general principle, and the result is only a working compromise.

Consideration of entrance requirements and the content of college courses involves necessarily the conditions for a degree, in regard to which, also, there is still wide diversity. It is the solution of problems of this sort that educational organization has next to undertake. The demand is not for machinery for the sake of a system, but for conservation of energy for the sake of the student and the public. There are difficulties in the way, of course; some of them, no doubt, serious. It will not be easy to devise a plan of coöperation in which universities, colleges, and preparatory schools shall each find place and work harmoniously to definite ends, but something of the sort has certainly come to be a pressing desideratum.

THE PRESENT NEEDS OF ITALY.

The tragic death of King Humbert leaves the Italian state in a deplorable condition. The very ongoing of the present order may depend upon a good understanding between the new King and his Parliament and people. Division and subdivision have been the only constant principles of action in Italy since the departure of the French from Rome. Unification had been an idea of the dreamers, of the Dantes and Petrarchs and Leopardis; and when the unification of Italy became a fact, it appeared too suddenly and with too much adventitious aid from outside. The old provincial divisions have never really disappeared. Between Piedmontese and Neapolitan what a gulf! How different a Tuscan from either! Italy is wrestling with a parliamentary system, without possessing that sense of party loyalty and responsibility which can alone give weight and stability to party government. The Deputies at Montecitorio dissolve into contending factions with ever-shifting alliances, so that nothing like consistent party policy is discoverable. A kingdom where local divisions are most strongly marked, groans under a Napoleonic bureaucracy which it distrusts and has hardly yet learned to understand, while in the struggle between Church and State the State appears to lose.

In the web of corruption and cross-purposes which has enveloped the Government of Italy, the kingship has been the one bright strand. Two kings of heroic courage, of generous heart, and of open mind have represented all that was admirable in the national ideal. If loyalty to the kingship goes, the last informing idea of the present order goes with it, and the time will be ripe for revolution. This is mere sentiment, some will say; but it is by such sentiment that nations live. It is unfortunate that Victor Emmanuel III. is not what his compatriots call *uomo simpatico;* it is generally believed, however, that he has unusual abilities, and there is hope that he may be, like his father and grandfather before him, moderator of the cruel tempest in which the Italian state drifts almost pilotless—"nave senza nocchiero in gran tempesta."

The parliamentary system has relatively failed in Italy, but the nation has suffered more from internal corruption and from bad finance than from simple maladjustment of political system to national temperament. The official class, not excluding the army, is notoriously corrupt. We know on indubitable authority that at Naples a paltry fee will secure for an attorney the papers delivered by his opponent for the private information of the court. The Deputies enrich themselves at the public expense, and the principle of *combinazione* is all-powerful. The result is that there exists in Italy a profound contempt for its own political institutions. "They [the Deputies] are all corrupt, or quickly become so," said an intelligent proprietor last spring to an American, "and the only remedy is general abstention from voting." It must be a desperate condition indeed that suggests, even as a whim, the protest of folded hands and silent lips. *Giusti son due*, said Dante of the Florentine leaders of his time; it were an optimistic Italian that would admit as many just leaders to-day.

Oppressive taxation is the crying evil of Italy. Here lie the greatest perils to the state and, as well, the greatest possibilities of reform. The peasants of the Apennines, a thrifty, laborious race, live chiefly on chestnuts and cheese; in Romagna—the garden spot of Italy—the workers suffer peculiar and distressing diseases because they cannot afford salt, heavily taxed as it is, for their *polenta;* in the farming districts of southern Italy, we are credibly informed, the taxes amount to 50 per cent. of income from all sources. The selling of small properties for defaulted taxes of less than 100 lire ($20) is of common occurrence. The unification of Italy was at best an expensive necessity, and a corrupt administration and an ambitious military and naval policy have made the burden doubly galling. These taxes are paid by those who are least able to bear them. The peasant pays on his land, and pays day by day for every pint of milk or bunch of vegetables he carries to market; the wealthy citizen is often favored by statute (luxuries are curiously enough generally exempted from taxation as "non-productive"), and more by collusion with the assessor. Northern Italy, which in 1891 possessed 48 per cent. of the national wealth, pays less than 40 per cent. of the taxes, while southern Italy, holding 27 per cent., contributes 32 per cent.; so unequal is the distribution of a burden grievous enough in any case.

It is in this matter of taxation that Italy must make or break. The average Italian takes his politics lightly enough, but he knows well that he is taxed, and taxed cruelly. The principle of revolt is not in him, still less that of reform, but actual distress and hunger may bring about the real "bread riots" that the disorders of May, 1898, professed to be, unless reform first come to relieve an intolerable situation. Reasonable honesty in administration, average justice in taxation, passable economy in expenditure—this is all that the Italian state requires for its safe continuance. The alternative is clearly enough dismemberment and a return to the old condition of independent states and communes. But we cannot believe that the work of the Risorgimento is so to be nullified. There is a remnant working for the revivification of the body politic; and with this despised remnant of *intellectuels*, of whom Signor Villari is the type, the future of Italy largely lies. The public life, like the art and literature of Italy, has been in danger of perishing for want of ideas. The old ideas of the unification have worn out. The idea of reform and the civic courage to carry it into effect are the only hope of the Italian nation. The King, from the Constitutional limitation of his powers, can contribute little directly to this work; but by representing in his person the solidarity of national feeling, through which alone reform can come, he may indirectly contribute much.

JACOB DOLSON COX.

Thirty years ago this very month which witnesses his decease, Mr. Cox, then Secretary of the Interior, received from President Grant such treatment as seldom falls to the lot of an upright Cabinet officer. One McGarrahan, who had for years been endeavoring in the courts to establish a fraudulent claim to California mining lands really belonging to the United States, and had four times been repulsed in disgrace by the courts, was working upon Congress, where his success was no greater. However, his claim had, in 1870, been again referred to the House Judiciary Committee, and he had as counsel Lewis Dent, the President's brother-in-law. Meanwhile the New Idria Mining Company lodged an application with the Interior Department for a patent to the same lands. Through the Supreme Court of the District of Columbia, promptly and sharply overruled by the United States Supreme Court, McGarrahan procured an injunction against the application taking its natural course. This failing, he induced the Chairman of the Judiciary Committee to request Secretary Cox to suspend proceedings in view of possible Congressional action in favor of the pretender. The Secretary, upon this impertinence, asked the advice of Attorney-General Hoar, who replied that the rights of the New Idria Company were determined by law, and were not subject to requests from judiciary committees or even from Congress itself. Accordingly, Secretary Cox ordered the Land Office examiners to pursue their usual routine, with due notice to all parties interested.

It was now midsummer, and President Grant had gone to Long Branch, whither the McGarrahan interest pursued him, and drew from him an executive order to Secretary Cox to disregard the Attorney-General's advice, and to leave the matter in the hands of the Judiciary Committee. The Secretary, who had in vain urged that Grant return to Washington and submit the controversy to a special meeting of the Cabinet, gave plain notice in his reply that such interference on the part of his chief, if persisted in (and this was not the first instance), would compel him to resign.

The occasion was not long in coming. The Pennsylvania election was approaching, and the Republican party managers made their customary appearance in Washington to blackmail the clerks of the departments in a manner now prohibited by law. The Interior Department, however, had been put by Secretary Cox, of his own motion, and long before any civil-service reform regulations had been enacted, on a merit basis—no dismissals except for incompetency, no appointments except after examination. He accordingly forbade a levy fixed in the case of each clerk or class by the party collectors, with threat of dismissal for non-compliance. From this moment he was doomed. Simon Cameron and Senator "Zach" Chandler led a powerful movement to oust the independent Secretary. The President, on his part, displeased at finding his irregular, semi-military interference resented—moreover, already seeking a renomination—gave no support to Secretary Cox, who in October handed in his resignation, following Hoar, who had been previously forced out. "Stalwart" Republicans like Col. Forney of the Philadelphia *Press*, acting as Grant's mouthpiece, insinuated "personal reasons" for the resignation, and then attacked the retiring officer for his "sickly sentimentality" in taking the civil service out of politics, as well as for his action in the case of the McGarrahan claim.

Secretary Cox's virtual dismissal at the behest of the machine was vigorously censured by the press of the country without distinction of party. President Woolsey of Yale and his professors held a meeting to swell the chorus of reprobation. In fact, the incident of Secretary Cox's political martyrdom materially conduced to the ultimate triumph of the reform movement, then struggling into being. It was still fresh in the public mind when the opposition aroused by the progress of official corruption under Grant's first Administration engendered the luckless Cincinnati Convention of 1872. Gen. Cox was a natural candidate of the reform party, with which he had publicly identified himself. A lawyer by profession, he had had civic experience as State Senator of Ohio, when with Hayes and Garfield he virtually directed legislation; at the close of the war he had been elected Governor. His versatile talent had found free play as executive head of the miscellaneous Department of the Interior. His services on the battlefield had been conspicuous and highly meritorious and successful. He had sacrificed his Cabinet position in defence of pure government. He suffered, however, the fate of most martyrs, and his leadership was not entertained by a body which ended by nominating Greeley.

A partial return to public life was made in 1876, when the Sixth Ohio District elected Gen. Cox to the House of Representatives at Washington by the largest majority ever known. It was his hope that he might thus do something to sustain President Hayes. He did not serve a second term, whether it was not assured him, or whether the time had come for him to choose for or against politics as a career. He felt the helplessness of the new member, unused to the ropes. He saw how genuine debate is handicapped by the vastness of the House chamber and by the mob of inattentive members. Perhaps he had had enough of strife, for his character was essentially easy and amiable, however resolute and soldierly. Save for one speech on the stump in 1880 in support of his old associate Garfield, he retired altogether from politics even as a free lance or as a contributor to public discussion in the press. He came near being drawn into the currency debate, for he had been persuaded by his friend Dana Horton's arguments for the remonetization of silver; but he held aloof. He had, on quitting the Cabinet, resumed the practice of the law in Cincinnati. He then removed to Toledo to become President of the Wabash Railroad. On the expiration of his Congressional term, he was made President of the Cincinnati University, and afterwards Dean of the Law School. A graduate of Oberlin College in 1851, he returned three years ago to that institution to end his days, having made a most agreeable arrangement by which his private library was added to that of the College, and he provided with a corner of his own, where his literary work could be pursued amid delightful surroundings. Here he completed, among other works, his military memoirs now in course of publication by the Scribners, and he entered upon his vacation last month with as much buoyancy and expectation as ever. It was his summer custom to join one of his sons in cruising in the Gulf of Maine, with headquarters at Magnolia, Mass., and in that place he died after a brief weakness on August 4.

We have purposely, in these "strenuous" days, begun our notice of a truly noble man and rare American at a point unrelated to his military career, which, with his various writings, will chiefly cause him to be remembered by posterity. He was, however, one of the first to raise troops and take command in the civil war, passing (after distinguished action on many fields from West Virginia to Maryland, Tennessee, and North Carolina) from a brigadier-generalship to a major-generalship, in which capacity he earned the honors of the stubborn contest with Hood at Franklin. Of the war he became an historian in his monographs on 'Atlanta,' 'The March to the Sea,' 'The Second Battle of Bull Run, as Connected with the Fitz-John Porter Case,' 'The Battle of Franklin,' and finally in the memoirs already referred to, of which he was reading the proofs when stricken down. He had been for many years, and to the very last, the military critic of books for the *Nation* and the *Evening Post*, and after the death of John C. Ropes he was easily the highest authority with reference to the events and the strategy of the civil war. He wrote with great fluency, seldom amending his proofs, and maintained to the end the vigor of thought and expression which marked his prime. His fairness was remarkable for a nature so hearty as to be almost fervid. If his judgment of Fitz-John Porter seems unwarranted, or at least not that which will finally prevail, his admiration for Grant as a soldier was unimpaired by his experience with him as a politician-ridden President. For Sherman, too, he had a high regard, in spite of a certain brusqueness towards subordinates; for, as Gen. Cox used to remark, when the fight was raging no man could be more Chesterfieldian, and he concluded that, on the whole, he should prefer, of all commanders he had known, to serve again under Sherman.

Gen. Cox did not go with his party the full length of its opposition to President Johnson, and this contributed in some measure to his dropping out of local politics in Ohio. He had a dread of negro suffrage, or rather he had a strong desire that the white race should shape the destiny of the country. No more than others who have essayed it could he suggest a solution of the reconstruction problem wiser or more stable than that adopted by Congress. In 1865 he proposed a scheme of segregation, but it found no echo. He witnessed with satisfaction the downfall of the carpet-bag régime, to which President Hayes gave the *coup de grâce* that President Grant forebore to deal, though seeing it to be inevitable. He knew that through or over existing forms the wealth, intelligence, and force of character of the South would assert itself and regain control of the government. The extent to which this process has actually gone on, with the growth of lynching and political terrorism such as shocks us to-day, could but seem to him deplorable.

The distinction of Oberlin College was that it welcomed not only female students—a prime innovation—but colored. Of such an institution Gen. Cox was proud to be both an alumnus and latterly a trustee. He married a daughter of President Finney, once famous as a revivalist preacher, and made his last home in a spot endeared to both by the tenderest associations. His father was a master-builder, whose home sometimes accompanied his contracts, and was actually in Montreal when the future Gen. Cox was born on October 27, 1828. Mechanical aptitude "ran in the family," and produced among the numerous brothers a turbine wheel on which great expectations, not realized, were based. Gen. Cox was devoted to the microscope, and among his other diversions was a thorough study of the cathedrals of Europe. He was the father of Kenyon Cox, the well-known artist and art critic. A daughter married a son of Gen. Pope.

We should do ourselves injustice if we withheld from this imperfect tribute to Gen. Cox the note of personal bereavement. For a generation we have enjoyed with him an intimacy characterized by utter frankness and entire mutual esteem through all vicissitudes of opinion; enlivened by constant intercourse by letter, in connection with that attached and cordial collaboration which has lent so much weight to the reviews of this journal; and refreshed by visits, "alas! too few," in his annual east-westward journey. In a time of decadence we feel keenly the loss of one who threw all his weight in the scale of that elder Americanism which, to look only at his own State, has undergone so woful a substitution—for Chase, and Giddings, and Wade, for Hayes and Garfield, of Grosvenor and Foraker, of McKinley and Hanna.

AMONG THE NURAGHI.

SASSARI, SARDINIA, June, 1900.

"Illæ robustissimorum saxorum maceries, quæ adhuc Noraces vocantur, et ad instar rotundarum turrium, in insulæ locis agrestibus et montuosis, passim conspiciuntur." Thus wrote John Francis Fara, Bishop of Bosa, in the sixteenth century, in 'De Chorographia Sardiniæ' (first edition, Turin, 1835); and beyond the time of Fara, as scholars tell us, similar references are found through Diodorus Siculus up to Aristotle himself. In more recent times, students, local or other, serious travellers, or mere inquisitive tourists (like the present writer) have found in these strange remains of a vanished race an interest none the less great from the fact that, saving their very obvious and tangible existence, almost every point bearing on their origin or their purpose is still wrapped in the haze of obscurity and conflicting conjecture. So numerous, indeed, are the monographs on this subject that the stranger soon finds his Italian vocabulary enriched with the uninviting terms *nuraghagrafo* and *nuraghologo*, to neither of which, if he be wise, will he dare to pretend.

As the railway train proceeds along the main Sardinian line from Cagliari to Sassari, the eminences and hillsides are frequently observed to be topped by massive, conical towers of stone, built in horizontal courses of rough-hewn blocks without mortar or cement, which diminish in size up to the flat, truncated top of the structure. When Macomer, the nodus of the island, is reached, the whole district appears fairly studded with these *nuraghi;* and from here to Nuoro, situated near the great craggy outposts of the Gennargentu chain, or mountain centre of Sardinia, is consequently the most favorable field for study, whether long or short. Some of the best-preserved remains, as well as a few specimens of another character, are likewise in this vicinity. Near the small *paese* of Bolotaha, close by, Neigebaur (Turin, 1855) professed to have ascertained the existence of no less than two hundred nuraghi. It has been estimated that the total number contained in the island is upwards of three thousand; on this point most of the authorities agree. But by far the clearest impression of the vast numbers of these towers, in good condition long ages ago, is to be obtained from an admirable map of a small corner of Sardinia made by the Cav. Filippo Nissardi, Inspector of the Museo Nazionale at Cagliari, unfortunately as yet unpublished. The specific marks indicating nuraghi, whether ruined or intact, are in some places so close together as to remind one of the "Temperance Map" of London, in which each red spot stands for a tavern. As Dr. Nissardi's map represents the "nuraghography" of only the northwestern angle lying to the left of Porto Torres and Alghero, it is much to be regretted that the authorities have not yet seen fit to enable him to complete the survey of the island before the disappearance, through carelessness or deliberate destruction, of many more of these interesting remains.

The typical nuraghe, as the better-informed reader doubtless knows, consists usually of two vaulted chambers, one above the other, the upper one being reached by a spiral passage, so narrow as to admit but one person at a time, and rarely high enough to allow one to stand erect. This is, however, by no means a universal rule. A short distance from Tempio in Gallura, for instance, there stands on the property of the Azara family an extremely interesting specimen, which the kindness of its owners allowed the writer to see under the very best conditions. It originally had two stories (the upper one now gone), but the ground floor is reached through a high vaulted corridor, leading by openings, right and left, to two chambers of the ordinary type, while from the left-hand room a small third chamber is reached through a low aperture. Behind these again, and still included in the eight-foot wall of the nuraghe, lies a fourth room, almost entirely ruined, the ingress to which is undetermined. Another noteworthy feature of this structure lies in the fact that, like others in Gallura, it is built of the hard gray granite of the Limbara district, largely used for construction purposes in the town of Tempio itself. Its lines are consequently much less regular than usual, and the courses less horizontal. The builders obviously selected blocks with approximately smooth cleavage, for no sign of tooling has been detected here. One of the larger blocks, taken almost at haphazard, proved on measurement to be five and a half feet long, four feet wide, and two and a half feet thick. Differences in structure have been variously explained, as will subsequently appear; the variety of material employed (hard calcareous stone, trachytic porphyry, volcanic rock, and so forth) depended on the nature of available building stone afforded by the neighborhood. Thus, the celebrated "Black Nuraghe," seen from the railway carriage window, near Ploaghe, between Chilivani and Sassari, is built of lava, fairly abundant in the region. As regards height and girth, it need but be said that the larger towers measure some fifty feet from foundation to top of platform, with a diameter of about eighty feet at the base; scores of them are on a much smaller scale.

It forms no part of the purpose of the present article to attempt the serious solution of difficulties over which archæologists are still at strife; the outside dilettante is only too often disposed to rush in where the specialist treads with wary foot. Suffice it to say that authorities on "nuraghology" see in these structures a variety of different ends. Thus, to take a few of them chronologically, Stephanini ('De Veteribus Sardiniæ Landibus,' 1772) holds them to be trophies of victory; Madao ('Sarde Antichita,' 1792) argues in favor of a *sepulchral* hypothesis; La Marmora, the classical authority on Sardinia (1840), looks upon the nuraghi as essentially connected with religious worship; Canonico Giov. Spano (1854), also an eminent nuraghologist, discovered grounds for considering them to be dwellings of the primitive inhabitants of Sardinia ("case e abitazioni antiche di famiglie aggregate in società"), while others, again, have come to the conclusion (Zanardelli, 1899) that the primary intention of the nurag-builder was strictly defensive, during ages of "Homeric struggle." In all this controversy, not always conducted, be it said, in the dispassionate spirit which is misguidedly supposed to mark the objective aloofness of science, only one writer of eminence seems to have been capable of taking the strictly logical position of the empirical school. Dr. Ettore Pais of Naples. in a most excellent monograph ('La Sardegna prima del Dominio Romano,' Rome, 1881), printed among the archives of the Reale Accademia dei Lincei, for the first time suggested that the purposes of the three thousand or more nuraghi in the island of Sardinia need not have been uniformly identical. Variety in structure might very well be brought about by diversity of purpose; and, indeed, the same nuraghe might well, in those primitive anti-specializing times, have been designed with more than one aim in view; further, as Dr. Pais points out, it is not easy to find two that coincide in all the details of their plan. There was, continues the learned writer, a close connection between the fortress and the temple in prehistoric times, or, as one might say, *entente cordiale* between the gown and the sword. This unlikeness of structure, in which La Marmora saw only a deeper mystery than ever, and which another sought to account for by assuming a difference in resources or social standing of their builders, appears to Dr. Pais, on the contrary, the obviously simple solution, which he offers.

He thus sums up his inference in the following widely synthetic proposition: "Il Nuraghe . . . devrebbe considerarsi come la forma non solo prototipica ma esclusiva di tutta l'architettura dell' antico abitante della Sardegna." This position is not easy to dispute. It is strengthened by the fact that all endeavors to classify the nuraghi in view of determined differences of purpose have thus far been unsuccessful. A very general division separates them into three kinds—single, linked, and grouped; but, according to several authorities, it rarely happens that nuraghi are found in complete isolation, and the linking and grouping can easily be explained by reference to the character of local situation rather than by specific differentiation in the matter of determinable purpose. When, for example, three closely neighboring hills offer favorable positions for construction, it is more than likely that towers will be found on each one. If the eminences form an *enfilade*, the nuraghi are linked, while a bunch, or cluster, results from closer juxtaposition of the respective sites.

The principal point which forced itself upon the notice of the writer will be noted presently; but, among the many valuable bibliographical resources placed at his disposal through the courtesy of the librarians at Cagliari and Sassari, he could hardly fail to mark the singular insistence laid by most of the contestants in turn upon this or that minor, not to say niggling, detail, in the endeavor to establish an hypothesis. Taking but one example, we may say that an opponent of Spano's very plausible theory of the nuraghe as a dwelling based his principal arguments on the absence of light and air in the interior of the structure, as well as on the general smallness of the means of ingress, which rarely admits of one's entering upright. Now when, in the name of all ethnological experience, did the cowering savage ever object to creep into his primitive lair? It surely argues a *parti pris* to ignore the fact that the tent of the North American Indian and the Esquimau snow hut are still commonly accessible only on all fours—sometimes in the more humiliating posture of the serpent. And as for sunlight and oxygen, on the necessity for which the critic in question dwells at much length, it may well be asked whether the inhabitants of ground floors and cellars on the Castello hill of Cagliari, in their narrow streets, enjoy much more of these blessings than did their remote ancestors, the nuraghe-builders? Scores of families in southern Italy live in one darksome room, the window and door of which are but meagre concessions to civilization; and, it may be added, the demand for light and air is one of the first signs that the material conditions of *modern* civilization are at last looked upon as essential. In this respect, Italy is still a laggard in the race, for the ordinary Italian bedroom is, at night, an air-tight camera obscura, while the terrors of the railway-carriage, with windows closed and curtains drawn, have become too proverbial for mention. It should also be said that, even to this day, the Sardinian shepherd frequently finds the nuraghi perfectly habitable. If one may be permitted another illustration, it is found in connection with the vexed question as to whether the nuraghi were all originally, as now, truncated near the top, or rounded off with a bulbous dome. On this point, a leading authority, basing his argument on the use of the word θόλος in a passage from a work commonly assigned to Aristotle ('De Mirab. Mundi'), of which the genuineness has, however, been contested, concludes in favor of truncation. But, says the skeptic, how do we know that Aristotle ever saw a nuraghe, or any one who had seen one? And, further, since θόλος signifies not only *camera fastigiata rotunda*, but *ædificium rotundum*, it appears to the outsider a somewhat arbitrary assumption to restrict the meaning to the former alone.

Preserving still the attitude of one untrained in the psychological (and logical) procedure of archæology, the writer confesses to some surprise at the comparatively faint stress laid by the majority of inquirers on what presented itself to him as the most salient general feature in connection with these mysterious towers. Apart entirely from the facts of their great numbers, of their massive strength, of the admittedly extreme rarity of their complete isolation. and of their almost invariable situation on eminences commanding a more or less extensive fertile district, little attention seems to have been paid, even by Gen. La Marmora, to their markedly favorable strategical positions. Over and over again, whether from the rapid glimpse through a railway-carriage window, or during the more leisurely and studious ramble in the country, the nuraghi appeared *en échelon* along the jutting points of a range of foothills, backed by the stronger support of mountain-ranges which, in those distant days, must have been well-nigh impassable for an invading enemy. If we take further into consideration the geographical structure of Sardinia, which offers, on the map, a rugged succession of mountains on the east side, from the Straits of Bonifacio to the Gulf of Cagliari, while the western swath, though partly hilly, opens out into the rich Campidano and other plains, it seems difficult to resist the conviction that *one* purpose at least of the builders was that of defence. One need not conclude that a synthetically organized scheme of fortresses was conceived from the outset. Rather, we should say, as the island became more and more populous, successive positions were selected, till at last, over a vast range of country, the harvests were commanded and protected from this stretch of hill-towers presenting their openings mostly to the south—not only the quarter on which the safest harbors were found, but also the direction from which hostile incursions were by far the most likely to come, This impression was intensified on seeing, in the Museo Nazionale at Cagliari, a very complete, if partly conjectural, restoration of the original ground-plan of a nuraghe, inductively put together by the Cav. Filippo Nissardi as the result of years of study. It represents the central tower flanked with smaller turrets, and the line of circumvallation described by a massive wall which, according to the hypothesis, enclosed the primitive settlement; while outside the boundary of this defence was the necropolis, so often illustrated in Sardinia in the *Tumbas de los Gigantes*.

Of the æsthetic effect of the nuraghi in the landscape, little notice seems to have been taken. Photographs can give but a faint idea of the impressiveness of these lonely masses of cyclopean blocks, dominating the plains, and presenting, under the afternoon sun, the most superb deep orange of their flanks, covered all over with stonecrop and other lichenous growths; while the base, and often the top of the structure, blossoms out in weeds and wildflowers. There is, however, one result derived from careful photographing, namely, the correction of a defect common to almost all illustrations with pen or pencil. Such pictures usually represent the lines of construction much too regularly. Both from the cheap woodcuts of Sardinian monographs, and from the elaborate engraving of La Marmora's atlas, which accompanies his great work, the reader would be led to expect rectilinear effects resembling the lines of an Eddystone lighthouse; while the real beauty of these towers seems rather to consist in their constant preservation of due and graceful relations between height and diameter, without insisting on strict regularity of upright and horizontal lines. The undeniable practical superiority of photography in this respect is further enhanced by comparing results in the writer's possession with cuts from La Marmora (steel) and Tyndale (wood) of a singular row of vertical cones of stone, known as the *pedras marmuradas de Tamuli*, a few miles to the west of Macomer. Two or three of these bear, a few inches from the top, protuberances roughly resembling the human female breast. In La Marmora, the beautifully executed steel engraving shows a sort of cartridge broken out with two warts; and Tyndale's illustration is entirely misleading.

If the end for which the nuraghi were originally destined is still open to controversy, no less doubt continues to hang about the question as to who built them. The philological speculations of Petit-Radel and others, the strictly Biblical turn of Spano's argumentative ethnology, and the still more *elaborate historical researches of contemporary scholars tend to inspire the unlearned* with due respect, but also with prudent reserve, for all these doctors do most hopelessly disagree. There is nothing in these buildings, save the nature of their construction, the bronze tools or instruments and the grotesque idols (or *figurines*) discovered in fairly large numbers among the ruins, that can serve to decide approximately the epoch of building or the builders. It seems possible, according to the best authorities, to connect the nuraghi historically with the Talajotz (or Talaxots) of Mallorca, which resemble them in shape and position. And a leading archæologist, of another order, told the present writer that towers of similar construction may still be seen among the almost unvisited islands of the Aegean. The ordinary traveller will be quite content to remain unfixed in the nebula of hypothesis; for him, it is sufficient to know that, in the dim distance of that prehistoric past, there lived on the island a race capable, like the Sardes of Vittorio Emanuele's day, of asserting their rights to have and to hold what their industry had made their own. But this Sardinian determination to preserve, in the midst of Italian unity, a distinctive ethnical and social character has also the advantage of fostering the prehistoric tradition of consideration and hospitality to the stranger. While warmly thanking Dr. Arnaldo Capra (librarian at Cagliari) and Dr. the Rev. Filippo Nissardi, Vittorio Finzi (librarian at Sassari), together with their assistants, for much more than official courtesy and kindness, the writer would also include in his gratitude the many unnamed Sardinians —chance acquaintances, innkeepers, and peasants—whose attentions stimulated the interest of study by reducing the difficulties of travel in a beautiful country little trodden by the tourist.

P. T. L.

THE PARIS EXPOSITION.—VI.

THE FOREIGN FINE-ART SECTIONS.

London, July, 1900.

If all roads lead to Rome, it is certain that all good pictures—by Continental artists—find their way to the two Salons. The foreign sections at the Grand Palais des Beaux-Arts, if I except the American, have little to show that is not known, little that can come as a surprise. The work has almost all been seen in Paris at one time or another, though, of course, now that it is collected together according to countries, certain national characteristics are more sharply marked. Art is not an affair of nationality, it is true; but only the greatest artists remain uninfluenced by accidents of race and climate and environment.

As far as space is concerned, Germany, Austria, and Great Britain fare no better than the United States. Unable to make an exhaustive display, the Germans and Austrians seem to have determined to show how an exhibition should be arranged. Their rooms are interesting, less because of what is in them than because of their scheme of arrangement and decoration. There is no doubt that Mr. Whistler, when he startled London by paying some attention to the color of the walls and the distribution of light in the gallery of the British Artists who had made him their President, was the first to explain that the beauty and effect of an exhibition as a whole should be considered no less than the quality of individual pictures. The same principle was accepted by the International Society, of which he is now President, and the two shows at Knightsbridge have given an example to the world. Certainly, they have had their influence on the Germans, who contributed to them, and who now, in Paris, have built up a series of beautiful rooms, decorated, one in green, another in red and gold, separated by a little hall with alcoves and marble columns. There are rich hangings, wide couches are set out as in a drawing-room, green plants in tubs, bronzes, and pedestals are scattered here and there, and you have a pleasant sense of not being in an exhibition gallery, but in a palatial apartment where pictures happen to be among the treasures. The only trouble is that the scheme of decoration is too gorgeous, it is overdone, as it is also in the German pavilion. Ornament is piled upon ornament, with heaviness as the result. But, on the other hand, the pictures gain by the arrangement. They have an air of being something fine, the careful hanging points to their importance, and I was struck with the fact that it lends distinction to the most commonplace. A portrait that even at the International in London was a blot on the otherwise beautiful walls, here becomes not only unobjectionable, but almost impressive.

However, it is just as well the collection should borrow importance somewhere, for, in itself, it has no great merit to recommend it. There are but two small watercolors by Menzel; Stuck's labored mysticism has long since become tedious; the series of portraits by Lenbach prove how seldom his work is worthy of his reputation; there is a not very distinguished Liebermann, a still less distinguished Von Uhde, and, really, when I have said this, I have said all that need be said. Klinger stays away, and so does Arnold Böcklin, who, by now, seems less Swiss than German. There is no sign of the Munich Secession, and, as in the other sections, no effort to introduce new men. Altogether, the decorations, despite their splendor, cannot conceal the poverty of the work for which they are the background.

It is the same in the Austrian section, though here the arrangement, while as charming, is far simpler; in color, a cool gray that is very pleasant and restful to the eye. But if there is no heaviness, no exaggerated gorgeousness, the detail in the frieze, in the hangings, in the general scheme, has a touch of the peculiar affectation of ornament that has gone forth from England, chiefly by way of the studio, all over Europe. I shall never forget the house of an aspiring Belgian to which I went last summer, where the paper on the walls, the carpets, the chairs, the tables, the pictures, the brasses—everything was modelled apparently upon the English "Arts and Craftsmen," with, as result, an aggressiveness, a jumpiness, a jumble of ornament that made one long for the restraint and severity of the old mahogany and horsehair period. There is nothing of this kind in the Austrian rooms, but only the tendency, the warning of what might happen were the accepted schemes carried a little further. On the cool gray walls, the pictures are hung with the utmost taste, well spaced, and never crowded. But there is not one you can feel any particular desire to look at a second time. A room is reserved for Hungary; and the Hungarians, with that eagerness which outrivals the Americans to do everything on the biggest scale on earth, have striven to get as many canvases as possible in the given space, and these cover the wall in a solid mass from floor to ceiling. Nor have the artists neglected any of the fads or fashions of the day. Their pictures are impressionistic, religious, mystic, symbolical—all the many other things that pictures have been at the Salon for the last decade; while it is amusing to find, in the corner set apart for Croatia and Slavonia, a perfect outburst of sunlight and symbols. In a word, I discovered nothing in the Austro-Hungarian section that seemed in the least individual, or personal, or even interesting, except the watercolors of Ferdinand Andri—strong, vivid studies of peasants that reveal some originality of observation as well as very good drawing.

Great Britain, on the other hand, has been as indifferent to the appearance of its galleries as to the quality of the pictures that fill them. You might think the object had been, after showing in the English pavilion the masterpieces that British painters—Hogarth, Gainsborough, Reynolds, Raeburn, Turner, Constable—once produced, to astonish Paris by the spectacle of a Royal Academy of to-day on the banks of the Seine. "A collection of Academicians and mediocrities," English critics themselves have been describing the work sent to represent British art; and the hanging is as unintelligent, as crowded, as atrocious in every respect as at Burlington House. The fact is, most of the members of the Committee in charge were Academicians or dealers, or admirers and patrons of the Academy, to whom British art—official art—means the Academy and nothing else. But it is not necessary to point out now—I have pointed it out often enough before—how much else there is in Great Britain besides the Academy. The Glasgow School, for instance, started a very distinct movement, and what is there from Glasgow? A couple of portraits by Mr. Lavery, one very badly hung, a picture by Mr. Walton, skied—it occupied a place of honor at the Knightsbridge show a year ago—and that really is about all. Nor is the existence of the New English Art Club recognized; there is no suggestion of this little group who were among the first to turn to France for their inspiration and standard. Nor is space made for several independent landscape-painters who might be leaders of a school were not their own originality so obviously borrowed from France. Mr. Edward Stott is here and well hung, but Mr. Priestman and Mr. Hill are banished to the ceiling, and the others are absent. It is enough to say that, of all the notable outsiders, Mr. C. H. Shannon alone appears, and he, unexpectedly, is on the line, where his portrait of himself, despite its old-masterly affectation and the clumsiness of drawing that so far has marred all his work, asserts itself with that distinction which the Committee evidently tried hard to exclude. It is easy to understand, when you look round these rooms, so amateurish and childlike compared to the other sections, why the English, amazed at the manifestation of their own shortcomings, are indignant that two of their Academicians who might have joined with Mr. Watts and Mr. Orchardson to help things a little—Sargent and Abbey—should prefer to show with the Americans.

In a few other sections interest centres upon one or two men. In the Italian, where the space, so limited with the Americans, is far in excess of the exhibitors' needs, Boldini and Segantini overshadow everybody else. I have spoken already of Boldini. His pictures hang together, so that their effect is strengthened. Besides the "Whistler" there are two portraits of women and one of Comte Montesquiou, the latter already seen in the Salon. His people live on his canvas; you feel the nervous joy of the painter, his excitement in his own creations, and, if you happen to know one of his sitters, you recognize the truth with which he always renders every characteristic of feature or pose. In fact, in his portraits of women, truth borders upon caricature; what he intends for elegance in a great lady at times comes very near degenerating into meretriciousness. But that does not detract from the fluency of his painting, his unusual power of observation, his technical accomplishment, his entirely personal standpoint. The drawback to his work is a certain effect of thinness, of over-freshness; his painting seems to need long years to tone and mellow it. But, when those years have passed, I imagine his pictures will stand comparison with the old masters better than even his admirers now believe. Segantini is a painter of as decided a personality, and his pictures, too, have been grouped together. There is a series of three large Alpine landscapes upon which he was at work just before his death, unrivalled in their realization of the clear atmosphere, the hard glitter, the dazzling snow peaks, the sharp outlines of the Alps, and in their grandeur of composition. They are not finished; in one the clouds are still heavy white lumps of paint, and you are therefore too conscious of that curious technique which he developed for himself. As a rule, a painter's methods broaden with years and his accumulation of knowledge and experience. But it was just the other way with Segantini. There is one of his early pictures here, put in boldly and with the greatest breadth. But in these last landscapes the canvas is covered with a minute mosaic of color that makes you marvel the more that, with such technical mannerisms, he could express so much dignity, such a feeling of bigness in his mountains and pastures.

The Spaniards, in their work, show the same desire for sensation on a large scale, and, in a measure, the same skill you find in the Salon. It is evident that most of the exhibitors have studied in Paris. Pinazo Martinez does try, but with indifferent success, to reproduce the types and sunlight of Spain. Sorolla y Bastida, who has carried off a gold medal, succeeds much better; his canvases have decided vigor, but they are nothing more than able Salon *machines*. And what else is there? Madrazo grows vulgar with years. Fabrés, in a colossal composition, seems, to his own misfortune, to invite comparison with Velasquez; Paredes and Salinas do their best to continue the subject and manner of Casanova; Garcia y Ramos paints anecdotes with the assiduity of, though with more ability than, the British Royal Academician; Checa is sensationalism itself; and there remain but the watercolors and drawings by Vierge, all well known, that are worthy of the great traditions of the country. In Portugal, again, you discover chiefly echoes of Paris and the Salon, except for the portraits of Columbano, who has studied Velasquez and Whistler, and whose work is, at least, a tribute to his taste in preferring great masters to clever leaders of passing movements.

If Spain is Vierge, Switzerland is Schwabe. Here and there are artists who deliberately set to work to develop whatever they think characteristic of their country, for never before was nationality accepted as such a responsibility. Perhaps it is Hodler who carries the mediæval spirit the furthest, striving almost too hard to infuse into it the new life of a vigorous personality. There is Roederstein, whose portraits are a tribute to Holbein, and are more striking here than in the Salon. But, otherwise, everywhere is the influence of the Paris studios and schools. Take Amiet as a typical example; he, like the American, has been painting snow, but, instead of rendering it as he sees it in Swiss valleys and on Swiss mountains, his one idea, apparently, is a decorative arrangement that will suggest vaguely many things he, last of all, would be able to define. Even Schwabe, whose personality is distinct enough to dominate any borrowed elements in his designs, has found part of his mystical inspiration in the problems and subjects that have been engrossing the Parisian for the last ten years.

It is another matter in the Scandinavian countries, where individuality in the artist and fidelity to the national spirit in his work are the battle-cry. The banner of freedom of Ibsen's young man has been waved in art as in literature. But the Scandinavian painters long since took the world by storm by their vigor, amounting almost to brutality, their nationality, flung down by the brush as a gauntlet, their love of strong color and bewildering sunlight. But of late they have added little to the message already brought. For all the efforts at a renaissance of the younger men, for all the violence of Willumsen, Christiansen, and the others, it is Kroyer who still towers by his rendering of character, as in the portrait of "Edward and Nina Grieg," by his force and energy and knowledge, as in that admirable portrait group, the "Séance de l'Académie Royale des Sciences," though Skovgaard is amusing and as Danish as well can be in his versions of old legends; and Hammershöff, in the gray interiors that are dull in themselves but delightfully painted; and Nielson, in his comparatively quiet portraits, and, above all, Tûxen, in a sketch for the picture of the Coronation of Nicholas II., brilliant, suggestive, rich in color. In Sweden, where methods are less exaggerated, it is Zorn who towers with his powerful portrait of the King. In Norway, Thaulow, whose landscapes hold their own in an International Exhibition in Paris as in London. Werenskiold also stands out conspicuously; he has a portrait of Ibsen, whom so many other Norwegians have painted, a harmony in gray, and a study in character that lives in one's memory after far more pretentious canvases have been forgotten for ever. And here, as in the American section, there are numerous studies of snow, unmistakably truthful, but, unlike the American, with none of the more important pictorial qualities. The impression you carry away from these rooms is of a people too engrossed with truth to remember that there is such a thing as beauty: one reason, perhaps, why their painters, like their poets and dramatists, have failed to reach the highest distinction of all.

Force, in which a primeval brutality still lingers, also marks the Russian section. It is the more difficult to give names because much of the work is not familiar to me, and much of it was not numbered when I was in Paris, though I have no doubt this has been attended to since. But I remember only too vividly my sensation almost of dismay before the mistaken energy displayed in some of the canvases—especially before one in which four coarse, heavy women, presumably peasants, in flaming red, were on the point, it seemed to me, of flinging themselves straight out of the coarse green landscape which, by all the rules of the game, should have contained them well within itself. But in the portraits by Serov, as yet a trifle barbaric, this brutality is gradually being tamed; among them was a lady in yellow, sitting on a couch, that Sargent would not be ashamed to own. It was interesting also to see an attempt to revive the gorgeous old church decorations in pictures of saints against splendid backgrounds of gold, while in the Finnish group the preoccupation of Gallen with the 'Kalevala' and national legend and Jaernefelt with the national landscape lifts their work to a very different plane; both are far more original than Edelfelt, who is so much better known in Paris. There may be nothing of supreme merit, but there is much that bears promise for the future.

In countries like Belgium and Holland you return to the strongholds of tradition. Whatever primitiveness there may be is wholly a revival. In Holland all the men who have become famous as the Dutch Romanticists have their place; except Matthew Maris, who, in his mysticism, has of late years become too reserved to show anywhere. I have often before remarked that not even in Holland do the Dutchmen appear to such advantage as occasionally in the smaller galleries of London, and I think some previous knowledge of them would be necessary to appreciate their true rank among the exhibitors in Paris. Israels, James and William Maris, Mesdag, Bosboom, Ter Meulen, are all here, and the younger artists, Breitner, Witsen, De Bock, Thérèse Schwartz; but, solid and sober and learned as their work is, it does not make the impression that might have been expected. Belgium does better, though Belgium, nowadays, is a safe harbor for every passing fad and fashion. A national movement, as in Scandinavia and Russia, does not exist. The good work—and the average is unquestionably good—bears the hallmark of Paris. The mysticism, or symbolism, that may have gone to Paris by way of Félicien Rops, who is very poorly represented, has come back to find exponents in Fernand Khnopff and Léon Frédéric. Impressionism has few more devoted disciples than Émile Claus, and so it would be easy to go through the list. Even Evenepoel, with his hard, but sincere and genuine portraits, savors of Paris; and also Struys and Delannois, though they may select essentially Belgian subjects. The greatest modern master Belgium can boast, Alfred Stevens, has few followers, though a fine series of his pictures explains once more how much is to be learned from him, how distinguished a place he holds among the painters whose nationality is the merest accident.

There are other sections—Bulgaria, Servia, Rumania—that have rooms and alcoves apart. A gallery, classed as Section Internationale, is a reminder that Turks and Armenians are hard at work. And, most melancholy spectacle of all, Japan competes directly with the western nations in the Grand Palais des Beaux-Arts. The Japanese trained in European schools is commonplace itself; in his landscapes, his portraits, his studies of the nude, he manages to repeat only the most tedious trivialities and weaknesses of the artists whom he does not understand. It is altogether a pitiful display of feebleness, and the worst of it is, that so vitiated has he become by western methods, he covers the walls of one room, from floor to ceiling, with the kakemonos, which, at home, he respects too much ever to show more than one or two at a time. There are also colonial displays in odd buildings, which, I confess, I made no effort to see, discouraged by one forlorn little picture from Cuba hidden away in the United States rooms. But I saw enough to convince me that, in the last ten years, no new masters have appeared; that, except in the United States, originality is rare; and that, however strong may be national movements in choice of subjects and motives, the technical inspiration of the world still comes from Paris.

N. N.

Correspondence.

PRACTICAL POLITICS.

To THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your comments on the "Reasons for a Third Ticket" will be read with great interest, as you have stated the matter in its most plausible form. Yet you seem to lose sight of the fact that the moment is unique and exceptional. At other Presidential elections we have deemed it highly important to express ourselves upon questions of tariff or finance. We have had faith to believe that if any of these questions were decided wrong, the decision would be reversed. Now we are to pass upon a question which may affect the policy of this nation for a century, perhaps a thousand years; whose decision may influence subtly but profoundly the aspirations of mankind. To be critical, at such a moment, even to hesitate, seems almost trivial. A man does not discuss a question of domestic discipline when his house is on fire.

The independent voter is a believer in practical politics; he seeks by his vote and influence the best attainable, even if it is not ideally the best. For the coming election, if he is an Anti-Imperialist, he adopts the words of Mr. Boutwell: "The party must be overthrown." To that end all other matters must, for the time, be subordinated. It is quite probable, as you suggest, that some political party or some individual may profit by the exigency. That has often happened, and the superficial observer has often misinterpreted it. For example, Mr. McKinley believed that the overwhelming majorities of 1896 showed an unmistakable reaction in favor of a high tariff!

Undoubtedly, as you intimate, it would be very impressive if all who disapprove of both political parties could be counted by themselves, but the vast majority of such voters dislike, even under ordinary circumstances, to appear neutral upon important issues. Furthermore, to vote one of the party tickets does not indicate any danger of an extinction of the spirit of independence. It may even be claimed that a higher degree of independence was required of a man who voted for McKinley in 1896 than of one who voted the third ticket. It emphasizes the rebuke which we administer to an existing policy that we do not insist on an ideal opposition party or an ideal candidate.

In a word, the independent in the fateful battle that is being fought is going to take sides. The issues are so important, especially from the standpoint of the Anti-Imperialist, that he cannot answer to his own conscience by remaining neutral. He grants that there is need of a new party, but he denies that the moment is opportune. Such a movement may have his cordial support after the election, but not before. He sees a paramount issue, not made such by the wording of any political platform, but by the trend of events. A third party never had so little excuse for existence; and if set in motion, it is almost certain that the number of its adherents at the polls will show that the independent has been too much interested in one issue which is transcendent, to give attention to others which can wait.

FRANK W. LEWIS.

BOSTON, July 31, 1900.

[Long experience has made us very familiar with the argument from inopportuneness. In all perplexing Presidential campaigns, subscribers and readers who have gone with us in preaching the doctrine of independence, have reproached us with not taking sides as election day drew near. We were at the same time assured of their "cordial support after the election."—ED. NATION.]

WHAT BRYAN HAS DONE AND MAY DO.

To THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: From the letter enclosed, it appears that Secretary Gage is of opinion that Congress, in its last financial bill, did not provide for the redemption of the silver dollar, as it has done for fractional currency. *Quære:* Is it now in the power of the President, without violating law, to place the country on a silver basis?

My recollection is that Mr. Carlisle, when Secretary of the Treasury, wrote a letter in which he stated that the silver dollar was redeemable in gold at the Treasury. If Mr. Gage is right, it seems to me that the monetary standard of the country is still in a precarious condition; and can be shifted by the will of the President. If enough silver dollars should be put in circulation to pay customs duties and internal revenue taxes, there would be no gold in the Treasury with which to pay the public debt, and we must sink to the silver standard. One of the arguments urged in favor of Bryan is that his election could do no harm to our financial credit, because the gold standard has been established by law, and that he would be powerless until the political complexion of the Senate is changed. But it seems to be still a matter largely of executive discretion, as it was during Mr. Cleveland's Administration, whether we shall stay on the gold basis or drop to a silver basis. In order to get rid of the Philippine trouble, ought we to take the free-silver nostrum? Is not the remedy worse than the disease? The descent to the shades of Avernus is easy—*Sed revocare gradum; . . . Hoc opus, hic labor, est.*

It is certainly a poor recommendation of a candidate to say of him that he can't do any harm, although he wants to do it. I have read in the *Nation* the Socratic dialogue in which Senator Hoar is represented as making no distinction between the virtue of one who is a principal in a crime and one who is passive and looks on, but does nothing to defeat it; and Socrates condemns McKinley for negotiating the Spanish treaty, and excuses Bryan for not exerting his influence to prevent its ratification. But in the immortal dialogue in which he confutes the sophist, Socrates holds men not only responsible for the evils they do, but for those they do not use their power to prevent being done. If he had been guided by the maxim that it is wise to be silent when it is dangerous to speak, he would not have died a martyr to Truth. Plato could not have recorded his speech to the judges who condemned him, and men would not weep over the page of the 'Phædo' that tells of the scene at sunset in the dungeon,

"When, Athens! here thy Wisest looked his last."

But Bryan was active in securing the adoption of the treaty that expanded us. He advised its ratification without amendment. If a crime was committed, Bryan is an accessory before the fact. In his great argument on the trial of Knapp for murder, Mr. Webster demonstrated that one who stood by and kept watch was equally guilty, as an accessory, with the one who struck the blow. So far as their record in Congress is concerned, parties are *in pari delicto* on the Philippine question. Senators who took Bryan's advice and voted to ratify and expand, are still the trusted leaders of the Democratic party.

The treaty was not to become effective until Spain received the twenty-million purchase money. Every Democrat in Congress, I believe, voted for the appropriation. It would have been no breach of public faith to have refused it. Spain would then have kept the islands. A man who voted the money to buy these islands and relieve Spain of the burden of governing them, is now estopped from complaining of Expansion. Then Democrats, equally with Republicans, have supported the Administration by voting money and men to carry on the war in the Philippines. It is at least a hopeful sign that the Philadelphia Convention evaded the issue of permanently holding them by declaring that "we are in favor of the largest measure of self-government for the Philippines consistent with their welfare and our duty." Every man opposed to incorporating Asiatic possessions into our political system can endorse that declaration. Logically, it means our abandonment of the Philippines. JNO. S. MOSBY.

SAN FRANCISCO, July 25, 1900.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT,
WASHINGTON, March 26, 1900.

DEAR SIR: I am in receipt of your letter of the 19th inst., in which you say you enclose a clipping from one of the San Francisco papers. The clipping referred to was not found with your letter.

You say you do not understand why the Government is able to maintain the silver dollar on a parity with gold, unless it is redeemable in gold just as the greenback is.

Perhaps the controlling reason why the Government is able to maintain the silver dollar at a parity with gold is that a wide avenue for its use was provided when the silver dollar was made receivable for public dues. Being good for 100 cents in payment of customs and internal-revenue taxes, just as the gold dollar is, there was established a sort of indirect redemption in gold (or its equivalent, customs dues or taxes) where the number of silver dollars is limited. Collections from customs and internal revenue exceed $500,000,000 a year. The Government having given its pledge that these silver dollars will be received for public dues, it is therefore in the power of the holder to obtain the equivalent of gold, substantially, by paying such silver dollars for taxes.

Respectfully yours,
L. J. GAGE, Secretary.

Mr. John S. Mosby, San Francisco, Cal.

[Neither the new currency law (March 14, 1900), nor any other law, makes the silver dollar redeemable in gold. Our recollection is that Secretary Carlisle, in response to an inquiry, said that he would redeem silver dollars in gold if it became necessary in order to maintain parity between the two. This he would have been justified in doing under the clause of the Sherman Act (July 14, 1890), which declares it to be "the established policy of the United States to maintain the two metals on a parity with each other on the present legal ratio." In other words, a Secretary friendly to the gold standard would find means under existing laws to keep the silver dollars at par, while an unfriendly one might not. It does not follow that the unfriendly one could upset the gold standard by paying out silver dollars in large quantities. Large quantities are not generally within his reach. Nearly all are absorbed in the circulation of the country, and, as Secretary Gage shows, any quantity that the Treasury would be able to pay out under prosperous conditions of trade and industry, could be turned over to the Government at par in payment of duties and taxes. Of course, the conditions of trade and industry are liable to change. It is conceivable that bad times may come, and with them shrinkage in the demand for silver dollars and silver certificates, so that the receipts of the Treasury shall be composed exclusively of them. In such an event the silver standard would establish itself, unless the Secretary should take positive steps to avert it. —ED. NATION.]

INTRINSICATE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: My reply to "C. A. H." is, that I showed, in my short letter, all that I undertook to show, namely, the occurrence of *intrinsicate*, and bearing a signification not warranted by the Italian *intrinsicato*, in a writer earlier than any of the Elizabethan dramatists by whom, so far as is at present known, it was mentioned or adopted. Of Italianisms and other foreignisms which, whether midwifed dead or destined to live, were, in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, candidates for introduction into our language, I have amassed a large collection, perhaps some day to be published.

F. H.

July 24, 1900.

Notes.

Among the fall publications of G. P. Putnam's Sons will be a uniform edition of George Borrow's works, edited and annotated in part by Prof. W. I. Knapp, Borrow's biographer; and a novel, 'Ned Myers; or, A Life Before the Mast,' discarded from the revised edition of Fenimore Cooper's works in 1859.

McClure, Phillips & Co. have in preparation an authorized translation of Leroy-Beaulieu's 'Rénovation de l'Asie,' recently reviewed in these columns, with an introduction by Henry Norman; 'The Archbishop and the Lady,' a story by Mrs. Schuyler Crowninshield; and 'Yankee Enchantments,' by Charles Battell Loomis.

A writer of no little promise, Miss Josephine Preston Peabody, will issue a second volume of verse, 'Fortune and Men's Eyes: New Poems, with a Play,' through Small, Maynard & Co., Boston.

The Proceedings of the remarkable Conference in May last, at Montgomery, Ala., of the Southern Society for the Promotion of the Study of Race Conditions and Problems in the South are to be published on August 15 by the B. F. Johnson Publishing Company, Richmond, Va. The price will be one dollar before publication, and $1.50 afterwards. The publication of these discussions at the South itself is a hopeful sign of the times, along with the very existence of the Society. While much that was reactionary found expression, much also of the talk was what would have been called "incendiary"—*i. e.*, humane—"when we lived under the King [Cotton]."

The persistently anonymous author of 'Elizabeth and her German Garden' pays her American admirers the compliment of a "new edition with additions"—something like a quarter in bulk (Macmillan). The humor, the style, the picture of foreign manners, the impressions of nature (there is a passage on page 118 that one might expect to meet in Turgeneff), will long attract readers to this slight but charming production. The August *Critic* identifies "Elizabeth" with Princess Henry of Plesse (Miss Cornwallis West), and gives a portrait of her.

Mr. Gollancz's little "Temple Classics" (Dent-Macmillan) proceed with 'Tully's Offices Turned out of Latin into English by Roger L'Estrange,' the editor following in the main the first edition of 1680. The translator's preface is no small part of the worth of this little volume. His protest or scruple against the use of literary masterpieces as text-books for parsing and construing has not ceased to be repeated by the wise for more than two centuries. Meanwhile, teachers have failed to profit by his advice to drench their pupils with (in this case) the 'Offices' in English before "the scholar be put to hack and puzzle upon them by snaps in the original." The student's small loss of interest as explorer would be more than offset by the general view and comprehension which the daily task without such preparation seldom gives.

In March last we extended a welcome to the first of the four volumes of the 'Cyclopædia of American Horticulture,' by Prof. L. H. Bailey and his assistant, Wilhelm Miller (Macmillan). The second is now issued, embracing the letters E—M. The large number of pen-drawn illustrations in the text are supplemented by a few striking photographic plates of full size, including a frontispiece group of portraits of prominent American horticulturists. The pen-drawing of the late Asa Gray which accompanies the article upon him is much inferior to the foregoing group. Plate xiv. shows Washington's garden at Mount Vernon as it looks to-day. The rude sketch-maps of States show more or less broadly the chief horticultural areas; in Massachusetts, the Cape Cod cranberry belt lies over against the strawberry region; apples are at the opposite extremity, in Berkshire, and again in Worcester and Middlesex Counties.

'The Memoirs of the Baroness Cécile de Courtot,' translated from the German by Jessie Haynes (Henry Holt & Co.), are not published in the form of an original autobiography, but have been compiled from letters and a diary by Moritz von Kaisenberg, the great-grandson of the lady to whom the letters in question were addressed. The Baroness de Courtot, a lady-in-waiting to the Princess de Lamballe, survived the Terror and lived into the period of the Consulate. Her letters to Frau von Alvensleben, which form the chief material for this volume, were written from Paris between 1800 and 1803. Her sufferings during the days of the Convention are, indeed, told, but in the words of Frau von Alvensleben's diary. The most important part of the record, which is personal rather than political, begins shortly after the *coup d'état* of Brumaire, and deals with Parisian society in the time when the First Consul and Mme. Bonaparte were engaged in conciliating the good will of all groups, cliques, and parties. The Baroness de Courtot received invitations to Malmaison, and saw enough of fashionable life to furnish her with several subjects for character sketches. The most romantic part of the book, however, is the story of her engagement to the Vicomte Hector de Treilissac in the early part of the Revolution, his astounding success in rescuing her from the guillotine, their separation until after the return from Egypt, and final marriage. Altogether these memoirs must be held to rank well in the department of minor biography. The translation seems a good one, but the proofreader has been too careless.

A Norwegian writer, Clara Tschudi, who has already published biographies of Marie Antoinette and the Empress Eugénie, adds a volume 'Napoleon's Mother' (Dutton), to the vast bulk of Napoleonic literature. The English translation is by E. M. Cape. A good contemporary account of Letitia Bonaparte was written by the eminent army surgeon Jean Dominique Larrey but latterly she has found little favor with writers and editors of memoirs. She is usually credited with colossal greed and an unpleasant partiality towards certain members of her family. In the present sketch these hard lines of character are a good deal softened by the emphasis which is placed upon Le[illegible] self-control in prosperity and misfortune. Certainly no wild animal ever looked after its young more carefully than she watched over her children during the struggles of their infancy and early days. The strength of her affection for her younger half-brother, Cardinal Fesch, is also a point in her favor. The most interesting part of her life is that which lies before the establishment of the Consulate. She never trusted in the permanence of Napoleon's political fabric. Miss Tschudi has collected considerable information regarding the period of poverty and hardship, which will appeal to readers of biography no less than to students of history. There are so few women in modern times to whom the title, "Mater Regum," can be applied, that a well-prepared sketch of Letitia Bonaparte will hardly fail to secure its audience.

Every one familiar with the late Edward L. Pierce's Memoir of Charles Sumner, in four large volumes, will understand how natural and proper was the remark he is said to have made when he first heard of the intention to include a biography of Sumner in the American Statesmen Series: "All the facts will be found in my work." There was, in truth, no chance for Mr. Moorfield Storey to display originality in research in his 'Charles Sumner' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), but there was a rare opportunity to rearrange the topics and the colors and to analyze Sumner's impressive character. The opportunity has been improved to a considerable degree, but the main effort seems to have been to condense into a little more than four hundred pages a record of a busy public career covering about a quarter of a century. While Mr. Storey has relied almost entirely upon Pierce's investigations, it is nothing less than amazing that he has not even mentioned either Pierce's name or his generous literary monument to Sumner. The book lacks vivacity and a literary touch, such as are apparent in every chapter of Mr. Morse's biographies, however much he leans upon others for his facts. Mr. Storey gives us a good summary, a well-proportioned brief.

'Muscle, Brain, and Diet: A Plea for Simpler Foods,' by Eustace H. Miles (Macmillan Co.), is a record of the personal experience of a brain and muscle worker, not a physician, who comes to the conclusion that for himself, at least, meat and stimulants are harmful and not healthful. It is conscientiously written and contains suggestions of value. To some persons the suggestions of a private individual carry a kind of conviction which the writings of the trained scientific observer do not inspire; to us, however, it appears that the handling of such a subject is attended with so many difficulties that the very best training is none too good for it, and we cannot admit that the author demonstrates his right to speak with authority.

The "Captivi" is far the best of the comedies of Plautus for undergraduate classes, and the Allyn & Bacon College Latin Series is sensibly strengthened by Prof. Elmer's edition, which has just appeared. Prof. Elmer is very conservative in his treatment of the text and makes a plausible plea for the manuscript readings in many cases where previous editors have thought it necessary to emend. We cannot see, however, that this laudable conservatism made necessary the relegation of his own textual criticism to a special appendix, and the use of this special appendix for the citation of authorities for statements made in the main commentary is unfortunate. A considerable amount of repetition is apparent in the notes, perhaps justifiable in most cases from the pedagogical point of view, but it was hardly necessary to state in three separate places that Plautus frequently seasons his Greek materials with Roman allusions, Terence only rarely. The reference in the Introduction to Hrotswitha of Gandersheim as an "imitator of Terence" perpetuates a tradition which would not last long if some one would try to point out the evidences of imitation. The associates of Hrotswitha read Terence to their moral detriment, as it seemed to her, and she tried, with Christian materials, to write poems which would take the place of the pagan comedies. As one might expect from Prof. Elmer, the use of the subjunctive in Plautus receives minute attention. He naturally insists on his own views, which are well known to Latinists through the *American Journal of Philology* and other publications, but the student is allowed to know, through references to Bennett and others, that these views are not universally accepted by competent philologists. Of the work as a whole one may fairly speak in terms of high commendation.

We have received from Henry Frowde three catalogues of the exhibits of the Oxford University Press at the Paris Exposition, the first being of the Educational. Those of Paper and Binding are noticeable for very attractive photographic illustrations, first, of the University paper-mill at neighboring Wolvercote, which the antiquarian Hearne notes in operation in 1728 by John Beckford, "famous for making paper." Here is made that wonderful Oxford India paper which effects such incredible saving in bulk and weight as is demonstrated by several object-lessons, with the aid of the camera. "Yapp bindings" are the specialty of this press, and are shown in many beautiful examples. No. 172 in the catalogue is the poetical works of Whittier, and the "unique design" represented is as elegant as it is un-Quakerlike.

The twelfth volume of Mr. Charles F. Lummis's *Land of Sunshine* published in Los Angeles, Cal., combines the issues from December, 1899, to May, 1900, inclusive. The contents show a steady evenness of worth and interest, and the illustrations cover a wide range. Among the portraits are to be remarked the fine head of Dr. Edward Robeson Taylor, the competent translator of Hérédia's verse; William Keith, the landscape painter *par excellence* of the Pacific Coast; E. A. Burbank, whose gift of Indian portraiture, as evidenced here, old Catlin would have been the first to recognize, and receives here the praise of so high an authority as Mr. Lummis. Other more familiar faces are those of Edwin Markham, President Wheeler, who writes of his University of California, and the late Elliott Coues, shown also in a group with George Parker Winship and others. Mr. Winship contributes an article on the discovery of the Colorado. Mr. Lummis characterizes in his racy manner Mrs. Charlotte Perkins Stetson and other representatives of Western letters, and in many departments plies his fluent and interesting pen. Pursuing his "fixed policy," which is to make his magazine 'entertaining, if possible, but valuable anyhow,' he concludes his translation of Fray Zarate-Salmeron's *Relación* concerning New Mexico and California, 1538-1626, and publishes entire a version of Fray [illegible]

Velez de Escalante's story of the Pueblo Rebellion of 1680. Joaquin Miller's lines on Oom Paul's birthday, and the capitally illustrated papers on Southern California birds, by no means exhaust the rich store of this volume.

It seems like a myth to read that there are nearly three hundred women quietly studying at the University of Berlin. This is certainly the beginning of the end, and the few colleges of the Eastern seaboard of the United States which still hold out against the pressure of the times will surely not be able to do so long. Clark University, with the large new endowment which will without doubt be secured to it by the liberality of the people of Worcester, will enter upon a brilliant career free from middle-age anachronisms, and Princeton and the Johns Hopkins will then stand in an unenviable isolation which they will surely hasten to bring to an end. No one can make head against the feeling of his age when he is without any well-grounded reason for his idiosyncrasy.

The seventh International Congress of Navigation was held at Brussels in July, 1898, and the report of Elmer L. Corthell, delegate of the United States, has recently been published as a Congressional document. It describes the organization of the Congress, the first at which both inland and maritime navigation was discussed, and gives abstracts of the reports presented. The first of these are on canalized rivers, and treat of questions relating to the raising of existing weirs, the consolidation of weir foundations, the utilization of the fall of water at weirs as a motive force, and the resistance to the movement of boats. Problems concerning modes of mechanical traction, single-lock gates, means of securing the impermeability of the bottom and sides of a canal, and the mechanical raising from reach to reach of the water supplying a canal are discussed in connection with the general subject of inland canals. In a third group of papers on tidal rivers and ship-canals, are described formulæ of the characteristics of a tidal river, modes of estimating the cube of tidal volumes, means of consolidation of ship-canal banks, and dredging. Finally, questions in regard to seaports, warehouses, free ports, and single-lock gates, maritime tolls and the unification of the gauging system of inland boats are considered. One hundred and fifteen folded plates accompany this volume.

—*Harper's*, like *Scribner's*, is a "Fiction Number"—to some an invitation, to others a warning. George Bird Grinnell, in "The Punishment of the Stingy" (illustrated by E. W. Deming), begins a series of Indian legends. Mrs. Humphry Ward, in "Eleanor" (illustrated by Albert E. Sterner), keeps alive the tradition of the English novel. In "English and American Elections" (illustrated by Clifford Carleton) Sydney Brooks goes over ground often covered before, but adds something of his own. He points out that the English Parliamentary candidate stands in an altogether different position from the American Congressional candidate, because he comes frankly before the whole constituency, and asks for their suffrages, while his American congener is put forward and "run" by a party machine, such as barely yet exists in England. The latter, if a Republican, appears only before audiences presumably Republican, if a Democrat before audiences presumably Democratic; the former solicits the votes of friends and enemies, appearing before audiences of a heterogeneous character. Hence the audiences of one are almost invariably sympathetic, and critics and persons who come to interrupt are immediately turned out by the police, while in England an important part of a canvass is the interruption, questioning, and "heckling" of a candidate by members of his audience. But this is connected also, in Mr. Brooks's opinion, with class distinctions. "A certain class feeling is often at the bottom of such heckling and interruptions as occur." This is the one opportunity of the voter to reverse the ordinary relation between himself and the candidate. To the latter, every other day in the year, he doffs his cap. On this occasion, it is he who is the master; his superior is a suppliant for his favor. It is not in human nature not to make the most of the occasion. Besides, this "heckling" illustrates what Englishmen call the national "doggedness," though "others might find a different word." "Americans are said to be an unreverential people, but they dearly worship a majority. In a company of six people you have only to show an American that five are against him to convince him that he is wrong." This is just when an Englishman "becomes finally certain he is the only sane person in the room." The "heckler" gets part of his satisfaction from generally being in the minority. Mr. Brooks instances a candidate, now a member of Lord Salisbury's Government, who was unfortunate enough to mention the year 1792. A member of the audience at once insisted on knowing who was king or queen at that time. The speaker, obviously uncertain as to whether it was George III. or George IV., refused to answer. The inquirer insisted upon his right to be answered, and announced his intention to "stand there" till it was "time to vote." The meeting was for five minutes in an uproar, and in this case the police had to be called in. The remarks of Mr. Brooks, who has lived in the United States for three years, on some of our peculiar electioneering devices are well worth reading.

—In the *Geographical Journal* for July the British Resident of Baram, Sarawak, Mr. Charles Hose, describes a journey into a hitherto unexplored part of his district for the purpose of bringing peace to communities whose normal condition was one of mutual hostility. Graphic are his accounts of the scenery of "the heart of Borneo," the mode of travelling, the customs of a race in its natural state, not yet vulgarized by contact with western civilization, and especially of the ceremonies at the conclusion of peace between two powerful tribes. At the feast which followed this there were "some very good speeches made, their former troubles and differences being explained and discussed in the most open manner. Each chief spoke in turn, and concluded by offering a drink to another, and singing a few lines of eulogy—the whole assembly joining in a very impressive chorus at the end of each line, and ending up with a tremendous roar as the bamboo cup was emptied." The next day the Madangs paid their first tribute, two dollars' worth of rubber per family, which was counted as follows: "Some one mentions the names of the heads of the families in each house, and, as he does so, a man tells each name off on his toes; when five have been counted, another man catches hold of the counted foot, and so on until his feet and hands have all been told off, when another man is used, and this continues until all the names are mentioned, when they halt to see how many men have been used, and where the last one ended. The people whose business it is to hold the feet and hands, cling on to them in the most determined manner until the total number has been checked; and as all concerned take the matter most seriously, it is rather a comical sight when they have to count forty or fifty." The great value of the paper, however, and of the debate which followed its reading before the Society, lies in its testimony to the success of Sir James Brooke's system of government for Sarawak, founded on the principle of aiming "at the development of native countries through native agency." It did not take the various races long to discover "that the main object of the State's solicitude was, not the commercial exploitation of the country or the amassing of colossal revenues, but the preservation and well-being of the people themselves."

—Professor Haddon of the Cambridge Anthropological expedition, who visited Borneo last year, says that Mr. Hose with an assistant, the only white men in Baram, and a police force of twenty or thirty Dayak fortmen, govern a district 10,000 square miles in extent. The only things which are put down are murder and head-hunting and theft. When any of the interior tribes do a little head-hunting, he immediately starts for the place, and "when he reaches the people he simply talks to them. They usually give themselves up or pay their fines—$400 to $500 for a life taken." So great is his influence that "the people who in the past were inclined to give the greatest trouble, are at the present day the stanchest upholders of the Government," and tribes in the neighboring kingdom of Brunei and in Dutch Borneo, seeing how the people of Baram can live in peace and safety, are asking to be put under the administration of Mr. Hose. Another method by which he reaches his people is by having promising young men stay with him in his house for weeks at a time, and in this way they learn what a white man is like. "Thus Mr. Hose's residence is a sort of university, whither the pupils come from all parts of his district to learn a little as to the meaning of government." Dr. B. Sharpe of the British Museum bore testimony to Mr. Hose's efforts to advance science, shown also by the admirable map which accompanies the paper. Not only "he has crowded into our museum enormous series of mammals, birds, insects, shells, and every kind of animal, . . . but there is not a leading museum in the whole world that has not received collections from this indefatigable young man." It may be added that the value of the total trade of the country has increased from four millions to a little over nine millions of dollars since 1888, while the revenue in 1898 was $638,188, with a surplus over expenditures of $94,682.

—The international anti-slavery congress held this week in Paris is the occasion of an article in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for July 1, by M. G. Bonet-Maury, on the part which France has taken in the anti-slavery "crusade" of the past century. He justly claims for her the honor of having been the first to hear and answer the cry of the slave for freedom by the decree of the Convention in 1794 (revoked under Bonaparte) abolishing slavery in the colonies, and giving to all residents, without distinction of color, the rights of citizenship. But he is singularly forgetful of Wilberforce when, referring to a speech of Duke Victor de Broglie in 1822, he asserts that he "was the first who, in a European Parliament, raised his voice in behalf of the slaves." Wilberforce's first speech for the abolition of the slave trade was contemporaneous with the outbreak of the French Revolution. During the monarchy there were many more or less successful efforts made to put an end to the slave trade, to ameliorate the condition of the blacks, and to prepare the way for their emancipation, which was finally decreed by the republican Government of 1848 under the initiative of Victor Schœlcher. From that time the anti-slavery movement in Europe has been promoted chiefly by the various international conferences, both social and political, from that of Paris in 1867, presided over by É. de Laboulaye, and at which Mr. Garrison was the American representative, down to that of Paris in 1890, when Cardinal Lavigerie was the principal speaker. More important, however, than M. Bonet-Mauray's historical review is his frank exposition of the forms in which slavery now exists in the French colonies. It is everywhere to be found as a domestic institution, though the traffic in slaves is nearly extinct. In the French Congo it still lingers in a most revolting and atrocious form, according to allegations made before the Chamber of Deputies by the Abbé Lemire last December, and not yet denied. The system of contract labor prevailing in Réunion and New Caledonia, it is also asserted, is indistinguishable from slavery. M. Bonet-Maury closes with a sketch of the remedial measures now in force, of which the principal is the "village de liberté" established in all parts of western Africa. These are not merely "cities of refuge" for fugitive slaves, but settlements of freed negroes, who are being taught the "dignity of labor and the sanctity of the family," along with general morality and the Christian religion. Interference with domestic slavery is deprecated by this writer, who would have all efforts directed to elevating through education the condition of the slaves so as to fit them for freedom, while a rigid system of government inspection of contract laborers, similar to that adopted by Great Britain, is strongly urged for the islands. Who shall decide when the slaves are fit for freedom is not indicated.

—A rather singular state of affairs in reference to the conditions prevailing at the German universities regarding admission to the examinations for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy is revealed by the *Zeitschrift für Philosophie und Pädagogik*. In all of the twenty-one universities of the Empire, the gymnasium graduates are permitted to take examinations in all the departments of the philosophical faculty, while there is no agreement, not even in the universities of the same country, with reference to the promotion of the graduates of the Realgymnasia or the Oberrealschulen; the Real or *purely scientific non-classical* graduates being *nowhere allowed to become candidates for degrees. Those who have completed the* semi-classical Realgymnasia are admitted to examinations in twelve universities (of these six are in Prussia), in all departments of the philosophical faculty, while eight admit them in modern languages, mathematics, and natural sciences; and one, the University of Erlangen, only in mathematics and natural sciences. The Oberreal-school graduates (in those institutions the scientific studies strongly predominate) are admitted to the philosophical doctorate in all sections only by Greifswald, in five universities only in natural sciences and mathematics; and in ten (among these six are in Prussia) they are not admitted to a degree at all. Two universities have not yet taken final action in the matter. In view of this, the action of the German Realschul Association, representing the interests of the higher non-classical education in Germany, at the recent convention in Berlin is of interest. At this meeting, attended by more than three hundred philologians, a petition, originally drafted by the National German Society of Engineers, and signed by 12,000 names, was adopted, asking that the graduates of all the nine-class secondary schools, *i. e.*, the Gymnasia, the Realgymnasia, and the Oberrealschulen, should alike and without discrimination be admitted to university privileges and degrees, and that in future the lowest three classes in all the schools of this kind should have the same non-Latin courses. This petition has been presented to the Cultus-Minister of Prussia.

—Fortunate is the scholar who can say, as Professor Aulard does in the preface to his 'Histoire Politique de la Révolution Française' (Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.): "I do not think I have omitted a single important source, or made one assertion not directly drawn from the sources." Professor Aulard has long been an indefatigable editor of the documents of the period. His most noteworthy work of this sort—"Le Recueil des Actes du Comité de Salut Public"—is just reaching completion in about a dozen stout octavo volumes. He is also, with the possible exception of M. Sorel, the most authoritative writer on the political phases of the Revolution. This new work, which is appearing in monthly fascicules, may be regarded as a comprehensive statement of the results of his studies for the last twenty years. Its subtitle, "Origines et Développement de la Démocratie et de la République (1789-1804)," indicates more clearly its scope. In the first fascicule Professor Aulard attacks the tradition that there were, in 1789, men who were consciously republicans, although he shows the strong drift towards republican institutions under the guise of a monarchy. He also brings out clearly the scheme of the bourgeoisie, alarmed by the events of the first summer of revolution, to fortify their own power by constructing constitutional defences against the prolétariat as well as against the monarch. Possibly he overemphasizes this aspect of the Constitution because of his prejudice in favor of what he calls "la République démocratique et sociale." Indeed, this predilection leads him to insist that the men of 1789 were inconsistent because from the first article in the Declaration of Rights they did not conclude that it was necessary to abolish the right of inheritance, as an obstacle to equality, handicapping the sons of the poor in their race with the sons of the rich. Such an interpretation of the Declaration is contrary to the principles of that historical science of which Professor Aulard is so distinguished an expounder. But this is a single defect in an otherwise enlightening study of the political beginnings of the Revolution.

MRS. MEYNELL'S RUSKIN.

John Ruskin. By Mrs. Meynell. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1900.

This book is one of a projected series on "Modern English Writers." How far its plan is that laid out for the whole series, or how far it is the method of the particular author, we cannot yet be sure, but it is a disappointing plan. There are many things that the book does not give us, some of which, at least, might have been expected, and all of which would have been welcome. It does not give us even the outline of a biography; it does not give us any systematic exposition of Ruskin's teaching; it does not give us any analysis of his character, either as man or critic; it does not give any broad or general view of anything. Mrs. Meynell's plan is to take up each of Ruskin's books in the order of publication, to summarize its contents, and give a few quotations of striking passages, and to make a running comment thereon. Occasionally there is a bit of criticism, and sometimes it is shrewd enough, but it is, necessarily, piecemeal criticism, and gets to the root of nothing; it amounts only to an infrequent note of disagreement, which saves the book from mere eulogy. It says, "Here, in the writer's opinion, Ruskin was wrong," but it does not show how his nature, his training, his line of thought betrayed him into error—how he was inevitably wrong.

On the whole, Mrs. Meynell is a Ruskinian and inclined to accept Ruskin's wildest opinions with reverence, if not with entire agreement, and this especially in his incursions into science and political economy. His art criticism even she sees to be limited, one-sided, even, at times, contradictory or entirely erroneous. In general, she defends him from the charge of self-contradiction, trying to reconcile his opposite statements, and boldly protesting that she sees no inconsistency; but sometimes she gives it up. She notes his abuse of Constable and his entire oblivion of the Barbizon school, saying:

> "The reader has to resign himself to the banishment from Ruskin's thought of all the great French landscape. Once or twice he names French modern work with horror as something deathly; but what he knows, if anything, of the young Corot, for example, or of Millet, one cannot so much as conjecture."

Here the one word "young" seems to be a sort of excuse, and to intimate that this school was so new that Ruskin could not be expected to have observed it. Yet she is writing of the fifth volume of 'Modern Painters,' published in 1860, when Corot was sixty-four years old! Indeed, Corot was twenty-three years older than Ruskin himself, and the great revolution in French landscape painting, which has so profoundly influenced all modern art, began ten years before the first volume of 'Modern Painters' was written. Mrs. Meynell defends Ruskin from what she calls the "slander" that he "would have his disciples to 'select nothing and to neglect nothing,' " pointing out that this is meant for advice to beginners only, and that "he allows a great imaginative landscape painter to do what he likes." She does not see that this is one of his contradictions which may be explained rather than reconciled. His *teaching* was purely naturalistic, but his admiration for Turner forced him into making exceptions. It is plain enough that his "great imaginative landscape painter" was Turner, and Turner alone; and his real attitude was that Turner could do as he liked, but that if you did so you would be damned.

Mrs. Meynell's nearest approach to profound criticism is in her suggestion that Ruskin was "no musician," and consequently could not conceive "an art that imitates nothing"; but she does not push the thought home. Whether or not it was from lack of ear that Ruskin so blundered, there is no doubt that to him art was always a statement and "true" or "false"; never an arrangement and beautiful or ugly. This was his fundamental error, and the cause of his struggles and contradictions and entanglements. It was this error that made the final volumes of 'Modern Painters,' which were meant to deal with beauty, only more detailed statements of the same natural facts that had been dwelt on in the first volume. It was this error that led him to justify a Lombard ornament as a representation of the crystals of salt. It was this error that led, finally, to the impossible arguments of 'The Two Paths,' which "a fugitive writer" is rebuked for calling "unutterable bosh," and at which we are bidden not to laugh, though they be nonsense, because it was "an intellectual martyrdom" to have written them.

It would be presumptuous to try, in the tail of a book notice, to write the book that neither Mrs. Meynell nor any one else has written; yet we cannot forbear the attempt to note the heads of it. In the first place, he who would explain Ruskin will have to face the necessity of dealing with a delicate matter in his life; we mean what most of the obituary notices have called his "divorce." Mrs. Meynell is more accurate, and says that his marriage was "legally annulled," while the younger Millais, in a note to his biography of his father, states, without mentioning the name of the husband, that his mother's first marriage was annulled (we quote from memory) "for reasons recognized alike by State and Church." In other words, the marriage was pronounced void after several years because it had never been anything but nominal. This fact has to be mentioned because it throws a flood of light on Ruskin's exaggerated horror of sensuality or of anything even distantly approaching it; and this horror accounts for much of his hatred of the Renaissance, for his love of ascetic and monkish art, for his lack of sympathy with the art of ancient Greece, and for much else. Neither in his faults nor his virtues, his strength nor his weakness, was Ruskin distinctively masculine. He could be lavishly generous, but he could not be calmly just; he could be extreme in enthusiasm, as in denunciation, but he could not be reasonable. He was whimsical, petulant, paradoxical. He had a pretty gift of seemingly logical argument to justify opinions adopted at the behest of emotion. He was positive, dogmatic, subtle, with a conviction that what he liked was right, and that what displeased him was morally wrong, and that the salvation of the world depended upon its recognition of the truth of his preaching. *In all these things* he was less man than woman, and less woman than priest.

In the second place, we must remember that Ruskin was a Scotchman by extraction and a graduate of Oxford—that is, that he came of the least artistic and most religious race in Europe, and that his training was almost wholly literary. He had a strong love for nature, and very little real sympathy with art, and his culture was almost as anti-plastic as that of our own Concord school. If there was merit in a work of art, it must seem to him that it was merit of thought, or at least merit of true statement. Turner aroused emotion in him, and he therefore set to work to prove that Turner was true to nature. Claude left him cold, and he therefore saw plainly that Claude was untrue. He formulated a theory of art which could, and did, lead only to Pre-Raphaelitism; and when he found that Turner could by no means be fitted into his theory, he "hedged" and made exceptions.

It was the insularity of the Scotch-Englishman that made Ruskin blind to the existence of any art out of England that was not three hundred years old, and one wonders if it were not because Constable was admired in France that Ruskin could see no merit in his sturdily British style. But of course Constable was even harder to fit into the pre-Raphaelite theory than Turner; he was in some sort a rival of Turner's, and he had not begun by rousing Ruskin's emotions. As Millais said, Ruskin's eye was "only fit to judge of portraits of insects." He saw everything in detail, and a synthetic manner of painting could only offend him. If he had ever said anything of Corot, it would likely have been that he was slovenly and smeared. He had also a love for colors and no eye for color, and gray painting reminded him only of corruption. He varied greatly in his feeling at different times, but what ultimately most pleased him was brightness of colors, with little light and shade, accuracy of drawing, minute finish, and religious emotion or literary thought. The painting of painters pleased him only exceptionally, and when it did he generally gave a wrong reason for it.

In these two elements of Ruskin's nature, his irrational emotionalism and his narrowness of culture, lie the explanation of much besides his opinions on painting. His race and training had made of him the bigoted evangelical who could inveigh against England for having "impiously conceded to the Romanist" a place in Parliament, while his emotionalism made him the lover of the "ages of faith" who wanted, as Charles Reade said, "to make John Bull back again into John Calf." He hated smoke and grime, and always had money enough to enable him to travel in his own carriage like a good old English gentleman; so he cried out against the railway which was first making it possible for poorer men to see the things, whether in nature or art, that he most loved. He wrote many books, yet he probably had his doubts about the utility of the invention of printing.

In words he was an artist, and, like most artists, paid little attention to theories when they interfered with practice. He preached that truth, and truth alone, was the aim of art, but he never spoiled a description by too nice a regard for facts. His style in writing is not unlike that of his hero in painting—effective, but something perfervid and overstrained, lacking in restraint and moderation. No one's patches are more purple than his, and at his worst they are confluent and the whole texture is incarnadined. Yet it is for his style that his books will probably long continue to be read, or rather to be read in, after their influence, never really very great, shall be entirely a thing of the past. The intensity of his feeling often made him clear-sighted, and his writings are full of true as well as of eloquent things, but they must be hunted for and sifted out. As for reconciling them with each other or with the general body of his doctrine, he seldom tried it himself, and it is hardly worth while for any one else to do so. Half Socialist, whole absolutist, artist, poet, preacher, he is everything but a critic or a philosopher.

Brown of Lost River. By Mary E. Stickney. D. Appleton & Co.

Eben Holden. By Irving Bacheller. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Co.

Pine Knot. By William E. Barton. D. Appleton & Co.

The Jay-Hawkers. By Adela E. Orpen. D. Appleton & Co.

'Brown of Lost River' is so *al fresco* a story of a Wyoming ranch that a move to Denver at the last is almost suffocating. There is a thoroughly delightful atmosphere of prairie and hill; of wild-rose thickets and water-courses; of bronco-breaking and cattle-herding; with darkly contrasting mud-holes and happily antidoted rattlesnakes. The social phases of Wyoming, too, whether in dinner-parties or cowboy dances, are touched into the scene with lively colors. There is a cowboy hero who is just too sweet for anything and just strong enough for everything; there is a complicating unseen lover, a heroine with a small, gloved hand and loose strands of hair, which the light wind plays with, touching the girl's cheek like a caress. One seems to have met such an one before, but he will at least find originality in her not knowing what to do when the rattlesnake bites the hero. The heroine who spends herself in doing the useless thing is on the whole refreshing. It must be owned that the love story needs a considerable amount of coddling and coaxing to last through the book. Nor is the characterization marked by exceptional cleverness. Thin rather than dull, however, the book is sprightly and agreeable; the persons are the accessories; the real flavor and zest of the story lies in the pictures of ranch life, and the writer's ability is best displayed in whisking us along with her to scour the plain.

After a Wyoming story it is suggestive to find in the opening scene of 'Eben Holden' that the "West" to which he is emigrating with a small boy carried on his back in a big basket, is the Adirondack wilderness of two generations ago, to which he is fleeing from a ruined home in Vermont. Like 'Brown of Lost River,' the story is another tincture of America; if the one is geography, the other is agriculture. The forest-camp and the farm were nearly allied in the rugged early days of the "North Country" settlers. Even New York, for an episode, with Horace Greeley in high relief, suggests agriculture and serves to maintain a homestead flavor. Uncle Eben is a rural character whose oddities, kindnesses, and shrewdness no village should be without. He loves children, goodness, and horses; he hates meddling, cruelty, and the cheating horse-dealer. "Never knew a mean man t' own a good hoss," he says. The autobiographer, the little boy in the basket, tells the story of his life, which ranges and changes from the farm to the *Tribune* office and to the battlefield of Bull Run. Few latter-day American stories omit a glimpse of either Horace Greeley or Lincoln, and this one introduces both. Indeed, the author declares of Lincoln, "he reminded me in and out of Horace Greeley. . . . They had a like habit of forgetting themselves and of saying neither more nor less than they meant. They both had the strength of an ox and as little vanity." The story is discursive, abounding in maple-sugar and Yankee dialect, in trout, deer, and panther, and all wholesome wood-lore, in rustic poetry and philosophy, in journalistic and military anecdote—a mild, kind book.

In 'Pine Knot,' too, the story serves, but the *raison d'être* of the book may be found in its contribution to the history of the mountain regions of Kentucky during the days of anti-slavery agitation, with their culmination in the civil war. The path whereon the story moves is a comparatively untrodden one. The hero, John Howard Buzbee, a Virginian, is an old visionary and enthusiast, a scholar and philanthropist, alienated from his kindred by his anti-slavery views, full of dreams of the abolition of slavery, but holding strong convictions of the righteousness of compensating the slaveholders. Working with Lundy, he is opposed to Garrison in methods, though still an abolitionist. When the discovery of a supposed silver mine in the Kentucky mountains holds out to him the prospect of vast wealth, his all-absorbing object is to purchase the slaves and save the Union peaceably with honor. To-day, when the public eye is turned upon the Kentucky mountaineer, it is interesting to trace the political pedigree, in the sixties and earlier, of a border town between Kentucky and Tennessee. "Time had been, in a Presidential election of general interest when the Pine Knot mind was a unit, that the presence of the State line added its special glory to an election. Every one in Pine Knot, for instance, had voted for Henry Clay, and, . . . each voter having polled a good and honest vote in his own State, stepped over the line and voted in the other." There were no booths. As lately as in '98 in a neighboring county the voting was done in the old way, the people having torn down the booths "established by the new and cumbersome Australian system." Said a local politician, "When a man gits in thar with his lead pencil, who knows whether he votes the way he says he will?" In 1860 they managed it thus:

> "'How be you-alls in Kaintuck votin'?' asked Sim.
>
> "'Dinged if I know. I sorter had a *idy* of votin' for Douglas.'
>
> "'Did ye? That's too bad. I sorter layed off to vote for Bell 'n' Everett. What's the difference?'
>
> "'Dinged if I know,' replied Dan again. Finally, Sim echoing Dan's avowal that he ain't no rebel nor no black abolitionist, they agree to go over and take somethin' and then split the difference and vote for Lincoln. 'He's a mountain boy and some kin of ourn, I reckon.'"

The private disillusionment of Buzbee and the conversion of the State from neutrality to loyalty are worked out into a story full of interest, if something lacking in compactness. As a piece of local history 'Pine Knot' takes more than creditable place in the fast-swelling library of books about ourselves.

Another, equally of the sixties and equally a document in political history, is the powerful and painful record of 'The Jay-Hawkers,' a name given the Free-Soil raiders who used to swoop out of Kansas into Missouri, and carry off parties of slaves into freedom—raids returned with interest by the Missourian Bushwhackers, burning, plundering, and recapturing—Border Ruffians all. Of the four books under notice this has the most firmly knit story, and is the bloodiest and most hideous in its theme. It carries entire conviction of the writer's familiarity with the horrid scenes she describes, so minute is the tale, the telling so thrilling from its very dispassionateness. Reading such a chronicle, we are properly attuned to our present daily morning news from South and West and Orient.

Paris. By Hilaire Belloc. London: Edward Arnold. 12mo, pp. xii, 476. 7 maps.

From the dissyllabic title of Hilaire Belloc's latest book, but a vague idea of its contents is to be gained. Is it a guide, a mass of statistics, or a book of literary gossip? It is certainly none of these, but, as one who knows its author's training and inclinations might expect, it is a serious historical essay. It deals with the growth and changes of the city from pre-Roman times to the end of the eighteenth century. Its aim is to show the city's varying but united life, to give a picture of that ever-shifting crowd, whose hopes and fears, whose strength and weakness, made Paris what it was from time to time, and the outcome of whose united lives has made it what it is to-day. The author seeks not alone to show the physical activities that have resulted in the thing we know so well, not alone to tell us of the rearing of the Roman palace and amphitheatre, of the mediæval walls, and the cathedral, but to make us realize the great enthusiasms and vagaries of the people—enthusiasms that resulted in Notre Dame and in the University; vagaries that led to the depths of the great Terror. Hence we have a history not of the people, nor of their rulers, nor of their monuments, nor of their intellectual life, but rather of all these things combined, so that one lays it down with a sense of the continuity of the city's life, with a feeling curiously different from that with which one stands on a high place and views a great stretch of country; with a feeling, rather, of having looked upon a little spot down in a valley and watched its growth, its shrinkage, and its regrowth for a space of full two thousand years.

Though it runs to almost five hundred pages, Essay is, perhaps, the best word to describe this volume. Formal history it certainly is not, and the author is the first to disclaim any intention of making it such, for he says at the outset that the things he has put down are such gleanings as a man gets from old prints and chance phrases of memoirs, with an outcome as superficial and as personal as a traveller's drawing or as a man's diary, yet serving to give just the necessary framework upon which the memory and imagination may build. Somewhat too modest an estimate is this, for though the facts may come from scattered sources, they are so arranged and connected as to leave a lasting impression on the mind, especially as to the peculiar character of each of the epochs into which the author divides the long space of time he has to cover. We feel the Roman influence powerful for good, civilizing, organizing, developing the little Gaulish village into a provincial capital, giving it laws, and bringing order and prosperity out of chaos and want. Some clear idea of what this Gallo-Roman Lutetia was, with its towered wall encircling the Island, with its temples, its palaces, and its amphitheatre, we may gain, but we are soon swept on to the time of that mysterious Geneviève about whom we know so little with certainty, but who, from her twentieth to her eightieth year, was such a potent factor in the city's life, and after whose death the people dwelt for five centuries in the shadow of the dark ages. From all those years of confusion we gain another clear impression, namely, of the way Paris crumbled bit by bit, and of the way the light, the artifice, the well-ordered monotony of the Empire were lost, and how there grew up legend, miracle, and the ordeal of fire.

Then a sudden change. The doubt and despair at the coming of the year 1000 disappear. Not Paris alone, but the whole of Europe awakes. Great kingships, consolidating scattered States, appear. The Roman law is revived, universities and a vernacular literature mark the coming of the early Middle Ages, but, most of all, the Gothic architecture stands as the memorial of the splendid energy and enthusiasm that pervaded all society. For Paris it was the time of the walling of the city, of the founding of the Louvre, of the building of Notre Dame. With those later Middle Ages, the two centuries reaching from St. Louis to Charles VIII., come thoughts of war, pestilence, and famine. Paris suffered and changed in a way that was typical of the time. As society grew in luxury and misery, Paris expressed the change by huddling its people together more closely than ever before, and by building that splendid Palace of St. Paul of which scarcely a vestige is now left. It was a time of despair for the common folk, a time when the King's orchard yielded its unfailing crop, and when the Danse Macabre was no mere piece of empty irony.

How profoundly the state of society was influenced by that clear light coming over the Alps from Italy, by the new ideas brought back by the troops of Charles VIII., we all know, but we fail to recognize that the changes wrought upon the city by the Renaissance, including as they did the Louvre, the Hôtel de Ville, and the Tuileries, failed to transform it as a whole. The effect of the new movement was but partial and accidental. The aspect of Paris at the close of the sixteenth century was still mediæval, and it was left to the seventeenth to rebuild the city and to blot out the traces of the Middle Ages, as it was left to the nineteenth to again rebuild the city and to blot out the traces of the seventeenth.

In what has been said we have, perhaps, failed to bring out the fact that a vast amount of detail goes to make up this general impression; that the book not only characterizes vividly the several periods of the city's life, but brings before us all the great men who passed across its stage from Cæsar to Robespierre, all the great movements that caused its transformations, all the great buildings that once were in it or that still remain.

Some Reminiscences of a Long Life. With a few Articles on Moral and Social Subjects of Present Interest. By John Hooker. Hartford: Belknap & Warfield. 1899.

Mr. Hooker's reminiscences make their principal appeal to his personal friends, and especially to his surviving associates of the Connecticut bar, of whose departed elders he writes with generous and affectionate appreciation. Mr. Hooker was born in Farmington, Connecticut, in 1816. He is a direct descendant of Thomas Hooker, the first minister of Hartford, with five intervening generations. But his maternal grandfather, Daggett, who lived till 1830, was born in 1740, and might easily have known old people who knew the first settlers. Hon. William M. Evarts and Senator Hoar are Mr. Hooker's second cousins. His marriage brought him into another interesting circle, his wife being Isabella, the youngest daughter of Dr. Lyman Beecher.

For the general reader no part of Mr. Hooker's book is more interesting than his introduction, which is supplemented, further on, by an account of his early life in Farmington, and the events and habits of those years. We have a beautiful picture of the half-century and longer ministry of Dr. Porter (father of President Noah Porter), who was born and died in Farmington, and was never settled anywhere else. It was his custom to preach one doctrinal sermon every Sunday—one of three, the evening one less formal than the others. Knowing every one from his birth up, no funeral baffled him; given the saddest reprobate, he could revert to his days of innocency. He never could have been guilty of crediting a text from *Romans* to the *Psalms*, as Mr. Hooker causes him to do on page 15. At one time an attempt was made to persuade Mr. Hooker to give up the law and settle as a minister in Farmington. He flatters himself that he might have had as long a ministry as Dr. Porter, but he would certainly have been tried for heresy if he had improved his Calvinism at the rate indicated by his theological confessions in one of the later sections of the book. Writing of everlasting punishment he says, "This dogma I reject with all the force that I can put into the rejection." Concerning the atonement he is not more orthodox, while his Christology is uncertain, and his view of the Scriptures that of the modern critic.

He is a "judicious Hooker" in his choice of stories drawn from his own experience and other sources. That is a good one of the boy's translation of Sallust, where it was written that one of Catiline's conspirators was *sui generis*—"a kind of hog." Lovers of animal stories will delight in that of the ox which by his own wit made his way back from New York State to Farmington, swimming the Hudson on the way and arriving on Thanksgiving Day. All of his companions had been killed in an Indian ambush. When a young man, Mr. Hooker invited a very respectable colored man to sit in his pew one Sunday morning; whereupon one of the church members said he had done more to break up the church than anything else in its whole history. There are several good fugitive-slave stories, one of them about a colored preacher in Hartford of whom, in the course of events, Mr. Hooker became the legal owner for a few days. It was a novel sensation to own a Doctor of Divinity—Mr. Pennington got his degree in Germany, whither he had gone for safety—and, when Mr. Hooker gave him his liberty, he kept the degree, he tells us, for his own glory.

Hooker was Evarts's classmate. Much given to pleasantry, he must have been an agreeable companion to his legal associates and friends. He writes of the former with much good humor. His dial seems to have marked only the sunny hours. One of his few regrets is that he did not get a judgeship in the Supreme Court of Connecticut in 1864, which would have meant a chief justiceship in a few years. But the manner of his losing the office was as creditable as his discharge of it could have been.

Of the papers on various subjects included with the Reminiscences, the most interesting are those on Anarchy, Woman Suffrage, and Spiritualism. There is a valuable appendix—Mr. Julius Gay's "Social Life in Farmington Early in the Century"; and Mr. Hooker's "Early Abolition Movement" adds some particulars of interest in that connection.

Discussions in Economics and Statistics. By Francis A. Walker. 2 volumes. Henry Holt & Co. 1899.

The publication of these papers will add nothing to Gen. Walker's reputation as an economist. He made some contributions to the science of political economy which were certainly suggestive, and, in the estimation of many, of permanent value. Such were his contention that wages are paid out of product, and his application of the principle of rent in determining the recompense of the captains of industry. These views, however, occupy a very subordinate place in the discussions that are here reprinted. Nevertheless, we think that Professor Dewey has done well to collect and arrange this material. It constitutes in a way a chapter in the economic history of the country, to say nothing of its instructiveness as exhibiting the development of the author's views.

Gen. Walker possessed a very alert and active mind, and he was, during all his life, in incessant contact with men and with affairs. He felt strongly, and spoke and wrote vigorously. He seems never to have hesitated to express his opinions with great positiveness; frequently, with great audacity. While these opinions were in many cases so ill-considered as to be of little value, and were indeed occasionally contradictory and even fallacious, they were yet advanced with so much vigor (and it is fair to say, with so much authority) as to give them influence. Yet the danger of trusting to personal authority in matters of science has seldom been more clearly illustrated than in his case. The most remarkable illustration of the unfortunate consequences of such surrender of private judgment took place in the agitation for bimetallism. Gen. Walker's views are too well known to be recapitulated, but it may be forgotten that he practically demoralized financial opinion in Boston, and not improbably influenced the action of leading Congressmen from New England. Events have so completely falsified his predictions as almost to make his untimely death seem merciful. It would have been hard for him to keep silent about the present situation of bimetallism, and harder still to say anything about it that would not amount to an abdication of prophetic functions.

The agitation for bimetallism may be regarded as too controversial a subject to be properly introduced here. We may illustrate our point by other instances. Let us take the case of the labor-unions. Political economists of the straiter sect have always looked on these unions with mingled feelings, because their avowed purpose was to attain advantages for certain classes of laborers by means which might prejudice the interests of other and more helpless classes. It can scarcely be contended that events have not justified this apprehension. But Gen. Walker was positive that the trade-unions would not yield to Socialistic tendencies. Trade-unions, he said, were all over Europe hostile to Socialist agitation. "I think," he observed, "we may count with certainty upon this attitude of the trades unions toward Socialism being maintained." He pointed out at the same time (1887) that Socialism was declining in France, and explained why it must continue to do so. Were any one to make such assertions as these at the present day, he would be regarded as, to say the least, a very ill-informed person. He would be told that he was evidently entirely unacquainted with current events in France, and reminded that the English trade-unions had declared in favor of "nationalizing" land, capital, and the means of exchange, and that they objected to the plan for universal old-age pensions only because it was limited to those who were too old, and because its provisions against fraud were too stringent.

We shall refer, not without melancholy, to one more illustration of the superficiality of view and the rashness of judgment that impaired the work of this vigorous and talented man. In his oration at Brown University, in 1889, he maintained the thesis that "quantity has with us determined quality"; that our marvellous growth in numbers, in territorial extent, and in industrial power, has caused us to develop to a remarkable degree "the spirit of civility, reciprocity, and fair play in the relations of this with other nations, as compared with the earlier days of the republic." During the first half of this century we behaved ill toward nations of high rank, "while our course toward our weaker neighbors was not altogether exempt from the blame of wanton aggression." After referring to our dealings with Spain—"always, in spite of much provocation, a good friend of the United States"—and our abundant "tall talk" about "manifest destiny," he continued:

> "How great the difference to-day! Let one ask himself when and where he last heard any of that vapid, confident talk about 'manifest destiny,' once so common in the press and in the halls of Congress; let one ask himself what, in the America of our time, corresponds to the filibustering, the bluster, the threats against weaker peoples of thirty or forty years ago, and he will obtain a perhaps unexpected view of the mighty change that has passed over our temper as a nation. In the last few years I have read the columns of a hundred newspapers without meeting a paragraph that breathed the old-time spirit; I have travelled many thousands of miles without hearing from the lips of any private citizen a word which testified to a disposition to wrong even the weakest of our neighbors. A bit of buncombe now and then in Con-

[illegible]

South Africa Past and Present. By Violet R. Markham. London: Smith, Elder & Co.; New York: Scribners. 1900.

A History of South Africa. By W. Basil Worsfold. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan Co. 1900.

Books on South Africa are, [illegible] of great interest. The first of the books named above is a handsome well illustrated volume divided into three parts: I. Sketch of South African History (1652-1899); [illegible] Affairs; and Notes from a Travelling Diary. The historical essay is written with evident conscientiousness, but the continual pointing a present moral by a past happening is too constantly in the author's mind to permit of real historical treatment. This is the same old story told with a little more vivacity and a little more conviction than usual; nothing more. The essays on the less controverted native question are more dispassionate, as Miss Markham's own observations here, instead of impeding, assist her. Others have gone into the matter more at length, but her readable chapters on this point are worth while. The Kaffir keeps cropping up again throughout her personal reminiscences and notes of travel, which are the most valuable part of the book after all, being the lively and positive impressions of a good natured and sensible observer. She speaks well of her various hosts, a good thing in a traveller. Some forget to do so, but where she has eaten salt she does not stint praise. She would even have us believe that Mr. Cecil Rhodes is a simple genial person, fond of flowers and of seeing the public enjoying his gardens.

Mr. Worsfold's little book may be slipped into the pocket, yet in its compact contents is the best brief statement of the British side of the present case we have seen. This author does not find that the franchise or the Kaffir question, the academic discussion over "suzerainty," or all three of them caused the war. He demonstrates very plausibly a natural ethnological evolution of two races, with collision at the end as inevitable as when two trains converge from parallel tracks on to a single line. The only difference lies in the hope of ultimate reconciliation and fusion that survives a collision of races. The process is a slow one, but history shows that no feud is eternal, and that no conquered race ever failed to modify or be itself modified [illegible]

Political Growth in the Nineteenth Century. By Edmund Hamilton Sears, A.M. Macmillan. 1900. Pp. vi + 616.

Mr. Sears has produced a useful book, although its usefulness might have been much increased if he had adopted throughout the method of the historical manual, instead of digressing occasionally into that of the literary résumé. Such a work is much needed, for since the translation of Müller's 'Political History of Recent Times' was issued, about 1881, nothing has appeared bringing the chronicle down to date. Seignobos's exhaustive treatise deals with Europe only, and is, moreover, critical rather than narrative in treatment. Mr. Sears falls far short of Müller in compactness, but he practically holds the field alone for the events of the past twenty years.

Some sections of his history are very good: his account, for instance, of United States politics since the civil war, and parts of his French and English history. At other points he is vague. Thus, no reader could get from these pages a vivid idea of parliamentary degeneration in Italy since 1870, of the petering out of the old Liberals, of Depretis and *trasformismo*, of Crispi's purely personal government, of the chaos of political cliques, and of the recent unholy alliance between the Vatican and the Anarchists and Socialists. Yet, to understand contemporary politics in Italy, one must know these determining facts, and one has a right to find them intelligently stated in even an epitome.

A critic does not demand, of course, that an author shall agree with him in opinions; but there are certain facts and personages about whom most historical students are agreed. One is surprised, therefore, that Mr. Sears should continue to paint the atrocious tyranny of J. R. Barrios in Gautemala in the rosy colors which the agents of Barrios himself laid on thick, at the time when he was bent on luring foreign capital into that country. In general, Mr. Sears's account of the Latin peoples seems to be based only on works in English or French—a serious curtailment of his sources of information. Nevertheless, the titles cited in his bibliography of twenty-three pages comprise much excellent material [illegible] and will help all [illegible]

We may point out a few of the errors we have detected, so that by their correction any later edition of the book may be improved. The date of the crowning of William I. at Versailles is given December, 1870, on p. 44, and January 18, 1871, on p. [illegible]. It was Frederick William II., not III., who joined the coalition against France (p. 138). The Holy Roman Empire was abolished in 1806 as stated on p. 128, not in 1804 as stated on p. 140, where also the head of that empire is styled "Emperor of Germany," a title which he never bore. Rudolph of Hapsburg acquired Austria in 1278, not 1273 (p. 138). Mr. W. L. Wilson was a Representative from West Virginia, not from Virginia, when he drew up his famous Tariff Bill (p. 455). The French garrison was not withdrawn from Rome, "partly in compliance with a request of Queen Victoria" (p. [illegible]), but in desperation, when Napoleon III. clutched at anything to save him from the Prussian deluge.

On the whole, there are commendably few errors, and the general impression left by Mr. Sears is that he wishes to tell his story without prejudice. The statistical paragraphs which he has added to many of the chapters help to bring before the reader the present situation in the chief countries. At a time when the world seems about to plunge into war for the sake of trade, such statistics are particularly useful.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Barcus, J. S. Patriot or Pessimist? Uncle Sam's Study of Expansion. Indianapolis: The Bowen-Merrill Co.

Cowley, A. Essays. Cassells. 10c.

Der Musikverein von Milwaukee 1850-1900: Eine Chronik. Milwaukee: Musikverein.

Dessar, L. C. A Royal Enchantress: The Romance of the Last Queen of the Berbers. New York: Continental Publishing Co. $1.50.

Elizabeth and her German Garden. New and enlarged ed. Macmillan. $1.75.

Fairbanks, A. Study of the Greek Pæan. Macmillan Co.

Gloth, Catharine M., and Kellogg, Maria F. Index in Xenophontis Memorabilia. Macmillan Co.

Hannah, I. C. A Brief History of Eastern Asia. London: T. Fisher Unwin.

Knackfuss, H. Dürer. Translated by C. Dodgson. [Monographs on Artists Series.] New York: Lemcke & Buechner.

Loring, A. E. A Hand-Book of the Electro-Magnetic Telegraph. Fourth ed. New York: D. Van Nostrand Co. 50c.

McKee, T. H. The National Conventions and Platforms of all Political Parties 1789-1900; Convention, Popular, and Electoral Vote. Third Edition. Baltimore: The Friedenwald Co. $1.

Orpen, Adela E. The Jay-Hawkers: A Story of Free-Soil and Border-Ruffian Days. Appletons. $1.

Pyle, Dr. W. L. A Manual of Personal Hygiene. Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders & Co. $1.50.

Ruskin, J. Sesame and Lilies. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 15c.

Some Short Stories. New York: Impressionist Publishing Co. 25c.

Taylor, A. N. The Law in its Relations to Physicians. Appletons. $2.

Thomas, Annie. Comrades True. London: Chatto & Windus; New York: F. M. Buckles & Co. $1.25.

Thwaites, R. G. The Jesuit Relations and Allied Documents. Cleveland: The Burrows Bros. Co. Vols. lxvii. and lxviii.

Wilcox, W. D. The Rockies of Canada (Revised and Enlarged Edition of "Camping in the Canadian Rockies"). Putnams.

"A masterly tale."
—Boston Transcript.

GODFREY'S THE HARP OF LIFE

[illegible]

By the same author, POOR HUMAN NATURE. $1.50. The story of some German opera singers.

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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 16, 1900.

The Week.

There was a meeting of Anti-Imperialists at Faneuil Hall on August 8 to give expression to the sentiment prevailing in that quarter for the endorsement of Bryan at the Convention to be held at Indianapolis a week later. The principal speakers at the meeting were ex-Gov. Boutwell and Mr. Gamaliel Bradford. The upshot of it was a notice that the promoters intend to give an active support to Mr. Bryan, whether the Indianapolis Convention endorse his candidacy or not. This is their right, and, while we cannot join with them, we are glad that the spirit of independence in political matters is still alive in the sacred precincts where the voice of Gov. Boutwell was again uplifted for human liberty. It is evident that the endorsement of Bryan by the Convention at Indianapolis would be followed by a division at once. It is more proper to say that it has been preceded by a division, which would become more pronounced in the event that an attempt were made to bring in a verdict for Mr. Bryan, as the settled judgment of the persons, in various parts of the country, who are opposed to the experiment of a republic attempting to govern an empire scattered over distant parts of the globe. That a large number of them will refuse to vote for Mr. Bryan under any circumstances is now well ascertained.

Towne has withdrawn as the Populist candidate for Vice-President. Everybody expected that he would do this, sooner or later, and that the Populist National Committee would then put Stevenson in his place. Towne writes a long letter to explain his course, but the vital part of it is that in which he argues that Stevenson is quite as good a Populist as he is. He is entirely right about this. As he recalls, Stevenson was a Greenbacker in Congress over twenty years ago, and he opposed sound-money principles when he was Vice-President under Cleveland. If he should become President, he could be as thoroughly trusted by the Populists as Bryan. In fact, it would have been hard to pick out for the second place a man, nominally known as a Democrat, who so well represents the principles of Populism as Stevenson. Towne's brief record renders him a weak candidate beside this consistent supporter of unsound financial theories for twenty-five years.

An attempt has been made by the Brooklyn *Eagle* to discover the attitude of German-American voters in this campaign by questioning the editors of representative German-American newspapers. Twenty-four replies were received from editors whose journals are credited with a circulation of 325,000 daily, of whom fourteen think that Bryan will receive the majority of German-American votes, and five that McKinley will be favored by the larger proportion, while the other five are non-committal. As a rule, the smaller papers favor Bryan, the largest and strongest expression on that side coming from an editor in Duluth, Minn., who claims a circulation of only 1,475. The *Staats-Zeitung* of this city says that the majority of American citizens of German birth are equally opposed to Imperialism and to free silver coinage; that, as they are unable to defeat both at the same time, they will probably vote against the issue which they consider the most dangerous at this time; that the so-called German vote is awaiting developments, but that in any case McKinley will not receive so much support as four years ago. Several editors take practically the same view as is expressed by the editor of the Chicago *Abend-Post*, that a German-American newspaper has no better means for ascertaining the opinions of its readers, or of German voters generally, than a paper printed in English, and that German-American voters are divided in their opinions like all other citizens.

Mr. Coler has contributed his share to the much-needed work of directing the minds of the people of New York city and State to their own domestic affairs. There has, perhaps, never been a time when their local interests required their active interest and most diligent attention more than now. The system of boss rule has become so far perfected that it is a serious question whether the citizens who are not in politics for what can be made out of it—or, as Richard Croker has frankly put it, who are not "working for their own pockets all the time"—have any share in the government. It is certain that when they cease to have any share in the government they will cease to have any deciding voice in the control of their own property. The chief function of government is the taxing power. The men who can say how much shall be paid into the public chest, and by what method it shall be expended, are the government for the time being. If the taxpayers once lose control over the taxing power, the recovery of it may be possible only through revolution. The service that Mr. Coler has rendered consists in the practical and concrete way in which he has presented this overmastering issue to the people of the city and State. He has used the Ramapo Company for a text, and a better one could not have been found. But Ramapo is only one of many that might have been employed. Their name is legion and they are growing in number and strength in proportion as they are allowed to control the politics of the State. Gov. Roosevelt put a curb on them. They could not control him, but they managed to get rid of him, and now the question is whether his successor shall be a more manageable man, and whether the taxing power shall reside in one or other of the party machines (possibly in both), or whether the taxpayers themselves shall have the preponderating influence in that behalf.

Mr. Coler's influence reaches beyond the Democratic party. If he is to be nominated for Governor by the Democrats at Saratoga, that fact will compel the Republicans to give us an equally good candidate. Fortunately, the Republican Convention is to be held first. It cannot be known to a certainty beforehand whether Mr. Coler will be nominated or not. Therefore his influence will be exerted upon the other party almost as strongly as though he were nominated. The Platt machine must take into its reckoning the possibility of his nomination, and this possibility will become more and more alarming if Odell, or any tool of the machine, is nominated before the Democrats come together at Saratoga. If Mr. Coler is nominated, the backbone of Ramapo will be broken. This fact ought to have a decisive influence on Brooklyn, where the condition of the water supply depends not upon the amount of water obtainable, but upon the views of Tammany Hall. The politicians who have Greater New York in their grip are trying to compass the ends of the Ramapo concern by multiplying and exaggerating the difficulies of existing water supply, and pointing to this impecunious private company as the sole means of procuring a larger supply. Brooklyn is put to the torture for this purpose, and Brooklyn has it in her power to give the deciding vote for or against Mr. Coler at Saratoga. If she casts in her lot with Tammany and Ramapo, her punishment will come from them, and will be richly deserved. She can, on the other hand, contribute largely to the betterment of State and city politics, as well as of her water system, by giving to Mr. Coler her votes and influence in the Saratoga Convention.

The detailed statement as to the appropriations made by Congress at its last session brings out clearly the extent to which our national expenditures are swollen by outgoes on military and naval account, present and past. The largest single item in this list is that of $145,245,230 for pensions; the army calls for $114,220,095, the Navy Department for $65,140,916, and fortifications for $7,383,628, with $674,306 for the Military Academy. As the grand total is $710,150,862, it will be seen that almost one-half goes to expenses growing out of past and present wars and preparations against wars that may come. In addition to the specific appropriations for such purposes, contracts were authorized which cover two new battle-ships, three armored cruisers, three protected cruisers, and five submarine torpedo-boats, to cost, including armor and armaments, $43,194,094. Comparing the total for the session recently closed with the figures for the last session of the previous Congress, appropriations for the army show an increase of $33,789,891; for the navy, $17,040,947; and for fortifications, $2,473,726.

It is surprising and encouraging to find that the increase in offices and in salaries is not so large as was to have been expected. It is true that new offices were authorized to the number of 5,069, but 2,799 were at the same time abolished, and more than half of the net gain was for additional clerks in post-offices, and assistant postmasters, almost all of whom were undoubtedly needed. The same is true of 97 new places in the Congressional Library, and a pretty good case is made for most of the other 886 offices created, except the twenty-three for Congress, the presumption being that these places are established for political reasons. While 487 salaries were increased, at an annual cost of $135,188, only eight were reduced, to the amount of but $1,658. Nearly two-thirds here goes to 300 supervisors of census, who are appointed for political reasons, and who consequently find it much easier to get $250 extra apiece than more deserving men who have no "pull."

A rise in the stock market in the face of large exports of gold is an unwonted phenomenon, but it is explainable by the fact of dulness in the money market so extreme that an expulsion of a part of our surplus capital is felt as a relief. Further evidence is found in the fact that the entire British loan was oversubscribed in this market, and that the large subscribers were allotted only one-half of their subscriptions, the smaller ones getting about 60 per cent. The truth must be acknowledged that business is not good, and that the boasted prosperity which was to carry the Republicans to an easy victory this year has disappeared. It may reappear in the early autumn—we are inclined to think that it will—but, for the time being, stagnation exists. Manufacturers are running on half time, or closing temporarily, in order to work off surplus products, and perhaps to stave off disputes about wages. Some part of this stagnation is due to the political campaign itself. A Presidential year is always relatively a dull year. Yet this summer is duller than the corresponding period of 1896, although the danger arising from currency madness was greater then than it is now. Probably the inevitable reaction from the tremendous speculations of the early part of 1899 has come somewhat sooner than it was expected, but fortunately it was not ushered in by a money panic. If this be the true explanation, the reaction must work its own cure. Nobody can do anything about it. Things must take their own course.

The outburst of angry criticism, in the conservative London press, against Sir Michael Hicks-Beach's policy in allotting the British Exchequer loan, reminds the reader curiously of the similar attacks on Secretary Carlisle after the American loan of 1895. In both instances, it is plain that national pride was touched by the Government's appeal to foreign capital. In both, the public criticism was sharpened by the fact that the loan was placed beforehand by private arrangement, and was not opened to subscription by the general public. On the Government's side the resemblance is still more marked, in that the policy of placing the loan was in each case governed distinctly, not by simple need of capital, but by the wish to obtain such capital in the form of gold, to restore a depleted reserve. On February 12, 1895, immediately before the issue of the Belmont-Morgan loan, the total cash reserve in the Treasury stood at the sum of $143,000,000, which, though not large for the Government's purposes, was still not alarmingly low. But the gold reserve against legal-tender notes, which should have been kept at $100,000,000, had fallen to $41,340,000. Domestic loans had failed to prevent the constant depletion of the gold fund through note redemption, and the Treasury therefore had recourse to the foreign markets. One-half of the gold paid over, the loan contract stipulated, "shall be obtained in and shipped from Europe." In the week when the British Exchequer closed its recent contract with the New York bankers, the Bank of England's ratio of reserve to liability had fallen nearly to 35 per cent., 40 per cent. being the accepted minimum of security. The Bank of England, as the issuer of Great Britain's currency, is always a cause of legitimate concern to the Government; it needed to replenish its gold reserve; the foreign exchanges were unfavorable, and the placing of another loan in London would not only add nothing to the Bank's reserve, but would pile up another load of liabilities through borrowing by loan subscribers.

So far, the analogy of the loan expedients is rather striking. Sir Michael Hicks-Beach's operation ought to go far to remove from the popular mind the lingering notion that Mr. Carlisle's bond sale of five years ago was a reckless piece of financiering. It is true that the American loan of 1895 went to the bankers below the price commanded on the market by similar outstanding bonds, whereas the British loan went virtually at the market price. But it must be remembered that the Exchequer issue is a gold loan pure and simple, and that the Belmont-Morgan syndicate offered in 1895 full market value for bonds with the same provision, which Congress elected to refuse. Furthermore, we may add that the circumstances warranted Mr. Carlisle's operation far more unquestionably than they have warranted that of Sir Michael Hicks-Beach. Mr. Carlisle, in borrowing gold in 1895, was distinctly fulfilling his official duty, and discharging a legal requirement of his place. Sir Michael Hicks-Beach, as London critics have not been slow to indicate, went somewhat out of his way to help an institution which had not exhausted the means of relieving itself. It was the common opinion in Lombard Street that a further advance in the Bank of England rate, or even less radical expedients, would certainly have drawn gold from New York, and probably from elsewhere. What is, perhaps, most important of all in this comparison, is the fact that in 1895 the convertibility of the United States currency was in imminent peril. At New York, the conversion office for the Government notes was already on the verge of suspending payments. No such crisis had arisen this month in London to force the hand of the Exchequer. The real danger was not suspension of gold payments, but merely such compulsory contraction of Bank of England loans and liabilities as would demoralize financial London.

The Neely case continues to present novel and interesting phases. In its zeal to secure punishment, the Government appears to have instituted three different proceedings, hoping that one would succeed if the others failed. Judge Lacombe took a favorable view of the extradition proceeding, but announced that he would not sign an order until the other proceedings were discontinued. But just as he was about to sign the order, the Government at the same time being ready to discontinue the other suits, Neely's counsel applied to Judge Wallace for a writ of habeas corpus. The application was denied, but an appeal to the Supreme Court of the United States was allowed. The ground of the application was the imprisonment of Neely under the act of June 6, 1900, which was passed for the especial purpose of sending Neely to Cuba for trial; his counsel claiming that the act was unconstitutional. But it seems that Neely was not held under that act. He was arrested in a civil suit for conversion. Probably this was done in order to preclude an application for habeas corpus. Judge Lacombe's idea seems to have been that Neely might be detained in this way until the moment for extradition arrived, when the civil suit, having accomplished its purpose, could be dropped, and the extradition effected.

Neely's counsel, however, did not regard this method of administering justice with favor. He maintained that the Government was trying to hold his client prisoner under one law, in order that another law might be applied without possibility of delay. He contends that if he had waited until the order of extradition was signed, it might not have been possible to find a Federal judge to whom application for a writ of habeas corpus could be made in time to be of use. The Government could probably have hustled Neely off without a moment's delay. Technically, the application was premature. Until the prisoner was restrained of his liberty in the extradition proceedings, there was no ground for the application. But, as a matter of fact, the action for conversion was brought in aid of the extradition proceedings, and Judge Wallace was justified in taking cognizance of it. His action is in accordance with the best traditions of English law. This must be said, however much we may regret the delay which it occasions in bringing Neely to justice.

The Legislature which has just been elected in Alabama was chosen with a "mandate" to provide for the framing of a new Constitution, or the amendment of the old one in such a way as to eliminate the negro vote. There is no State in the Union represented by a worse Bourbon on this question than Senator Morgan of Alabama, who will be reëlected by the new Legislature. He has openly declared himself against allowing the exercise of the suffrage by any man who has a black skin, no matter how well educated he may be, or how much property he may have. But there is an element in the Democratic party which declares for fair play in this matter. This element finds a spokesman in the Birmingham *Age-Herald*, which insists that "the best thought of the State should be given to the devising of a plan that is better adapted to the State than either the Mississippi or Louisiana plan would be," the first of which it condemns for "trickery" and the second for "doubtful constitutionality." Instead of the "understanding" test in Mississippi, or the "grandfather provision" in Louisiana, the Birmingham Democratic editor recommends that the exercise of the suffrage be made dependent upon the paying of all taxes at least one year before an election. Under this system, the *Age-Herald* says, "a negro who acquires property would be entitled to a vote; and as such a negro would be a good citizen, he should be allowed to vote."

The celebration, in certain States, of an "old-home week" is a social event of some significance. Started in New Hampshire a year ago, the movement has this year spread to Maine, where last week was largely given up, in a number of the larger towns and cities, to appropriate festivities. New Hampshire is celebrating again this week, and there is talk of similar observances in Vermont. There would seem to be no reason why the enthusiasm should not extend to other States, particularly the older States of the East, where pride in a long and distinguished past affords a peculiarly favorable basis for appeal. It must be confessed that there is something more than ordinarily attractive in this idea of calling back to a community, for a few days in the summer, former residents, and asking them to make themselves, for the time being, once more "at home." On the other hand, there is always the possibility that the community itself, in spite of its gala dress, may nevertheless suffer somewhat in repute. If it be, as is so often the case in older New England, a community of slow or even backward growth, old-fashioned in the discreditable sense of being behind the times, the impression it is likely to make upon the visitor may be the reverse of flattering. The signs of a lack of public spirit—bad roads, unpainted buildings, unkempt dooryards, poor hotels, unsightly schoolhouses, dangerous and offensive sanitary arrangements—cannot pass altogether unnoticed by those who have had the good fortune of larger contact with the world, nor are they likely to enhance affection or respect. There may be temporary pleasure in a change of scene, a passing emotion at the awakening of memory and association, a spontaneous and healthy interest in what is quaint and odd; but the net impression will nevertheless be one of dulness, inanition, and decay. And yet, this very impression may help to stimulate in the visitors that New England public spirit which has already dotted the land with memorials such as public libraries, parks, hospitals, and other charitable foundations.

The dispatches from China are not yet such as to inspire confidence in the sincerity and good faith of the Chinese Government. That the Chinese are alarmed at the progress and success of the allies, and are ready to talk about peace, is probable enough; but that the conferring of the necessary power upon Li Hung Chang is anything more than a device for gaining time, is still to be proved. Moreover, the reports of continued disturbances in other parts of the country than the neighborhood of Pekin raise grave doubts as to whether the present Government has sufficient control of the situation to make a peace agreement effective. All advices point to the continuance of grave danger for the Ministers, and the necessity of pushing, without delay, the plans for their relief. It is highly probable, however, that the very fact of their imprisonment at Pekin is just now one of the best assurances of peace. If China could only get the Ministers safely out of the country, and rid itself of the burden which their presence imposes, it would have a much freer hand, and might continue indefinitely to set the world at defiance. But the repeated warnings, too explicit to be misunderstood, that the Chinese Government will be held strictly responsible for anything that may befall the foreign representatives, can but have had a sobering effect, and made a peaceful settlement somewhat more probable. As yet, however, none of the Powers seems inclined to purchase peace by any abatement of its previous demands, so that negotiation is likely to be rather a one-sided affair until China turns more of its fair promises into acceptable performance.

As we go to press, the latest news concerning the movements of the foreign troops is distinctly encouraging. The advance of the allied forces has been unexpectedly rapid, and the report that they had several days ago covered half the distance between Tientsin and Pekin can but raise hopes of their ultimate and speedy success. The temporary disappearance of Chinese opposition, while very welcome, must not, of course, be taken to indicate as yet a collapse of Chinese resistance; nor must it be forgotten that every mile traversed adds to the dangers of the allies, and that the most serious obstacles are yet to be overcome. The report that the reply of the United States to the Chinese peace overtures has the approval of the Powers, including Russia, and that the permission given the Russian Minister to withdraw from Pekin was not intended as an order, but rather as a test of Chinese good faith, is also encouraging. In the present juncture, and with reasonable grounds for anticipating success for the international arms, the withdrawal of any Power from the concert would be most inauspicious. Perhaps it is too much to expect that the rival claimants in China will not, under real or alleged apprehension of attack, follow the lead of Great Britain and take measures to protect their respective "spheres" and "concessions"; but there is everything to be gained just now by joint effort and sincere coöperation.

MR. BRYAN'S MANIFESTO.

It is impossible to deny that Mr. Bryan's carefully prepared speech at Indianapolis on Wednesday of last week was a great political and oratorical achievement. Fault may be found with it here and there—we shall point out what we consider the weak parts; but it is fair to say that neither Senator Hoar, nor Carl Schurz, nor ex-Gov. Boutwell, nor all of them together have produced a more masterly indictment of Imperialism. It is far in advance of anything its author himself has ever done before on any topic of public discussion. When we announced our intention not to support Mr. Bryan, although agreeing with him on the issue which forms the text of this speech, we said that we should tell the truth, as we were enabled to see it, about him and every other candidate and person and thing in this campaign. Our opinion of the Indianapolis speech, as a whole, is accordingly stated without reserve. It was so good as to prompt the advice of a single-speech campaign on the part of this candidate. It was skilfully calculated, not only to cause the greatest uneasiness in the McKinley camp, whose chief is quite unequal to any counter oratory, but to diminish support for the third-party movement. It fixes the issue and forces the fighting, and must, with candid judges, greatly raise the estimation of Mr. Bryan's statesmanship as well as intellectual calibre. Above all, it gives distinct pledges of future Executive action which advance the candidate beyond his platform. On the other hand, its elevated tone is opposed to so many speeches and sayings in Mr. Bryan's previous career, and especially in the last Presidential campaign, that it seems as though there might be two Bryans in public life.

Mr. Bryan's theatrical outburst about the crown of thorns and the cross of gold by which he captured the nomination four years ago, was not the index of a sincere mind. It was an *ad-captandum* address to a mob for vote-catching purposes. We find in the opening of his Indianapolis speech an *ad-captandum* appeal more refined and guarded than the one of four years ago, but of the same general scope and tendency. He says that the Republican party is dominated by influences which constantly tend to elevate pecuniary considerations and ignore human rights, as though the Democratic party were measurably free from influences of this kind. If there is any place where money counts for more than it does in Tammany Hall, or where its use is more brazen and flaunting, we have yet to hear of it. If there is any region where human rights are more systematically violated and trampled on than in the Southern States, where the Democratic party finds the bulk of its strength to-day, we should like to have it pointed out. Evidence to show how the Republican party tends to elevate wealth and ignore human rights is pointed out in detail by Mr. Bryan, and with a color of truth, but his suggestions and inferences are essentially false. The motives which prompt Republicans (and many Democrats) to favor the gold standard, and the national-bank notes in preference to Government paper, are quite apart from any thought of aiding rich people to make more money or of robbing the poor, and this Mr. Bryan knows very well. As to Trusts, any one desiring to tell the truth would say that the responsibility for them does not attach to any party; that, however bad they may be, they are an outgrowth of modern conditions of trade, and are without political affiliation except as the Democrats have made rather noisier attacks upon them, and have thus caused them to lean rather toward the Republicans.

The weakest part of Mr. Bryan's speech is that in which he defends his action with regard to the treaty with Spain. He says that he favored the ratification of the treaty in order to "end the war, release the volunteers, remove the excuse for war expenditures, and then give the Filipinos the independence which might be forced from Spain by a new treaty." He goes on to explain how much better it would be for the American people to rise up gloriously and bestow independence on the Filipinos than to put it in the treaty by an amendment and thus extort it from Spain. Now Mr. Bryan had his way in the matter of ratification, yet war did not end, the troops were not released, war expenditures continued and multiplied; and all these things were shown to be inevitable by Mr. Bryan's fellow-Democrats who occupied seats in the Senate at that time.

Mr. Bryan defines his Philippine policy by saying that, if elected, he will convene Congress in extraordinary session as soon as he is inaugurated, and recommend an immediate declaration of the nation's purpose, first, to establish a stable form of government in the Philippine Islands; second, to give the Filipinos independence just as we have promised to give it to the Cubans. Senator Hoar, in an interview published in the New York *Times*, criticises this part of Mr. Bryan's speech with much severity. He says that Mr. Bryan "knows that if there should be a Democratic majority in the House of Representatives equal to his wildest hopes, and if the Republican majority in the Senate should be reduced or wiped out altogether, so that there will be a tie—which is, I suppose, beyond his most sanguine expectations—there are still earnest and pledged Imperialists enough in the Democratic party to prevent any such action." The effect upon Congress, however, of the election of Bryan is not taken into the reckoning by Senator Hoar. It is conceivable not only that it might consolidate the Democratic party and make it obedient to Mr. Bryan, but that it might bring him some Republican support also, including that of Senator Hoar, who could not refuse to support a policy under Bryan to which he is committed under McKinley. Evacuation of the Philippines in some decent, orderly way, to be followed by self-government, is the substance of Bryan's programme. We can conceive of Senator Morgan's opposition to such a policy because he has been opposed to it from the beginning, but we cannot conceive of Senator Hoar's opposition. It is pretty safe to assume that, in the event of Bryan's election, he would have the support of Senators Hoar, Hale, Mason, Wellington, and Spooner in any decent and practicable method of doing in the Philippines what we have promised to do in Cuba.

It is too soon to estimate the probable effect of Mr. Bryan's speech in converting the Democratic party to the Anti-Imperialist views of their leader. We are still without evidence that the party, as a whole, had any definite ideas on this subject before the Kansas City Convention met, or that it has acquired any since; but if it generally reads this speech, it cannot fail to gain some, and, as the campaign progresses, it will be put to the necessity of repeating what Mr. Bryan has said. In this way we may look for an elevation of sentiment in that party which will be beneficial to the country in the future, regardless of the result of the coming election.

THE SITUATION IN THE PHILIPPINES.

The people of this country, we fear, now take but a languid interest in the elevation and assimilation of the Filipinos. Those matters have been put in charge of a large army and of an able Commission, and the public are very willing to leave all responsibility with them. Events in China now engage our attention, and the excitement of a Presidential campaign will soon exclude all other interests. Such a result was to be expected. It is in the nature of things inevitable. Most men have little time to spare for anything but their own business, and the government of our colonies will soon pass into the normal state of such governments. It will fall into the hands of a bureau, and the public will know nothing of what is done, nor care to know, except occasionally when some gross case of oppression or corruption occurs. Under these circumstances we can hardly regard the course of the New York *Herald* in maintaining a special correspondent in the Philippines as good "journalism." A person of such ability can be more effectively employed in China; but the picture of the Philippine situation which he has drawn in his letter of April 19 ought to be read by every one who has contended that Providence or destiny has made our people responsible for the government of those islands. If there is any such thing as responsibility, facts are indispensable to its intelligent assumption, and we shall attempt to present the facts, as stated by the *Herald* correspondent, in a summary way.

In the island of Luzon there are 216 separate garrisons, holding cities and villages in the twenty-seven provinces. A battalion of soldiers can now move from one of these points to another without meeting with any effective resistance, and in some regions without meeting any resistance at all. In this sense the island is pacified, and there are no more "insurgents." The armed natives are now called "ladrones," "robbers," and "bandits." There are no more battles, but nearly every day there are fights in which the Americans lose one or more, and the natives one hundred or more. After one of these fights a report is issued that a band of robbers has been destroyed; but before many days another fight occurs in the same region. The robbers may be scattered, but they do not remain scattered. Nevertheless, everything is quiet, according to the official statement. The mass of the people, it is claimed, desire American rule, but are unable to resist the small but pestilent minority, who tyrannize over them. Even with the aid of our army, the great majority of the people are unable to resist these robber bands, and reluctantly supply them with all the food and money that they need.

Officially viewed, the situation is that of tolerably complete conquest. American troops are in every province; native municipal governments set up in all the garrisoned towns; resistance confined to bands of robbers; the insurgent army and organization dissolved; the enemy's ammunition exhausted, and their guns captured; ports open and coasts guarded by our navy; and Aguinaldo a fugitive, not knowing where to lay his head. But the official view does not cover all the facts. The Filipinos have their commanders in the very districts occupied by our troops, their muster-rolls are kept up, although their soldiers are apparently peaceably working at their homes, and their arms are hidden. Twenty thousand rifles are believed to be still in their possession. Whenever a small force of Americans undertakes an expedition, the woods and hills become alive with enemies. After a short experience Aguinaldo realized that the Filipinos could not resist the Americans in a pitched battle. He directed his forces to disband, some of them to return to their homes and hide their arms, others to maintain a guerrilla warfare. Since the capture of Tarlac there has been no battle, nor any cessation of hostilities.

The *Herald* correspondent has investigated the captures of arms which have been reported, and finds their numbers exaggerated. An official bulletin posted at Manila gave an account of the surrender of 800 armed men; but only 40 rifles were actually taken. The bodies of armed men are too large to be described as mere bands of robbers, and many of them are known to be commanded by men who have been insurgent leaders from the beginning. The theory that these bands terrorize the whole population has no support in facts. The American troops have done the terrorizing. Their conduct in some actions has been so ferocious, and their revenge in many cases so terrible, as to make them dreaded and hated. The natives submit to the Americans because they are afraid of them; they secretly support the "ladrones" because they are their relatives and friends, and because they sympathize with them in their resistance. It is said that in every town occupied by our troops and regulated by native officers installed by us, there is a separate and secret organization conducted by the "insurgent" element. This organization collects taxes from a population which pays them willingly; and the officers whom we have selected to rule give the cause of the Filipinos all the assistance they can. The American officer in charge of one military district in the north of Luzon told the *Herald* correspondent that of the ninety-five presidentes appointed, not one could be trusted; and yet this is not a Tagalog district. In another district the general commanding declared that but three out of fifty-five presidentes appointed by us were trustworthy. In another district twenty-two of these presidentes are now under arrest. Manila and the region surrounding it are held down by 33,000 troops; but elsewhere our sovereignty is limited to the spots occupied by our garrisons. Our rule is detested; and there is no reason why it should not continue to be so.

The sole defence of the slaughter of the Filipinos offered by those Americans who defend our course on moral grounds, is that we are relieving a friendly and peaceful population from the oppression of robber bands. We are killing a few robbers, in order to protect the great masses of orderly natives. What evidence supports this theory? How many Filipinos are killed by these bandits, and how many by our soldiers? By whom has most property been destroyed? Whose taxes are heavier? The proof is overwhelming that we are forcing our rule on a sullen and reluctant people, by methods which will make us hated for generations. We have killed perhaps 30,000 Filipinos. Their children and relatives and friends do not love us for it. They are denounced for failing to appreciate our benevolent intentions; but since they do fail, our justification also fails.

THE ENEMIES OF CIVILIZATION.

The supposed massacre of the representatives of the Christian Powers at Pekin has aroused a spirit which it is impossible to regard without apprehension. There was a natural and legitimate demand for the punishment of the persons guilty of the reported cruelties, whether they were directly or indirectly responsible for them. But there went with this a clamor for vengeance, a cry for blood, that had little relation to justice, as it has come to be understood in civilized jurisprudence, and even less to Christianity. We have listened with a feeling of amused superiority to the story of the traveller who was assured, in response to his demand for the punishment of some members of an Asiatic tribe who had insulted him, that not only the malefactors should be killed, but also their wives and children and grandchildren, and their parents and grandparents. This barbaric travesty of justice, however, is what some people are now demanding. They insist that the injuries suffered by foreigners in China shall be revenged on the Chinese without discrimination. Even those who do not make this outrageous demand, take the position that the Chinese Government must be taught to be humane by an extensive slaughter of its subjects, whether innocent or guilty.

That this is no meaningless outcry is shown with painful clearness by the accounts which now reach us of the conduct of the Russian soldiers at Tientsin. These accounts cannot be dismissed as the inventions of newspaper correspondents. They are furnished by missionaries who have reached this country, and whose names are known. One of them asserts that when the Chinese officers in command of the Taku forts, whe seem to have done only their duty in resisting the attack on them, surrendered and offered their swords, the Russians refused quarter and shot them all down. He declares that, to his knowledge, in one village, the women and children were driven into the river and then shot. The wife of an American, a Commissioner of Customs at Tientsin, says that she escaped slaughter by the Boxers only to witness the most horrible excesses on the part of the Russian troops. These advance agents of civilization tortured and murdered Chinese mothers with babes in their arms, and tossed these helpless infants from bayonet to bayonet. After shooting and murdering, these soldiers pillaged and burned the houses of their victims. The President of the Imperial University of Tientsin, Prof. O. D. Clifford, who was one of the last to leave the city, declares that looting by the allied forces began as soon as they got the upper hand. He saw eight cold-blooded murders committed by the Russians, the victims being old and infirm Chinese. Mr. McIntosh, an American who was engaged in setting up machinery at Tientsin, gives similar accounts of the behavior of the Japanese. They waste no powder, he says, when they capture Chinese, and "lined up six one day, tied them together, and deliberately disembowelled them."

Warfare of this kind has made the names of Attila and Genghis Khan infamous throughout Christendom. Such barbarities, when committed by the Turks on the Armenians, raised cries of horror throughout Europe and America. But the Chinese have none to take their part. What we call civilization is arrayed against them. Innocent or guilty, they are to be swept away in promiscuous slaughter. The soldiers who have been guilty of these cruelties are our allies. Our own troops must march side by side with them, and witness their atrocities without interference. We trust that our own flag will not be disgraced by the active participation of our troops in these bloody outrages, and that even those who have been preaching the doctrine of doing evil that good may come in the Philippines, will shrink from the consequences of their principles when they see to what they lead in China. If we must fight, let us not fight like savages. If we must go to war to defend our imperilled citizens, let us carry it on like civilized men, and not in the spirit and not with the methods of the barbarians whom we are to slay.

The Japanese, it may be said, are heathens, and the Russians only half-civilized. But are they doing anything more than the German Emperor has called on his soldiers to do? Is there any other way to make the name of Germany so felt in China that for a thousand years to come China shall never dare even to look askance at a German? The *Evening Post's* correspondent in Berlin comments mournfully on the *Verrohung des Volkes*. Since the days of Jena and Austerlitz, one journal declares, Germany has not been, morally speaking, at so low a pass, so devoid of genuine Christian spirit. But the press generally comments on the Chinese troubles with brutal cynicism. "Not the question of right or wrong, not the provocations suffered by the Chinese—to a great extent from the Germans—are discussed." What will benefit Germany is the important matter, and the missionary work in China is denounced as detrimental to Germany's material interests, and calculated to embroil the Powers for a cause which has no concrete value. We cannot call the Germans uncivilized, and we must act with them now. But if a warning against entangling alliances were needed by our people, they have only to consider the policy in which they must participate.

We need not fear to be disgraced by *the conduct of the British forces, or by the spirit of the British Government,* we hope and believe. Yet an Englishman who represents the dominant influences, Prof. Edward Dicey, declares himself in favor of advancing British interests everywhere, at the cost of annexation and at the risk of war. The only qualification he admits "is that the country we desire to annex or take under our protection, the claims we choose to assert, and the cause we decide to espouse, should be calculated to confer a tangible advantage upon the British Empire." Are the people of America prepared to ally themselves with Powers governed by this principle? Can the cause of civilization and Christianity be advanced by governments or men actuated by such motives and animated by the passions which they inevitably arouse? No! for it is the end and essence of civilization to repress such passions and to subordinate such motives to more generous ones; and those who glorify war and conquest in the name of civilization are its deadliest enemies.

THE STATE OF INDIA.

The submission of the Indian budget to Parliament was the occasion for a statement of conditions which will be at present of world-wide interest. We may preface the summary which we shall give of the facts disclosed by this statement, and of the debate which it called forth, with the cheering comment that the drought in India appears to be at last ended, so that the destitution will at least not be aggravated. In this connection we may mention the coincidence, to which the Secretary of State for India, Lord George Hamilton, drew attention, between the fall of rain in India and the height of the Nile flood in Egypt. The Meteorological Department has discovered that, for the last twenty years, when the Nile flood has been low, there has been a failure of rain in India. Last year the flood was one of the lowest on record, and the failure of the monsoon was exceptionally bad. This year the Nile flood was normal, which inspired the hope that the monsoon, although delayed, would be satisfactory, as it seems to have proved. Of course, rain does not feed the starving, or create the draught cattle on which Indian agriculture depends; but it inspires hope, and enables those who are responsible for the lives of millions of destitute people and their future welfare to calculate what will be required, and to adjust their preparations with comparative accuracy to the coming exigencies.

Before referring to the facts presented by Lord George Hamilton, we may mention the debate which a proposed amendment to his budget brought out. A private member, apparently from the most humane motives, offered an amendment providing that the British Government should make a grant of £5,000,000 outright to the Government of India. The considerations in favor of such an amendment are too obvious to need mention, and even the *Times* editorially criticised the Ministry for refusing to accept it. It was unwise, the *Times* said, "to put forth the Imperial Government in the character of Mr. Gradgrind." As for one of Mr. Balfour's arguments, we cannot regard it as very weighty. The Government was running behind, he declared, on account of the South African war, spending, perhaps, £80,000,000 or £100,000,000 for that purpose, and it could not undertake the additional burden of contributing to famine relief in India. That is a much more substantial argument against war than against the relief of suffering, and the taxpayers who had unwillingly to help pay for slaughtering human beings might fairly insist that those who favored that policy ought to be willing to be taxed to save human life. The main argument, and on the whole we incline to think a conclusive one, is found in the demoralizing tendency of committing the British Government to the policy of helping that of India to support its charitable enterprises. Such a policy would seriously discourage charitable subscriptions by private individuals, who would justly argue that if they were to be taxed for such purposes, they could not make additional donations to enterprises for which the Government assumed the responsibility. Were the exigency extreme, even this argument might be overcome, but the facts show that the emergency is not overwhelming.

In the first place, in spite of the fact that within two years the expenditures of the Indian Government for famine reach the great figure of $65,000,000, the provisions made for calamities were so liberal that a deficit has not been created until the current year, when it will amount to some $4,000,000. The Indian Government proposes to borrow £3,000,000, which will presumptively carry it through the present trouble. The debt of India, it should be observed, exclusive of that incurred for public works of a remunerative character, is not large. It amounts, all told, to about £212,000,000, against which there are assets estimated at £182,000,000. The net indebtedness of India, therefore, after these disastrous years, is but £30,000,000, and the additional amount would be a slight additional burden. Moreover, the Indian revenue has decreased so little as to make it probable that a favorable budget can be soon presented. The total trade of India is not only greater this year than last, but greater than the average for the last five years. The imports have fallen off, but not so much as the exports have been enlarged. A remarkable fact is the heavy importation of gold, amounting to nearly Rx. 9,500,000 last year, while the Government was obliged to buy silver to the amount of £1,900,000 in order to increase the rupee circulation. As the Indian Government has on hand in London £1,500,000 in gold, together with a reserve of £7,000,000 in India, it is in position to maintain the stability of the currency. Contrary to some assertions, the remission of land-rent has been liberal, amounting to about £3,400,000. In spite of the famine, the ratio of mortality has been low, being very excessive in only one province, where for 100 years famine had been unknown, and where preparation for it had never been thought necessary.

As had been done on other occasions, Lord George Hamilton pointed out that the difficulty of the situation lay not in the lack of food, but in its distribution, and in the destruction of the cattle on which the industry of the people depends. Hence the immense value of private contributions administered by individual benevolence. Not that the officers of the Government have shown themselves lacking in humanity. On the contrary, they appear to have labored with really magnificent devotion; but their numbers are entirely insufficient. In the worst famine ever before known the area covered was 275,000 square miles; this year it is 420,000. In that famine 52,000,000 of people were affected; this year the number is 62,000,000. In the last drought, on January 1, there were 636,000 people on relief works; this year on that date there were 2,750,000. On July 14 in the former year the number in receipt of relief was 3,300,000; this year it was 6,100,000. Advances to native governments have been £2,436,000, and to individuals £1,100,000. No demand has been refused, Lord George Hamilton says; wherever it has seemed possible to save human life there has been no hesitation because of the expense. We cannot refrain from expressing admiration of the manner in which the overwhelming demands on the Indian Government have been met by its officers; and we find in their splendid, and we may fairly say successful, efforts an additional reason why the benevolent people of this country should continue to render aid which is so reasonably asked, so appreciatively received, and so effectively applied. *Bis dat qui cito dat.*

INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS OF COMPARATIVE HISTORY.

PARIS, July 30, 1900.

The very worst place for a learned convention is a great city. The worst possible time for it is the middle of summer, and the worst imaginable condition for its success is the presence at the same time of a vast counter-attraction, which throws all the ordinary life of the place out of gear. All these circumstances were combined against the second International Congress of Comparative History, which met at Paris during the week July 23 to 26. Add to all these that, for ten days before, Paris had been suffering from the most intense heat ever known there, and that this heat continued without intermission, day or night, during the week of the Congress, and one gains a sufficiently depressing idea of the chances of usefulness for such a gathering.

The plan of an international congress of historians seems to have originated with M. de Maulde de la Clavière, a gentleman of leisure, who secured the coöperation of a few of the best-known persons in the various departments covered by the scheme. The President was M. Gaston Boissier, Perpetual Secretary of the French Academy, the venerable writer upon the period of late Roman and early Christian history. At the head of the several sections into which the Congress was divided were such men as Henri Houssaye (general history and diplomacy); Glasson (institutions and law); Levasseur (social economics); Leroy-Beaulieu (religious affairs); Gaston Paris (literary history); and Saint-Saëns (history of music). This enumeration of the sections, to which should be added two others, on the history of science and of the arts of design, shows the vast scope of the material to be considered. The use of the phrase "Comparative History" still further indicates the purpose of the originators to include in this one comprehensive survey the whole activity of the human mind and the whole field of organized human society.

The preliminary announcements carried out even more fully this vastness of conception. In some sections an attempt was made to indicate specific lines of investigation, but even in these cases willingness was expressed to receive papers upon any related subject. As regards the range of material admissible to the proceedings of the Congress, therefore, everything pointed to the largest possible participation. The conditions of membership were arranged for on a similar scale of liberality. A local committee from each country was given the function of proposing members at twenty francs each to the central committee at Paris, and invitations were sent to the Government and leading educational institutions of the several countries to send delegates. The Chairman of the American Committee was Mr. James Gustavus Whiteley of Baltimore. The other members were Charles F. Adams, Edward Eggleston, Chief Justice Fuller, Cardinal Gibbons, W. Wirt Henry, George F. Hoar, C. E. Norton, Albert Shaw, George P. Wetmore, and Woodrow Wilson.

The result of this system of inviting membership in the Congress was that about eight hundred persons paid their subscriptions, thus providing the tidy sum of about 15,000 francs for publishing the proceedings. Each member was required to register in one section, but could receive the proceedings of any other section on payment of an additional ten francs. Of these 800 "members," not more than 200 were present at Paris. Hardly a person prominent in the "new school" of history in France, of which M. G. Monod would have been, perhaps, the best representative, was either seen or heard at the Congress. A partial explanation may be that some of these gentlemen were occupied with the incessant examinations which make the month of July a burden to the Academic world of Paris; but this can hardly account for the almost entire absence of the men who would have been the chief attraction to the Academic visitor. As to nationalities, so far as one could gather from the fragmentary and untrustworthy programmes, hardly a single German or Englishman or American was present, although a considerable number from these countries had paid their subscriptions. On the other hand, so large a representation came from the eastern parts of Europe that a good half of the papers read in the section of general history and diplomacy were by Hungarians or Rumanians, and these chiefly upon topics relating to those countries. The utter lack of "editing" in the programme may be shown by the fact that between these Danubian studies were interspersed articles on the private life of the Friso-Batavians by a French consul at Rotterdam, on the coronation of Henry of Luxembourg by an Italian Minister at Lisbon, and on the use of French in documents relating to foreign affairs by a delegate of the Swedish Government. Several papers were read in the absence of their authors by a Secretary of the Congress, who galloped through them with the single purpose of saving time. Indeed, all the readers seemed impressed with the vital importance of getting through as soon as possible without the least regard to whether they were understood or not.

Experience has shown what ordinary sense might have divined beforehand, that so far as "papers" at a learned convention are concerned, the only hope of success is in the most careful editing of the programme. Each session must have some distinct character, and this character must be given it chiefly by the lead of some recognized authority. There must be more papers offered than can be read, or specialists must be sought who will take the trouble to read for the sake of the common good. It is this difficulty in preparing programmes that has led many thoughtful scholars to vote the whole idea of conventions a hopeless nuisance. The impression made at Paris was that everything offered had been taken. No single session had any definite character, and one had to skip about from section to section to get any result whatever. Of the work of the Congress as a whole, no programme, even for a single day, was attempted. Only one or two sections tried to print their programmes, and these were frequently changed at the last moment. The others posted meagre written orders of the day. The section for religious affairs sat on two days only.

A judgment as to the value of the papers contributed will be possible only after they shall have been printed. From the few specimens your correspondent was able to hear, it may safely be predicted that they will not mark an epoch in the development of historical science. But it long since became a maxim among scholars that the "papers" are in any case the least important element of learned conventions. The real value of such occasions lies in the opportunity of meeting one's colleagues and comparing notes in the intimate association of the smoking-room or the piazza. On this, the social side, the managers of the Paris Congress did what they knew how to do. They arranged for two evening receptions during the Congress, one by M. E. Senart of the Institute, and one by Prince Roland Bonaparte, and invitations were given for a third, some days after adjournment, by the President of the Chamber of Deputies. The Congress was invited to a "lunch" at the Hôtel de Ville by the Municipal Council of Paris. One day was wholly given up to an excursion to the Château of Chantilly. All of these were, however, purely official occasions. No attempt was made to make the members of the Congress acquainted with each other, or to go beyond the strictest limits of French official courtesy. There was no social centre, such as we should expect to find in some hotel or club—in a word, the personal element was entirely disregarded.

The sentiment which prompted this undertaking, and the energy of the gentlemen who had it in hand, deserve hearty appreciation. It may, however, fairly be questioned whether an international enterprise from which the scholars of all leading countries, including the one which plays the host, prefer to buy themselves off at twenty francs, is really worth continuing. The question of the Rumanians in Hungary will get a handsome advertisement, but further direct results are not at present in sight. E. E.

RECENT RESEARCH IN HOMERIC TOPOGRAPHY.

FREIBURG IM BREISGAU, July 29, 1900.

It was not granted to Schliemann to witness the completion of the excavations at Hissarlik. With the exception of a corner on the south side of the mound which he held to be a part of the construction erected in the fourth century by Lysimachus, the discoverer of Troy failed to lay bare the massive escarped walls of the Homeric city, which now move the admiration of the visitor. Had the trench which Schliemann dug at the outset directly through the mound only cut deeper, the discovery of the outer line of walls would not have been reserved for Professor Dörpfeld, who, with the assistance furnished in 1893 by Mrs. Schliemann, and in the following year by the German Emperor, was enabled to put the finishing touch to the investigation of the hill at Hissarlik. During the last excavations superintended by Schliemann in person (in 1890), the discovery of Mycenæan vases, and of a part of a building of the Mycenæan period, now known to belong to the Homeric city, awakened doubts in the mind of the veteran explorer as to the correctness of his identification of the "second" ruined city with the citadel of Priam, a city that we now know to be at least a thousand years older than the Trojan war. The final report dealing with the latest excavations will appear next winter in a work entitled 'Troja und Ilios,' and will contain, apart from Dörpfeld's own contributions to the position of the nine or ten buried cities, the archæological researches of his co-workers, Winnefeld, Schmidt, Brückner, Götze, and Wilberg, with regard to the earlier as well as the later finds.

As I sit in the barrack occupied during so many campaigns by the great explorer of Hissarlik, I am reminded of another field of Homeric exploration begun by Schliemann and taken up afresh by his successor at Troy. The last act in the search for the acropolis of Priam is concluded. The great hillocks left by Schliemann and Dörpfeld at Hissarlik will probably not be disturbed for many years. Meanwhile the centre of archæological interest has shifted from the Iliad to the Odyssey, and the topography of the later epic is being examined anew in the light of a novel theory recently put forward by the Director of the German Institute at Athens. It was the good fortune of the writer to be present at some of the recent explorations, the aim of which was the *location of the palace of Ulysses.*

When one turns from the Iliad, with its sharply outlined description of the Trojan plain and of Ilion itself, to the indistinct setting of the scene of the Odyssey, we seem transplanted from places actually traversed by the poet to a region whose reality is only less hazy than the fairy isle of the Phæacians. Is not the Odyssey the mere fabric of the poet's vision, and Ithaca the faintly defined scene of the story of Penelope's constancy, of the insolence of her suitors, and of the return of her long-absent lord? This is the belief of many scholars at the present day, and so Hercher argued nearly forty years ago. Only "antiquarian hallucination," exclaimed the German skeptic, "can equate the Homeric topography with the actual topography of the island of Ithaca." But Hercher's skepticism denied even the reality of Troy, and his actual researches in Ithaca were confined chiefly to the isthmus near the bay of Vathy and to Mount Aëtos, where early in the century Gell had placed the scene of the Odyssey. On this peak, which crowns the narrow isthmus separating the northern from the southern part of the island, a long line of explorers from Gell to Schliemann sought for the palace of Ulysses. But, apart from various topographical reasons, the height of Aëtos (380 metres) is ill-adapted for the abode of a Homeric prince; and all the pottery found there is Greek, not Mycenæan.

As early as 1805, Leake proposed to locate the home of Ulysses much further to the north—at the end of the bay of Polis, and nearly opposite the tiny island Daskalio. This, the current view, has received the support of such distinguished scholars as Bursian, Lolling, and Partsch, who is the author of the latest monograph on the subject (in the ninety-fifth supplementary part of *Petermann's Mitteilungen*, 1889).

Into the details of the controversy it is not my purpose to enter. No one will now venture to dispute the conclusion of Professor Dörpfeld, who, in pronouncing against the Mycenæan character of the remains on Mount Aëtos, has effectually disposed of one of the two sites in question. Nor, according to the same unrivalled student of Mycenæan building, does the case stand better with the other theory. Thanks to the liberality of a Dutch gentleman, Mr. Goekoop, excavations were conducted this spring near the Bay of Polis. The archæological evidence here, too, speaks with no uncertain voice. No one of the hills likely to be made the seat of a Mycenæan palace contains any trace of walls or of pottery of the archaic period. Where, then, if they existed in reality, are the halls of Ulysses, nay, where is Homer's Ἰθάκη? Is the Ithaca of to-day not the Ἰθάκη of the poet?

To this question Prof. Dörpfeld returns the answer: Homer's Ἰθάκη is Leucadia, and the palace of Ulysses, if remains exist, must be sought in no other of the Ionian islands. Through his courtesy I am enabled to present a brief statement of the arguments that have led Prof. Dörpfeld to this conclusion—a conclusion that cannot fail to awaken at least the hostility of surprise. In enumerating the various contentions of Prof. Dörpfeld, I refrain intentionally from all criticism.

(1.) In the attempt to locate the Homeric Ἰθάκη it is an error to leave Leucadia out of consideration on the ground that Strabo (10.2.8) declares it to have become an island at the time of its occupation by the Corinthians (about 600 B. C.); and, granting that the Corinthians did cut through the isthmus between Leucadia and Acarnania, such a transformation of nature would no more make Leucadia into an "island" than the cutting of the isthmus of Corinth has made an "island" of the Peloponnese. But, apart from this, geological evidence shows that Leucadia always was an island, and that the present passage (500 to 1,000 metres wide), which is now rapidly closing up, despite the channel made during the English occupation—a channel which, we may add, the Greeks have long promised to renew—existed from an immemorial period. From the time of Homer to the sixth century B. C., there existed no definite knowledge with reference to the position of the various islands enumerated by Homer as forming the kingdom of Ulysses. Errors thus naturally arose, and Leucadia received its present name from the Λευκὰς πέτρη mentioned by Homer (ω 11) and famed in antiquity as the scene of Sappho's death-leap, while the present Ithaca received the name of the Homeric Ἰθάκη in consequence of the belief that Leucadia had not been an island in the Homeric period. According to Dörpfeld's view, Same or Samos was the Homeric name of the Ithaca of to-day, and Doulichion is Cephalonia, a name not mentioned in the epic. Zacynthus is of course Zante. In confirmation of this localization of the four chief islands ruled by Ulysses is the observation made by travellers in Elis, who, on looking out upon the Ionian island, see them naturally in the following order: Leucadia, Cephalonia, Ithaca, and Zante; and in the "Hymn to Apollo," l. 428, from the same point of view, the poet mentions first the "lofty mountain" of Ἰθάκη, then Doulichion, next Same, and finally "woody Zacynthus."

(2.) Homer describes Ἰθάκη as χθαμαλὴ πανυπερτάτη πρὸς ζόφον, while the other islands are ἄνευθε πρὸς Ἠῶ τ' Ἠέλιόν τε. It is significant that Strabo interpreted this to mean that the island of Ulysses lay "near the mainland" and "farthest to the north." The word ζόφος, which has caused no end of difficulty, refers not to the west but to the north and west or the northwest. It is a striking circumstance, as Partsch has shown, that there exists among the inhabitants of the Ionian Islands a confusion with regard to the points of the compass. Peasants in Ithaca have been heard to misname north and south and north and west; the north side of the lagoon of S. Mauro is called *banda di ponente* in the report of a Venetian admiral cruising in Ionian waters in the fifteenth century; Bondelmonte says that the journey from Corfu to Leucadia by way of Paxos proceeds in an easterly direction; and in Corfu a deme in the north is called Epizephyrii, and one in the south bears the name Apiliotæ. However we may account for it, the fact of this strange orientation remains; and it may reach back to a very early period. The passage to the west, to Sicily, was often in historical times not direct but to the north by way of Leucadia. In Homer, Hermes leads the souls of the dead to Hades by way of Oceanus and the λευκὰς πέτρη.

(3.) One part of the flocks of Ulysses grazes on Ἰθάκη, another feeds upon the ἀκτῇ ἠπείροιο ("promontory of the mainland"). It is natural to assume that they were separated only by a narrow passage such as intervenes between Leucadia and

Acarnania. The distance from Ithaca to the mainland is three hours by steamer.

(4) In α 171 Telemachus asks Athene, who has appeared to him in the guise of Mentor: "How did the sailors bring thee, for I do not think that thou camest on foot"—surely a senseless question on the part of the "prudent" son of Ulysses unless there actually existed a possibility of coming on foot, viz., along the mainland and then by ferry across the narrow strait, which Dörpfeld takes to be the Ῥεῖθρον.

(5.) The Ῥεῖθρον was situated at the foot of "woody Neïon," which is generally taken to be a part of Neriton, the chief mountain of Ἰθάκη. Now Pliny expressly says that Neritos was a mountain in Leucadia, which was thence called Neritis.

(6.) Between Ἰθάκη and Samos, Homer places the tiny island Asteris, where the suitors lay in wait for Telemachus with the purpose of slaying him upon his return. This island, he says, is distinguished by having a double harbor (ἀμφίδυμοι λιμένες). The ancients doubted the existence of Asteris, and Schliemann thought it had completely disappeared. Gell found it in Daskalio, an islet in the sound between Cephalonia and Ithaca. This is out of the question, since Daskalio has no such harbor. According to Dörpfeld, everything becomes clear if Leucadia and Ἰθάκη are one; and I can attest from personal observation that Arkoudi, a small island between Leucadia and Ithaca (μέσσῃ ἁλί, δ 844;, does possess a remarkable double harbor on the east side, shaped something like an inverted T. Here vessels can lie sheltered now from the north, now from the south wind.

The visit that I made to Leucadia in company with Professor Dörpfeld was chiefly confined to the search for ruins of a Mycenæan palace in the neighborhood of the deep bay on the east side, latitude 38 degrees 42 seconds. On the western side of this beautiful sheet of water were found two sets of ruins. The first, more directly opposite the mouth and distant about a mile from it, is certainly Hellenic, but further to the south, on an eminence rising perhaps half a mile from the bay, are the remains of a stronghold that may be of the Mycenæan age. The pottery on the surface was, however, of the Greek type. Here Prof. Dörpfeld proposes to excavate at the expense of Mr. Goekoop, and here he thinks to find the home of Ulysses. And even if this quest should prove fruitless, his belief in the correctness of his theory is so strong that he will search for promising localities still further to the south near Katocharion.

On the southeast side of Leucadia is a small bay bearing the suggestive name Συβῶτα, which Prof. Dörpfeld thinks may possibly have a chance connection with the swineherd Eumæus, who was the first to greet his master after he had been carried to his native island by the Phæacians. An examination of the inlet in question does not disclose any close resemblance to the harbor of Phorkys with its enclosing rocky headlands; nor would the nymphs have had a comfortable time of it in the neighboring cave, into which I scrambled with no little difficulty. But Professor Dörpfeld does not, of course, rest his theory on the identity of the Συβῶτα and Phorkys harbors; the peasants tell of a larger cave further along on the south shore, which is indented with numerous bays. Here future examination will be made, and here even the cave of the Naiads, which the mere student of poetry would be content to leave as the creation of the poet's fancy, may appear to gladden the heart of the Homeric topographer.

HERBERT WEIR SMYTH.

BOUTROUX'S PASCAL.—I.

PARIS, July 26, 1900.

It is a difficult task to write an essay on Pascal. It has been undertaken by M. Émile Boutroux, a member of the French Institute, for Hachette's valuable collection of "Les Grands Écrivains Français." Among our great writers, Pascal holds a high and almost intangible place. He is not only a model of style, one of the creators of that fine language of the seventeenth century which marks the highest point in the development of French literature; he is as great in the world of thought as in the world of style—his name goes with those of Descartes, Malebranche, Nicole. He is a philosopher, and his attempt to reconcile human reason with religion will lend a perpetual interest to his famous 'Pensées.'

Blaise Pascal was born at Clermont-Ferrand on the 19th of June, 1623. He belonged to an old family of Auvergne. His father was royal *conseiller en élection* for Bas-Auvergne in Clermont, and afterwards second president in the *cour des aides*. Of four children which he had, three survived, Gilberte, who became Madame Périer; Blaise, and Jacqueline. Pascal's father was a good mathematician, and directed in all its details the education of his son Blaise. He taught him Greek and Latin only after he had reached the age of twelve; the study of mathematics was to begin only at fifteen. To his great surprise, he found his son, at the age of twelve, making geometrical figures, and occupied with the demonstration of the 32d proposition in the first book of Euclid. Young Pascal rediscovered the demonstration; his father made him a present of the 'Elements of Euclid,' which he read in his hours of recreation. The intelligent boy was surrounded with intelligent men, among whom was Father Mersenne, who delivered weekly lectures which were the origin of the Academy of Sciences.

An event which powerfully impressed the young mind of Pascal was the publication of Descartes's 'Philosophical Essays.' The introduction to it is the famous "Discours de la Méthode," which may be compared, for its importance, to Bacon's 'Novum Organum.' The Cartesian method, founded on the direct observation of facts, psychological as well as material, became the method of the seventeenth century. Descartes did not admit any external authority; he confronted man directly with his own reason and his own conscience. To this may be added that the "Discours de la Méthode" is a monument of the French language; it has a solidity, an elevation, and a clearness which have never been surpassed.

Pascal was not sixteen years old when he conceived the idea of an "Essay on Conic Sections." He wrote it in 1639 and 1640, but did not publish it, because he was indifferent to reputation. but Mersenne sent an extract of it to Descartes. At the age of eighteen he invented a mathematical machine which may be considered the mother of all the modern machines of the same kind.

Pascal and his father Étienne were almost free thinkers; they experienced religion after an accident which happened to the father in January, 1646, when he fell on the ice. He was taken care of by two pious gentlemen, who made the father and the son acquainted with the works of Jansen, Arnauld, and Saint-Cyran. The spirit of Port-Royal entered into them through these works, which were to them a sort of revelation. Port-Royal taught them that original sin had corrupted man and had made him a slave of his depravity. If man wished to be converted, he had to choose between God and the world, he had to add a supernatural life to his natural life, he had even to renounce a vain love of science, since science spoke only to man's intelligence, and had nothing to say about the inner truth. The teachings of Jansen and his disciples were much in accordance with Pascal's character. He was one of those whom the idea of duty seduces, and who cannot give themselves to it by halves. Jacqueline, sister of Blaise, was converted to the same ideas. She was only twenty years old, and was fond of the world; she abandoned it, and gave herself entirely up to God.

Pascal's health had never been good; he overworked himself; he suffered from many discomforts, and the lower part of his body was almost paralyzed. We have only one good portrait of him; it was taken from life by Domat—a mere drawing in red pencil, on the cover of a book. It gives the idea of extreme delicacy; the eyes are unnaturally large, the forehead is immense, the nose aquiline, and, though the mouth is almost sensual, the expression of the face in general is very pure and idealistic. It was during the period of his conversion and of his religious ardor that he composed the "Prayer to God for a good use of sickness." It is very curious and characteristic; it describes sickness as the means of conversion and sanctification. In 1647 Pascal went to Paris to consult doctors, and became acquainted with M. Singlin, who was the confessor of the *solitaires* and the religious women of Port-Royal. Jacqueline accompanied her brother, and made several visits to the house of Port-Royal; she was very well received by Mother Angélique Arnauld, the abbess; she did not, however, enter the convent, as her father was opposed to it.

Pascal never interrupted his physical researches. In 1641, he was preoccupied with the question of the vacuum, though he had not heard of Torricelli's experiments on the subject. Galileo had demonstrated that air was heavy. Torricelli had seen in that fact the explanation of the rise of the mercury in the vacuum of the barometer. Pascal endeavored to show experimentally that the mercury rose and fell according to the depth of the atmosphere above it, and he gave directions to his brother-in-law, who made the experiment in the Puy-de-Dôme. The old theory, which declared that nature abhors a vacuum, fell to the ground. Pascal repeated the experiment at the Tour St. Jacques, in Paris, and it was proved that the mercury rises and falls according to altitude. Every schoolboy knows now what was then unknown. Curiously enough, this scientific success occasioned Pascal's first quarrel with the Jesuits; they accused him unjustly of having robbed Torricelli of his invention.

Étienne Pascal died on September 24, 1651. His loss was keenly felt by his children. It inclined Blaise even more to a religious life and to religious ideas. He set forth his ideas on death in a fine letter which he wrote to M. and Madame Périer. Jacqueline, after the loss of her father, entered Port-Royal; she was only twenty-six years old. Her profession took place in July, 1653. Thereupon, by a singular contrast, Pascal gave himself up again to the world; but contrasts are the law of the most exceptional natures. Pascal became for a time almost futile; he wrote verses for a lady (they were found in a château near Poitiers at Fontenay-le-Comte):

"De ces beaux lieux jeune et charmante hôtesse," etc.

He paid court in Auvergne in 1652 and 1653 to a lady who was a *femme savante*, and was called the Sappho of the province. The Chevalier de Méré (who left some opuscules now known only to bibliophiles) told him there was great profundity in the world, that there was much for the philosopher to learn in it. It was in that period that Pascal wrote a curious essay, 'Discours sur les Passions de l'Amour,' which Victor Cousin found in a manuscript at the Abbey of Saint Germain-des-Prés. We must not attribute too much importance to writings which were, so to speak, the wanderings of a great mind; but Pascal, even in these dissertations, was always himself, and could not help giving to all subjects a certain originality and a great elevation.

The years 1653-54 are those during which Pascal made his principal mathematical discoveries, which I will not analyze here. Towards the end of 1653, as he had attained the age of thirty, he experienced for a second time the feelings which had once turned him towards the severities of Jansenism. From this time, we see Pascal constantly struggling against the instincts of nature, against over-confidence in himself, against pride and the desire to be approved by the world. He experienced grace, but not without a painful effort and a struggle. He was now in constant communication with his sister Jacqueline, with *ces messieurs*, as they were called, of Port-Royal. After listening to a sermon by M. Singlin, on November 23, 1654, he fell into a sort of trance, and thought he felt directly the presence of God; he had a kind of revelation. All doubts were expelled from his mind; he was in presence of the living God. There was no more reason for arguing, for discussing; inspiration had taken the place of reason.

Port-Royal, the modest abbey near Versailles, was one of the oldest convents of the order of Cistercians. It was founded in the thirteenth century. At the beginning of the seventeenth the Abbess was a young child, eleven years old, Angélique Arnauld; as she grew older she undertook to reform the Abbey. She shut it out completely from the world, surrounding it with strong walls. Her parents came to see her; she received them in the *parloir*, and explained to them her resolve. They remonstrated in vain; she was determined to separate the Abbey from the influences of the outside world. In 1626 the community transported itself to Paris; in 1636 the Director was Duvergier de Hauranne, Abbé of Saint-Cyran, a friend of Jansen. He had larger views than Mother Angélique. He aimed at nothing less than a complete reform of the Church, and looked upon Port-Royal as the centre of this regeneration. The strict morals of Port-Royal were to be opposed to the easy and worldly morality of the Jesuits. Sainte-Beuve has told in his admirable work on Port-Royal the story of the first Jansenists. We can easily imagine how Pascal was drawn into the holy circle.

Correspondence.

THE DEMOCRATIC PARTY BLIND TO ITS RESPONSIBILITIES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Respected Friend: The magnitude of the wrong done to the people of the United States by the Democratic party, when it forced the silver question into the present campaign, becomes more and more apparent the more it is considered. Altogether because of this piece of folly, the American voters who wish to protest against the policy of Imperialism, are deprived of an opportunity to do so effectively. It is obvious that when two distinct issues must be voted for or against together, the people are practically prevented from expressing their judgments, by ballot, in regard to either of them. No one can vote for McKinley, for the sake of stable money, without strengthening the cause of Imperialism; and no one can vote for Bryan, for the sake of preserving our free institutions, without strengthening the cause of an unstable standard of values. If those in control of the Kansas City Convention had been on the payroll of the Imperialists, they could not have done more to insure the success of the most portentous aggregation of Jingoism and capitalistic effrontery that the world has ever seen. Even from the standpoint of Populism, the present importance of the slumbering silver cause must seem relatively insignificant, in view of the aggressive activity and persistent mendacity of those who are using their official vantage-ground to insidiously supplant a constitutional republican form of government by an oligarchic plutocracy.

The silver issue was voted on four years ago, and the decision was very decidedly against it, and if a majority of the people are anxious to reverse that judgment now, they are keeping wonderfully quiet about it, to say the least. There is every reason to suppose that the number of those who would feel greatly aggrieved by having the silver question simply shelved for the time being, compared with those who will be deterred from voting the ticket because of a feeling that they may be helping to afflict the country with another financial convulsion, is not greater than as one to a hundred. And, if such is the case, it is plain that the silver issue has become merely a tonic for Imperialism.

Since the last Presidential campaign, Imperialism has unexpectedly and accidentally become a vital issue, distinctly as a nursling of the present Administration. And, manifestly, the Democratic party, which is now our only effective reliance as an opposition party, owes it to the nation to open the way for a definite and emphatic decision of this supremely important and far-reaching issue. If the Democratic platform had said, in effect: "Although the theoretical attitude in regard to silver assumed by the party four years ago is unchanged, yet, in order that the more pressing issue of Imperialism may be met, squarely and definitely, by the people, the party is hereby pledged, if successful, to abstain, during the next four years, from all legislation that would disturb the gold standard," and further made it plain that there was no juggling with words in regard to Imperialism, there would now be a fair prospect that the snake in the bosom of the nation, which is threatening to strangle all there is of republicanism in our system of government, would be cast off for ever. Surely the matter is of sufficient importance to warrant the trouble of rectifying the mistake even yet. In no way could the leaders of the Democratic party so thoroughly demonstrate their patriotism and their manhood as by rising above false pride and the fear of ridicule, and reconstructing their too hasty work, on which so much that is of inestimable value may depend. A mere declaration that this or that is the paramount issue does not measure up to the importance of the one supreme issue. The question of Imperialism cannot be met squarely by the people unless the silver issue is practically eliminated from this campaign.

If Bryan should be elected on the present platform (and his election is extremely doubtful only on account of the platform), he could not possibly feel that he was the choice of the people in regard to either one or both of the issues; but only that he is in office as the result of a sort of blind gamble, on the part of the people, on the choice of two evils. From his own point of view he could not regard it as a victory either for silver or for freedom, and the uncertainty in regard to what they are really voting for, if they vote for him, will dampen the interest of the people, and result in losing tens of thousands of votes merely for want of a clear issue. Oh, for an Isaiah to proclaim for us that "the leaders of this people cause them to err, and they that are led of them are destroyed."

Freeman Stewart.

Philadelphia, 8th mo., 10th, 1900.

MALARIAL VIEWS OF POLITICS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of August 2, I find a somewhat agitated communication from Louisville, Ky., from which I beg leave to repeat the following passage:

> "Mr. Bryan is also pledged against 'government by injunction'—that is, against any efficient repression of riots. The unruly elements would soon feel who is holding the reins, and anarchy, like that which raged in Pittsburgh in 1877, or at Chicago in 1894, would spread from the Aroostook to the Golden Gate."

In the first sentence quoted, the delightful logic should be noted by which to be "against 'government by injunction' " is made the equivalent of being "against *any* efficient repression of riots." Upon which I remark that on this logic you yourself, sir, are clearly "against" the repression of riots, for you have opposed "government by injunction," and very forcibly. Such arguments are not reasonable—they are malarial; and malaria, especially the political malaria of Kentucky, is just what should be kept out of the present discussion. Let us not have the strenuosity on one side of this campaign matched by lugubriosity on the other. The old classic hymn,

"My thoughts on dreadful subjects tend,"

may have done good theologic service in its time, but hardly furnishes inspiration for a political campaign. The dread forebodings, given with an easy comprehensiveness of divination to which Ithuriel's spear "were but a wand," of what will certainly happen if Mr. Bryan is elected, recalls the doleful assurance of an old-time politician in Massachusetts, who solemnly pledged his word that if a certain candidate were elected Governor, "hell would take place in ten minutes." The dreaded candidate was elected, but there was no noticeable irruption from the infernal regions; the world did not come to an end then, nor will it with the election of Mr. Bryan, an event which now seems not so improbable but that we may as well prepare ourselves to accept it if necessary. The predictions of cataclysmal disasters to occur in case the other fellows win, are old and well-worn features of political campaigns.

In your appended comment you say, "We propose to do what we can to prevent this people from giving its seal of approbation to the present misruler of its destinies." This is a wise and patriotic purpose, involving the sum of existing political virtues and obligations; and if it can be gained in any other way than by the election of Mr. Bryan, will you not kindly explain to your perplexed but not discouraged readers, what that other way is, that they may strive with you to attain it? "Lead kindly light, amidst the encircling gloom," and show the better way.

FRANCIS FISHER BROWNE.

CHICAGO, August 8, 1900.

[Our way is very simple—to refrain from voting for McKinley, and to persuade as many other people as possible to do so.—ED. NATION.]

SILVER DOLLAR CIRCULATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your editorial comment (No. 1832) on the money of the country, in an article under the head "What Bryan Has Done and May Do," you say (in relation to the number of silver dollars): "Large quantities are not generally within his reach. Nearly all are absorbed in the circulation of the country." Now I see by a Treasury statement in to-day's paper the following, viz.: "Of the half-billion of silver dollars . . . 430,341,739 are in the Treasury, . . . and only 66,429,476 in circulation." Did you mean that the great bulk of them were in circulation through the means of "silver certificates"?

It seems to me a strange thing that, after all the claims which the Republicans have made for the credit of having established the country on a firm gold basis, they should fall back on a flaw in the act by which this desirable condition was accomplished to show the very act itself was not to be relied on. Shall we ever be on a really firm basis as long as any portion of the 460,000,000 legal tenders are in existence?

Yours truly, JAMES B. NOURSE.

WASHINGTON, D. C., August 11, 1900.

[Of course we meant that the bulk of the silver dollars in the Treasury could not be used by the Secretary for the purpose named, since they are held for the redemption of outstanding silver certificates. We shall *not* be on a firm basis as long as Government legal-tender notes are in existence. A clear and strong statement of the reasons why we shall not, is contained in the late Professor Dunbar's article on "The Safety of Legal-Tender Paper" in the *Quarterly Journal of Economics*.—ED. NATION.]

"NEWS-MAKING."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Theophrastus, in chapter viii. of his 'Characters,' has anticipated some features of our modern journalism, as shown especially in recent 'news' from China. I quote from a translation of 1715:

> "News-making properly consists in relating things which have neither been said nor done, but are invented by the newsmaker and put together at his will."

A reflection on the next page is less "up to date": "I have often wondered what this sort of men could possibly propose to themselves, by inventing and spreading such groundless stories."

They had no telegraph then, and no printing-press. Mr. Sheng doubtless finds his account, or thinks he does, in this "inventing and "spreading"; and his colaborers, the brilliant young foreign correspondents, have their salaries to earn. Like A. Ward's banknote engravers, "they make money, and good money too"—probably including an extra tip for each intellectual triumph in the way of an unusual sensation. F. M. B.

S. BETHLEHEM, PA.

THILLY AND WUNDT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In a recent number of your journal the reviewer of my 'Introduction to Ethics' states that my classification of ethical systems, as presented in the table on page 128, is substantially borrowed from Wundt. In order that the reader may judge for himself, will you kindly permit me to give Wundt's scheme, and then append my own? I quote from the English translation of Wundt's 'Ethics' (vol. ii., p. 164):

> "We thus obtain the following classification: I. *Authoritative Ethical Systems.* These may be divided into *politically* and *religiously* heteronomous systems. They either avoid taking any account of ends, or affiliate with some one of the autonomous systems as regards the question of ends. II. *Autonomous Ethical Systems.* (1.) *Eudæmonism*, under the form of (a) Individual Eudæmonism or Egoism; (b) Universal Eudæmonism or Utilitarianism. (2.) *Evolutionism*, under the form of (a) Individual Evolutionism; (b) Universal Evolutionism."

Here is my scheme: "What makes an act right or wrong? The *Theological School* says: The will of God; The *Common Sense School:* Conscience; The *Teleological School:* The effect of the act. What is the effect? Pleasure, says *Hedonism;* Perfection, says *Energism.* Whose Pleasure? Pleasure of self, says *Egoistic Hedonism;* Pleasure of others, says *Altruistic Hedonism.* Whose Perfection? Perfection of self, says *Egoistic Energism;* Perfection of others, says *Altruistic Energism.* The *Theologico-Teleological School* says: An act is good because God wills it, and God wills it because of its effects."

I also request the reader to compare the classifications given in the following works with Wundt's and my own: Bain's 'Mental and Moral Science,' 1868; Lecky's 'History of European Morals,' 1869; Sidgwick's 'Methods of Ethics,' 1874: Jhering's 'Der Zweck im Recht,' 1877; Paulsen's 'System der Ethik,' 1889; Seth's 'A Study of Ethical Principles,' 1894; Hyslop's 'Elements of Ethics,' 1895; Dorner's 'Das menschliche Handeln,' 1895; Külpe's 'Einleitung in die Philosophie,' 1895; Lipps's 'Ethische Grundfragen,' 1899. A perusal of these books will show that there is little difference in the classifications of the different authors, and that modern Ethics has reached a certain degree of fixity with respect to its divisions. My own scheme resembles the schemes of all of these writers in some points, and differs from them in others. So does Wundt's. Mine is no more like Wundt's than Wundt's is like Bain's and Sidgwick's and Jhering's. It is to be noted that not one of the writers mentioned in the above list gives credit to anybody. And there is no reason why he should; no more than why a modern biologist should give credit for using the current zoölogical classifications.

Yours respectfully, FRANK THILLY.

COLUMBIA, MO., August 9, 1900.

CREDIT TO WHOM CREDIT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your No. 1832, in your paragraph concerning Mr. Moorfield Storey's 'Life of Charles Sumner,' in my "American Statesmen Series," you say that Mr. Storey has not mentioned the name of Mr. E. L. Pierce, though relying throughout upon the elaborate biography written by that gentleman. It seemed to me, and may seem to others, that this was an intimation that Mr. Storey had gathered his material in Mr. Pierce's field, and had not been polite enough to say, "Thank you." Now, Mr. Storey was in friendly relations with Mr. Pierce, and it was to him that Mr. Pierce said: "You will find all the facts in my book"; therefore, a suggestion of discourtesy is very painful to Mr. Storey, and it becomes my duty to say that if any error has been committed, it has been wholly my own.

I, as editor, advised Mr. Storey that it was not worth while, nor required by literary usage, that he should insert a prefatory note whereof the sole purpose and contents would be to say that he had sought aid at the great reservoir which Mr. Pierce had conspicuously and laboriously prepared. Of course he had; if he had not, that fact would have demanded admission, to his own discredit. I may have been wrong, but I do not think that such obvious acknowledgments are required by literary courtesy. In all subjects, there are some authorities which all writers are assumed to use. Furthermore, I happen to have been so close to Mr. Storey in his preparation of this volume that I am fortunately able to say that, for all the matters of a public nature, concerning Sumner's statesmanship, Mr. Storey relied upon and used the works of Mr. Sumner very much more than he did the biography by Mr. Pierce. With the full historical introductions and the many letters to Mr. Sumner, embodied in the works, Mr. Storey was able to find the substantial and sufficient basis for his own views and treatment. His personal knowledge, also, of the latter part of Mr. Sumner's life was thorough and abundant for his needs. The originality and merit of his work would have been more apparent had I not been under the unfortunate necessity of greatly curtailing it in order to bring it within the rigid limits of my volumes.

JOHN T. MORSE, JR.
Editor American Statesmen Series.

BOSTON, August 9, 1900.

[We are glad to find Mr. Storey acquitted of the omission advised by his chief—and ill advised, as we must hold. The general public cannot be assumed to know of the existence of "authorities which all writers are assumed to use." Notoriously, too, the epitome thus easily made may bring far greater pecuniary profit to the appropriator than did the laborious original to its author, who at least should have the credit of having opened the quarry to the public.—Ed. Nation.]

THE ORIGIN OF CHESS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The writer of a recent communication on "The Origin of Chess" (*Nation*, No. 1824, p. 457), says of that Indian romance, the 'Harshacarita' of Bāna, which is ascribed to the earlier half of the seventh century of our era, and in which occur some more or less evident allusions to chess: "It cannot be supposed, since the game is mentioned familiarly as being well known at that time, that chess was then a novelty, and the conclusion appears to be inevitable that the game existed by the middle of the sixth century at least."

This allegation, rendered into the idiom of the fortieth century in a treatise compiled by an investigator into the origin of either croquet, lawn tennis, polo, or euchre, or into the genesis of the electric telegraph, the sewing-machine, or the telephone (just where the writer is commenting on a work attributed to the nineteenth century), would read as follows: "It cannot be supposed, since the game [instrument] is mentioned as being well known at that time, that croquet [the telephone] was then a novelty, and the conclusion appears to be inevitable that the game [instrument] existed by the middle of the eighteenth century at least." It is proper enough, perhaps, in discussing the oldest known date of an art, or invention, or custom, or anything else, to conceive a period of probability antecedent to the period of certainty—a sort of preliminary what-might-have-been before the actual what-was—and your correspondent has evinced much modesty in limiting this permissible play of his fancy to merely a century, or less. But what shall we say of Dr. Duncan Forbes—author of various Oriental linguistic works of repute—who, in his 'History of Chess' (London, 1860), claims thirty or forty centuries as the proper duration of his "period of probability"? or of the erudite Spaniard, Don José Brunet y Bellet, a principal object of whose 'El Ajedrez' (Barcelona, 1890) is to demonstrate the Egyptian nativity of chess, who takes us back to the pyramid-builders of Memphis and the tomb-painters of Thebes? or of Capt. Hiram Cox, a writer on "The Burmah Game of Chess" (*Asiatic Researches*, vii., Calcutta, 1801, pp. 490-91), the flight of whose imagination is quite as extended as that which Dr. Forbes permits himself to enjoy? or of Mr. Eyles Irwin, a believer in the inventive spirit of the Chinese (*Irish Academy Transactions*, v., pp. 53-63), who insists upon antedating his facts to the extent of finding chess "on record two centuries before the Christian era"? or of his successor in the same remote field, Mr. H. F. W. Holt, who, in a valuable paper (*Asiatic Society Journal*, July, 1885), seems half inclined to go back, with the Chinese historical books, to B. C. 279, but who finally, with commendable self-sacrifice, concludes that "it is *probable, in the absence of any evidence to the contrary*, that it [chess] has been played, very much in its present form, from the time of the Tang dynasty, commencing in the seventh century"? It is hardly necessary to mention the multitude of minor compilers, like Mr. Francis Douce (*Archæologia*, xi., 1794, pp. 397-410), with his "immemorially known in Hindostan," or like the well-known chess practitioner, Mr. H. E. Bird ('Chess History,' London, 1893), who disdains such an un-English author as "Linde," and announces his patriotic determination to stand by Dr. Forbes, and to endorse "the existence of the game called the Chaturanga at the time stated by him." Even historians of the European game, finding it impossible to obtain any evidence whatever of the presence of chess north of the Mediterranean before the eleventh century, must likewise have their "period of probability"—so gentle and honest a man as Sir Frederic Madden (*Archæologia*, xxiv., 1832, pp. 203-91) stretching back 300 years in order to embrace such an interesting character as Charlemagne.

How are these varying claims to be met and reconciled? Where shall we draw the line in the case of such imaginative seekers after truth, who over-zealously carry their explorations even beyond and behind the truth? Writers on the early ages of chess—particularly, for some inexplicable reason, those who wield English pens—find it extraordinarily difficult to avoid this conjectural style of research. The very newest (English) historian of chess, whose labors are not yet completed, feeling the cold severity of modern criticism, protestingly cries out, with a groan quite audible to the attentive reader: "We *must*, however, sometimes indulge in a little reasoning by analogy!" and devotes himself assiduously to the revival of the oft-confuted fancies and fables of the "reasoning by analogy" school of chess historical investigation. As will be seen below, even some Oriental scholars of our own immediate day—of deservedly high standing—will not quite give up this baneful habit of the past. Why cannot investigators be content to tell us what they know, without adding to it what they guess?

I shall attempt to cite, in their order, the recent additions to our knowledge of the earliest years of chess history.

(1.) In 1878 Prof. Theodor Nöldeke of Strassburg—a noted Semitist, but distinguished as well for his familiarity with Pahlavi—published a German translation of the so-called 'Kārnāmak,' a Pahlavī text of some importance. It is this work to which, as your correspondent tells us, Dr. Nöldeke "assigns the date 590-628 A. D." To its interesting character, as containing an early mention of chess, your correspondent is, I believe, the first to call the attention of the English-reading public. Dr. Nöldeke styles his version the 'Geschichte des Artachshir i Pāpākan,' being the story of Artaxerxes, son of Pāpak (Bezzenberger's *Beiträge*, 1878, pp. 32-69, and as a *Separat-Abdruck*, 1879, the pagination being the same in both). The translator characterizes it as an historical romance (p. 23). It is, in fact, a fanciful account of the education and adventures of a Persian noble, or prince, very similar, in manner and matter, to those prose and metrical tales which abounded in the literatures of Europe during the twelfth and fourteenth centuries from Italy to Iceland—from the *romans* and *fabliaux* of the South to the spurious sagas (*skröksögur*) of the North. The very sentence which includes the word *catrang* (chess)—its solitary occurrence—might be paralleled from a score of the story's European congeners. The young prince has been confided by his father to Ardawan, the Iranian King, who seemingly took an immediate interest in him, and "ordered that he should accompany his own sons and knights to the chase and to the games of ball," which command the prince obeys, and soon excelled his comrades in those manly diversions. "With God's aid he became doughtier and more skilled than all of them in ball-play, in riding, in chess *(catrang)*, in hunting, and in other accomplishments." The footnote to this sentence (p. 39) says of the word "*catrang:* das ist natürlich das Original des regelrecht daraus umgebildeten arab. *shatranj*, wie es wieder, im Einklang mit alter Tradition, die indische Urform *caturanga* reflectiert." Dr. Nöldeke is something more than cautious in his ascription of a date to the 'Story of Artachshīr.' He says (p. 23): "Die *genaue* Bestimmung der Abfassungszeit ist nicht möglich; doch spricht Manches dafür, dass es *aus der letzten Zeit* der Sāssānidenherrschaft stammt, etwa aus der Zeit des Chosrau II. Parwēz (590-628 n. chr.)"—that is, some time during the reign of that monarch. The earliest known reference in literature to this Pahlavī tale—a very indistinct one, as Dr. Nöldeke explains—occurs before the eighth century, and the second about 815-16, while the first direct mention of it (pp. 24-25) is by Mas'ūdi, the Arabic historical encyclopædist, in 943-4. Not content with these conservative statements, he goes still further, and informs his readers (p. 27) that there is no available linguistic testimony to assist in determining the age of the composition, and continues: "Ich glaube kaum, dass auch die wenigen gründlicheren Kenner des Pehlewī im Stande sind, die sprachliche Entwickelung in der echten Pehlewī-Literatur mit einiger Sicherheit zu beobachten." But since the publication of his version Dr. Nöldeke would appear to feel even greater doubt about his suggested date, for he has recently spoken of it as "Die *ungefähre* Zeitbestimmung (590-628) für die Abfassung des 'Kārnāmak.'" Professor Jacobi of Bonn is apparently in accord with Dr. Nöldeke as to the age of the book. He considers that "the mention of chess in the 'Kārnāmak,' under a name which is a reversion to the Sanskrit *caturanga* [unter seinem auf das Sanskrit *caturanga* zurückgehenden Namen], is, *at the most*, fifty years older than its oldest Indian mention (in Bāna)"—that is to say, in the 'Harshacarita,' to which we shall shortly come.

A book written anywhere between 590 and 628 may at least be more properly spoken of as belonging to the seventh than to the sixth century. Therefore Dr. Van der Linde ('Quellenstudien zur Geschichte des Schachspiels,' pp. 5, 6), with his inveterate but sometimes brusque good sense, gives the assigned date of the biographical *novella*, and then adds that it is thus, "let us say, from the seventh century." In truth, we have first to take it for granted, on what is expressly stated to be the slenderest evidence, that the 'Kārnāmak' was composed at some time between 590 and 628, and then to assume that the author wrote it precisely in the first (590-600) of the nearly four decades which make up the reign of Khosrau the Conqueror—a surmise in no wise susceptible of proof, hardly susceptible of probability. Having stretched our credulity thus taut, we are entitled to consider—somewhat in the English style of "reasoning"—that we *may have* succeeded in pushing back, with a certain amount of documentary aid, the authentic history of chess to a date earlier, by ten years or less, than the beginning of the seventh century. Beyond this, except on the wings of fancy, we cannot yet get.

(2.) In 1892, Dr. Nöldeke, with the same ability, described, in a section of his 'Persische Studien,' II. (Philosophical-Historical Proceedings of the Vienna Academy, CXXV., Abhandlung xii., pp. 20-26), another and briefer Pahlavī production, giving an account of the invention of the games of chess and nard (the oldest form of "tables," or backgammon). It had been previously edited, as one of four short legendary narrations in Pahlavī, by a native Parsī scholar at Bombay (1885), who had added to the text versions in English and Guajarati; while Dr. K. G. Salemann, director of the important Asiatic Museum in St. Petersburg, had printed at that city, in his 'Mittelpersische Studien' (1887), the text, accompanied by a German rendering. The narrative of the birth of the two ancient games differs slightly—though, so far as chess goes, not essentially—from the familiar Arabic accounts which we owe to Mas'ūdi (10th century) and Ibn Khallikān (13th century), both cited in detail by Van der Linde ('Geschichte des Schachspiels,' i., pp. 1-5). Dr. Nöldeke considers the Pahlavī story to be somewhat earlier than Mas'ūdi's, and not improbably the source of Firdausi's fabulous tale in the 'Shahnama.'

(3.) In 1896 appeared an essay by Prof. Hermann Jacobi of Bonn, "Ueber zwei ältere Erwähnungen des Schachspiels in der Sanskrit-Litteratur" (*Zeitschrift der deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft—ZDMG*, as it is usually cited by the Germans—Vol. L., ii.; pp. 227-33). These "two mentions of chess" were found in the 'Haravijaya' of the Kashmīr poet, Ratnākara, one of the so-styled "artificial" or mannered epics, made up of fifty elaborate cantos, which was composed about the middle of the ninth century; and in the 'Kāvyalankāra' of another Kashmir poet, Rudrata, belonging to the same period. At the date of Dr. Jacobi's publication these were the earliest known allusions to chess in Indian literature. The first citation forms part of a single figurative strophe in which the poet refers, as it seems, to the game of chess, enumerating the "four wings" or members—footmen, horsemen, chariots, elephants—descriptively applied alike to the military and chess array. The reference has something of the obscurity of an Icelandic *kenning*. The second authority sets forth chess matter of a far more satisfactory character, and is especially interesting because we learn from it not only that the "knight's tour" was well understood in the homeland of chess 1,000 years ago, but also that, then as now, the knight's route over the chess-board was employed as a medium or setting for metrical puzzles precisely in the modern manner.

(4.) Early in 1897 Prof. Edward B. Cowell of Cambridge, and Mr. F. W. Thomas, Librarian at the Indian Office in London, produced (*Oriental Translation Fund*, N. S. II.), a version of the 'Harshacarita'—"the earliest attempt at historical romance in Indian literature." This tale by Bāna was first brought to the notice of European students by our compatriot, Dr. Fitzedward Hall—so long and so pleasantly known to the readers of the *Nation*—in the introduction to his edition of Subandhu's 'Vāsavadattā' (one of the kāvyas, or artificial court epics, like the already-cited 'Haravijaya'), published in the *Bibliotheca Indica*, No. 116 (Calcutta, 1859). Dr. Hall discovered three more or less perfect MSS. The story has since become, in India, a favorite subject for treatment. There have been editions of the text at Jummu (Kashmīr) in 1879, Calcutta in 1876 and 1883, and Bombay in 1892, and it has been illustrated by a volume of English notes (Bombay, 1882), while an annotated excerpt was printed at Benares in 1883. In the notes to the London version no historical importance was attached to the passage or passages containing allusions to chess.

(5.) In 1897 also (*Athenæum*, July 24), Prof. A. A. Macdonell of Oxford published his note on "The Earliest Mention of Chess in Sanskrit Literature." I did not allude to this in my previous communication (*Nation*, No. 1823), nor to his subsequent essay on 'The Origin and Early History of Chess,' for the same reason that I refrained from referring to Professor Jacobi's model paper, namely, because I was calling attention generally to some standard works on chess history, and especially to the subject of chess in Hebrew literature. Professor Macdonell first condenses, in a clearly worded paragraph, the 1896 paper of Professor Jacobi, and then turns his attention to the allusion which he had observed in the 'Harshacarita.' "The passage," he says, "which is found on p. 55 of Vidyâsāgara's edition (Calcutta, 1876), and which contains a series of puns, is thus rendered by Professor Cowell, in his recently published translation of the 'Harshacarita' (p. 65): 'Under this monarch . . . . only bees (*satpada*) quarrel in collecting dews (dues); the only feet cut off are those in metre; only chess-boards (*astapada*) teach the positions of the four members (*caturanga*).' In his poetical romance 'Kadambari' ("Bombay Sanscrit Series," p. 88, l. 15), Bāna perhaps also refers to chess with the compound *astāpada-vyāpāra*, 'practice at the chess-board,' though it is interpreted as 'game at dice' in the smaller St. Peterbsurg dictionary." As to the date of the 'Harshacarita,' it is known that it was written under the patronage of King Harshavardhan, who ruled over Northern India from 606 to 648. In his most useful 'History of Sanskrit Literature,' just issued, Professor Macdonell has an excellent but too brief note on the origin and migration of chess (p. 421), and likewise gives a fuller account of Bāna's 'Harshacarita,' accompanied by some translated paragraphs, but with no further reference to the chess-passage including the words *caturanga* and *astāpada* (chess-board).

(6.) In January, 1898, Professor Macdonell prints in the Asiatic Society's *Journal* (pp. 117-141) his dissertation—to which I have alluded above, and which richly merits separate publication—on "The Origin and Early History of Chess." In this the citation from the 'Harshacarita' is repeated, and the remark added that "this reference is particularly clear, as both the game and the board are named together." No additional passages from Bāna's writings are quoted. Excellent as the essay is in almost every respect, its interest is somewhat marred by the author's inability to resist the temptation of occasional recourse to conjectural methods. Thus, at the end of his comment on the 'Harshacarita' reference, he anticipates the "inevitable conclusion" of your correspondent: "Occurring in the middle of an enumeration of notions familiar to the Indian reader, it justifies the conclusion that chess was well known in the beginning of the seventh century. The game must, therefore, have undoubtedly existed in India at least by the middle of the sixth century A. D." Such "reasoning by analogy" would have enabled Swift to cross the Irish Channel by steamer, and Dr. Johnson to run up from Lichfield to London by rail. Professor Macdonell would find it difficult to furnish any more trustworthy basis than his own surmise (p. 131) for the assertion that "It [chess] *may have* become known in Spain under the Saracen ruler Hakem II. (961-76)"—which is merely an inference from the fact that Hakem was a lover and collector of books, and *may have* had Arabic chess-codices in his library, which *may have* communicated a knowledge of chess to the people of Spain. Again, he says of the (original or two-handed) *caturanga:* "It is *quite possible, pace* Dr. [Van der] Linde, that dice was combined with the primitive form of chess"—an allegation which at present it would be *quite impossible* to substantiate satisfactorily. His pages likewise show some bibliographical oversights, such as the use of "Linde" for Van der Linde (we do not usually say "Werf" for Van der Werf, nor even "Hagen" for Von der Hagen), 'Heydebrand's Bibliography of Chess,' and so on. There are also indications of unfamiliarity with the technical terminology of the games he treats, as when he uses "piece" for "pawn" (p. 133), and, in the case of *nard* (p. 126, note), "squares" for "points"—but the Arabic word (*beit*=house) is the same in both games. Van der Linde's 'Geschichte' (1874), too, is abundantly cited, but no use is made of that author's 'Quellenstudien' (1881), a work in some sort supplementary to the earlier one. To Professor Macdonell's apparent ignorance of that volume is to be partly ascribed his extraordinary omission of any notice of the 'Kārnāmak'—the work which, so far as we now know, contains the most probable first mention of the game in any literature; for, while citing the account of the little Pahlavī chess-tractate by Dr. Nöldeke (1892), he shows no knowledge of the same savant's 'Geschichte des Artachshīr' issued fourteen years before. He would have found it duly chronicled—as we have stated—in the 'Quellenstudien' (pp. 5, 6). The allusion (p. 136, note) to Thomas Hyde, author of the 'Historia Shahiludii' (1694), as "the great Orientalist" is a deserved tribute to one who exhibited the same remarkable ability as Bodley's Librarian and as Oriental professor. Of all English writers on the antiquity of chess, Hyde was the most erudite and the least fanciful; hence Theodor Nöldeke ('Persische Studien,' ii., p. 25) characterizes him as "Der, nicht bloss für seine Zeit, wunderbar gelehrt und dabei *sehr verständig urtheilende* Hyde."

(7.) It was in 1898 also that Mr. F. W. Thomas, one of the translators of the 'Harshacarita,' published a note on "The Indian Game of Chess" (*ZDMG*, LII., ii., pp. 271-2). He begins by calling attention to Professor Jacobi's paper, and then examines the more recently noted Indian allusions to the game, citing, first of all, the above-mentioned 'Vāsavadattā' of Subandhu—a contemporary of Bāna—whose popular tale was "probably written," says Professor Macdonell, "quite at the beginning of the seventh century" ('Sanskrit Literature,' p. 332). The passage pointed out (Fitzedward Hall's ed., Calcutta, 1859, p. 284) is a comparison of frogs leaping up in the fields, during the rainy season, to the chess-men jumping up on the squares of the chess-boards. Thereupon Mr. Thomas cites an additional sentence from the 'Harshacarita,' in which he finds lurking a reference to chess. It is strongly figurative, speaking of a person "contracting a frown which . . . darkened the chess-board of his forehead"—a simile suggested, it is thought, by the "furrowed lines" of the brow ('Harshacarita,' transl. by Cowell and Thomas, p. 6, note). The expressions, "black squares," "mottled squares of a chess-board" (p. 272), denote ignorance of the fact that the old Asiatic chess-boards were never parti-colored, the squares being indicated simply by black lines (that is, outlined). The custom of coloring the squares originated in Spain. Perhaps I may add that the author, being English, does not succeed in closing his communication without taking his readers into the realm of hypothesis: "We find, therefore, that Professor Jacobi's interesting researches may be extended *at least* as far back as the first half of the seventh century, and *it may be permissible to conjecture* that the invention of chess belongs to a considerably earlier period."

(8.) Later in 1898 (*ZDMG*, LII., p. 512) Prof. Ernst Windisch, editor of that invaluable German Oriental journal, comments in a brief note, "Zu The Indian Game of Chess," on the statements of Macdonnell and Thomas in regard to the 'Harshacarita,' qualifying them somewhat—"da man das *astāpada* [=a board having eight squares in each row] auch zu andern Brettspielen benutzt haben kann," and of the citations from Bāna declares that they are "allerdings unsicher." He regards as more trustworthy the one from the 'Vāsavadattā:' "Die deutlichste Beziehung auf das Schachspiel scheint unter den neuen Stellen die von Thomas aus der 'Vāsavadattā' angeführt zu haben."

To sum up, the most ancient documentary indications of the existence of chess date from about the beginning of the seventh century A.D.; the possibly earliest and certainly least dubious mention of it occurring in a (Persian) biographical romance styled the 'Kārnāmak." The dialect of this tale is Middle-Persian, disguised by the medium in which it is written—a cryptogamic and otherwise bizarre form of orthographic expression known as Pahlavi. Neither the Sanskrit nor any other literature belonging to the native land of chess affords us, as yet, any assuredly earlier evidence of the game's existence. The oldest Arabic utterances relative to chess have been gathered with great diligence by the Arabist Gildemeister, and are published by Van der Linde ('Quellenstudien,' pp. 6-12). None of them are earlier than the eighth century, and of those cited from that period not one is wholly free from doubt, either in respect to its character or to the exactness of its date. It is needless to say that these three contiguous regions—Northwestern India, Persia, and Arabia—witnessed the earliest developments of the game.

I trust that it will not be considered inappropriate if I allude here to the later literature of ultra-Indian chess. The treatment of it, when compared with the essays that appeared in the earlier years of the century, exhibits a marked improvement. Mr. H. G. Hollingworth's "Short Sketch of the Chinese Game of Chess" (North China Asiatic Society's *Journal*, N. S., iii., pp. 107-112, Shanghai, 1866) is full and accurate, if lacking a little in lucidity. He gives two games, one of twenty-one and the other of forty-seven moves. "The Chinese Game of Chess as compared with that practised by Western Nations," by Mr. K. Himly, which appeared in the same journal (N. S., vi., pp. 105-121, 1871), is replete with literary and philological interest, but the author, after dallying with still earlier dates, declares that "we must be content with fixing the period of the invention before the year 100 A. D." (that is, if it were invented in China, which he is far from asserting). Of greater technical interest than these is a third paper in the Shanghai *Journal* (N. S., xxiii., pp. 248-284, 1889), by Mr. Z. Volpicelli, entitled "Chinese Chess." It is profusely illustrated with diagrams, and reproduces a number of end games. The explanations are intelligible and precise. Somewhat earlier than the last-named article is Mr. H. F. W. Holt's "Notes on the Chinese Game of Chess" (Asiatic Society's *Journal*, XVIII., iii., pp. 352-365, London, 1885), a compilation of interest, although the writer sets out with the erroneous statement (p. 353) that "Van der Linde, in his exhaustive work 'Geschichte und Litteratur des Schachspiels,' argues that Chaturanga is always used of an army, and never of a game, by the old Indian poets." To the author's opinions on the chronology of the Chinese game I have already alluded. In regard to the chess of Japan, there is no information more recent—so far as I have been able to ascertain—than that contained in the brief but admirable account of Mr. V. Holtz, "Das Japanische Schachspiel," in the *Mittheilungen der deutschen Gesellschaft für Natur- und Völkerkunde Ost-Asien's* (5tes Heft, pp. 10-12, Tokio, 1874). It gives representations of the board of eighty-one squares and of the men, furnishes concise but clear notes on the moves of the figures and the rules of the game, and records an actually played game of forty-one moves.

W. F.

Notes.

The Smithsonian Institution has undertaken to receive pledges of subscription for the International Catalogue of Scientific Literature resolved on at a conference held last June in London. This catalogue is to begin with the new century, will contain both an author and a subject-index, and will comprise the following subjects: Mathematics, Mechanics, Physics, Chemistry, Astronomy, Meteorology (along with Terrestrial Magnetism), Mineralogy (with Petrology and Crystallography), Geology, Geography (Mathematical and Physical), Palæontology, General Biology, Botany, Zoölogy, Human Anatomy, Physical Anthropology, Physiology (including Experimental Psychology, Pharmacology, and Experimental Pathology), and Bacteriology. To each of the seventeen subjects at least one volume will be devoted, and publication will take place in four quarterly groups as soon as possible after January 1, etc. The price fixed is a pound a volume, or $85 for the set, and the enterprise must look to a three years' support on these terms from not less than 300 subscribers. Ninety sets have been guaranteed for Germany, Great Britain, and Ireland; and forty-five, it is hoped, may be ordered from the United States. September 15 is the latest date at which this country should respond. All correspondence should be addressed to the Secretary, Prof. S. P. Langley.

Charles Scribner's Sons' list of autumn publications includes 'Military Reminiscences of the Civil War,' by the late Gen. J. D. Cox; 'Recollections of a Missionary in the Great West,' by Cyrus Townsend Brady; 'Paul Jones, Founder of the American Navy,' by Augustus C. Buell; 'A History of the American Slave Trade,' by John R. Spears; 'A Literary History of America,' by Prof. Barrett Wendell; 'Oliver Cromwell,' by Theodore Roosevelt; 'The Referendum in America,' by Ellis Paxton Oberholtzer; 'The Life of Sir Joshua Reynolds,' by Sir Walter Armstrong; 'Prince Charles Edward,' by Andrew Lang; 'A General History of Europe, 300-1900,' by Profs. Oliver J. Thatcher and Ferdinand Schwill; 'Napoleon at the Height of His Power,' by Imbert de Saint-Amand; 'A History of Education,' by Thomas Davidson; in Professor Saintsbury's "Periods of European Literature," 'The Transition Period,' by G. Gregory Smith; 'Italian Cities,' by E. H. and E. W. Blashfield, in two volumes; 'Songs and Song Writers,' by Henry T. Finck; 'The World of the Great Forest,' by Paul du Chaillu; 'Mooswa, and Other Animals,' by W. A. Fraser; 'Overheard in a Garden,' by Oliver Herford, with his own illustrations; 'A Garden of Simples,' sketches and essays by Martha Bockée Flint; 'The Ways of Men,' by Eliot Gregory; 'Oriental Rugs,' by John Kimberly Mumford, with colored and other illustrations; 'Songs of Two, and Other Verses,' by Arthur Sherburne Hardy; 'Later Poems,' by Julia C. R. Dorr; 'The Toiling of Felix, and Other Poems,' by Henry van Dyke; 'The Jack of All Trades,' and 'The Outdoor Handy Book,' by Daniel C. Beard; 'Fairies and Folk of Ireland,' by William Henry Frost; Mr. Barrie's 'Tommy and Grizel,' and 'The Works of Tobias Smollett,' with an essay by W. E. Henley.

Early in October, Little, Brown & Co., Boston, will issue a 'Study of James Martineau,' by the Rev. W. A. Jackson.

Doubleday, Page & Co.'s fall announcements include 'The Harriman Expedition to Alaska,' illustrated; 'Through the First Antarctic Night,' by Frederick A. Cook, M.D., a member of the *Belgica* expedition; 'Newest England' (Australia and New Zealand), by Henry D. Lloyd; 'Our Land and Land Policy,' by Henry George; 'Life of Henry George,' by his son and namesake; a translation, by Lionel Strachey, of Strylenski's 'Memoirs of Countess Potocka'; 'William Cotton Oswell,' the friend of Livingstone, by W. Edward Oswell; 'The Shakspere Country,' by John Leyland; a new Shakspere text edited by Prof. Mark H. Liddell in forty volumes; 'A Woman Tender-on each plate have been similarly measured by two observers. The total number of plates now definitely measured is 126, and the conversion of the measures into rectangular coördinates has been executed for 102 plates. For 87 of these, the work is completely examined and the final copy prepared for the press.

—Mr. Albert Matthews contributes to the Transactions of the Colonial Society of Massachuetts for January-April, 1898, just published, a remarkably learned and interesting paper on the euphemistic terms "hired man" and "help." It has usually been held, though not without dissent, that both terms arose from the disinclination of Americans either to call themselves anybody's "servants" or to submit to being so called. Mr. Matthews shows that the history of the usage in question is much more complex than any one has hitherto suspected. "Servant" is nowadays restricted, in common speech, to a man or woman employed in domestic service. In the colonial period, however, the word had a much wider signification; it was applied to laborers, mechanics, schoolmasters, articled students in a lawyer's office, and so on, as well as to domestics, and it included freemen as well as slaves. No odium whatever attached to the term. There were three distinct classes of servants: slaves, "indented servants," and "hired servants." The distinction between the last two classes is convincingly brought out by Mr. Matthews in a multitude of quotations. In addition, there were "hired freemen"—that is, ordinary free citizens, not belonging to the technical category of servants, who had temporarily "hired themselves out." This last class, Mr. Matthews supposes, were originally meant when "hired men" were spoken of. Thus, "hired man" was a merely descriptive term and in no sense a euphemism. With the growth of democratic feeling, however, the dislike now felt for the word "servant" manifested itself with constantly increasing force. The colonial system of white servitude gradually disappeared, and, there being but two great classes, slaves and freemen, the terms "hired man," "hired woman," etc., came to be used as euphemistic names for free servants, and have continued as survivals despite the abolition of slavery. Of course all these processes were gradual, and their history is admirably pictured in Mr. Matthews's illustrative quotations. Whether the term "hired man" was brought over from England, where it was in use as early as the fourteenth century, or whether it arose independently in this country, is still an open question. Mr. Matthews has not found it in any of the thirteen colonies till 1697, but he has discovered it in a law passed in Barbados in 1652.

—The history of "help" in the sense of "domestic servant" is even more curious. In colonial times the word was applied to any one called in to render temporary assistance, as opposed to a regular servant or employee. There was no euphemism about it. Thus, it was in common use for a transient "supply" or assistant in the ministry, and, in its application to labor of other kinds, it existed side by side with "servant" at a time when that word carried no odium. When, however, "servant" began to be looked at as a contemptuous or disgraceful appellation, "help" began, like "hired man," to lose its exact and purely descriptive sense, and to be employed as a euphemistic substitute. This usage, however, appears to have been somewhat local in its scope. The old quasi-technical meaning of "help"—that is, "temporary assistant"—was doubtless brought over from England, where "helps in the kitchen" are mentioned as early as 1596. Mr. Matthews deserves the thanks not only of students of lexicography, but of all who take an interest in the social history of America, for his scholarly monograph.

—The long set of the "Jesuit Relations" (Cleveland: Burrows Brothers Co.) is now advancing by leaps and bounds to its conclusion. Vols. lxiii.-lxvi. comprise documents which relate to a space of forty-five years, 1667-1712; and although the first twenty years of this period have already been dealt with in part, the mere fact that the remaining twenty-five years can be disposed of so rapidly shows the dwindling of the material. Instead of official reports, the private letters of the missionaries supply the chief part of Jesuit records at the end of the seventeenth century. Appeals to the Governors of the province, which are rare fifty years earlier, become prominent, and there are traces during Frontenac's régime of friction between Church and State. While the dangers of life among the Indians have somewhat lessened since the early days, the discomforts and the risk to health are still the same. We have encountered nothing in the whole series which seems more pitiful than the epitome which Father François de Crepieul writes of his cross among the Montagnais. It begins: "The life of a Montagnais missionary is a long and slow martyrdom; is an almost continual practice of patience and of mortification; is a truly penitential and humiliating life, especially in the cabins and on journeys with the savages." This general statement is then supported by ample details of suffering which cannot for a moment be questioned—the suffering which comes not so much from artificial torture as from hunger, thirst, and outrageous filth. At the opening of the eighteenth century we meet with an instance of greater regard for the wants of the missionaries in a list of supplies furnished to the Jesuits who are settled among the Illinois. Prunes, Spanish wine, oil, flour, and spices, all in small quantities, are forwarded to the men whose fund of vital energy is fast being exhausted on the banks of the Mississippi. Another interesting bill of items is contained in volume lxv. It is a return of the revenues which the Canadian Jesuits possessed in 1701. At this time the order derived from New France only 3,540 livres a year. The greater part of the amount came from land rents in or about Quebec. The crown also contributed 7,215 livres, and investments at home added 4,000 more. Altogether, the budget seems very modest when the extent of the mission field is considered. One excellent feature of volume lxvi. is the long bibliographical note which Mr. Paltsits contributes regarding the 'Lettres Édifiantes' of the Jesuits.

—'The Remarkable History of the Hudson's Bay Company,' by Dr. George Bryce (Scribners), is a book which has been many years in preparation, and represents an intimate personal knowledge of the Northwest territories of Canada. Naturally it suggests comparison with 'The Great Company' of Mr. Beckles Willson, which we have already reviewed at some length. In one respect we consider neither work to be quite satisfactory, viz., in the matter of illustrations. Photographs of the scenery and animals of the Hudson's Bay region are not within easy reach of every one, and yet there must be a good many of them somewhere. Clear reproductions from photographs showing the character of the country and people, and of the animals in their haunts, would have been a strong feature, but neither Mr. Willson nor Dr. Bryce has made it a point to collect a mass of such material. For the rest, Dr. Bryce expands his narrative just at the moment where Mr. Willson grows concise. The best part of Mr. Willson's volume is that which deals with the origin of the Company and the early rivalry between French and English. He is less good after the Peace of Utrecht than before it. Dr. Bryce passes rapidly over the first stage, and concentrates his notice upon the operation of the Company since 1750. Accordingly the two works supplement each other more than they clash in rivalry. The field which Dr. Bryce rightly claims for his own is the last eighty years, since the amalgamation of all the fur interests of British North America. With the disappearance of such trading bodies as the Northwest Fur Company of Montreal, the X Y Company, and the Astor Fur Company of New York, the history of the Hudson's Bay Company loses the excitement which comes from acute conflict, and tends to become the record of commercial routine. But the element of adventure can never be eliminated from life in that region, and Dr. Bryce has done well to emphasize the importance of a period which has hitherto been noticed only in connection with Lord Selkirk, the cession of Manitoba to the Dominion of Canada, and the Riel risings. A classified bibliography of literature relating to the Northwest is furnished, and signs of original research are apparent in every chapter. Putting the books of Mr. Willson and Dr. Bryce together, we are now in a position to follow the origin, progress, and practical working of the Hudson's Bay Company.

—The oblivion that has overtaken Volapük does not dishearten the apostles of linguistic unity. M. Léon Bollack of Paris regards the present as a moment favorable to the propagation of universal peace and brotherhood through the medium of a brand-new "international practical language" which he has invented. The little "English" pamphlet in which his views are set forth is almost pathetically funny. It consists, in the main, of an attempted translation of an article published last December by M. Raoul de la Grasserie, in which that respectable philologist speaks rather favorably of "The Blue Language," as M. Bollack has christened his novel idiom (another name for it is "Bolak"). There are also certain testimonies from men of letters, and, finally, an appeal to the world for support. We need not discuss the ingenious futility of M. Bollack's plan. What lends interest to his pronunciamiento is the extraordinary "English" in which he, or one of his helpers, has clothed his (and M. de la Grasserie's) ideas. It is not M. Bollack's purpose to create a substitute for existent languages. On the contrary, we learn that the "endeavor of the universal language tending to the end of supplying the place of all others, through who went to Scotland to help liberate the Scots; "having suffered persecution himself, he felt for" others likewise afflicted. There was also a Garibaldian colonel who had but one shirt—red. His benevolent landlady sought to wash it in the silent hours; but the maid returned from his room in dismay: "Lor, mum, he's asleepin' in it!"

Henry Hart Milman, D.D., Dean of St. Paul's: A Biographical Sketch by his son, Arthur Milman, M.A., LL.D. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1900.

The modesty which has kept back till now the biography of a man so distinguished in his day as Dean Milman, contrasts favorably with some examples of too hasty welcome of the dead to biographical honors; and the one volume into which the biography is compressed, suggests the shrinkage which many such works in two volumes or more would suffer could they be subjected to the weight of a few decades of impartial years. Yet, though Milman seems so far away, he was born (1791) only fourteen years before Martineau, who is but six months dead, and he was a literary contemporary of Carlyle. His early schooling was at Eton, and he went into residence at Brazenose, Oxford, in 1810, and there had a brilliant course, raking in prizes of all sorts in a quite unprecedented manner. One of the Ingoldsby legends has preserved a fragment of his fame:

> "His lines on Apollo
> Beat all the rest hollow,
> And gain'd him the Newdigate Prize";

and when Tennyson said, speaking of prize poems, they should not be regarded as poems, "not even Milman's," the general depreciation was less significant than the particular praise.

Milman shared with another Dean of St. Paul's the distinction of being a poet before he was a preacher, and in his case, as in Donne's, the distinction did not at first improve his chances of preferment. It is true that Milman's "Fazio" was very innocuous in comparison with some of Donne's poetical wild oats, but it was a play, and one that met with some success upon the boards, Fanny Kemble taking the principal part in it. Moreover, Ristori had it put into Italian with a view to assuming the rôle of *Bianca*. His next modest venture was 'Samor,' an epic in twelve books. This did not take the world by storm, but 'The Fall of Jerusalem' (1820) and 'The Martyr of Antioch' (1822) not only delighted the popular religious taste, but won the praise of good contemporary judges of poetry, securing for Milman the professorship of poetry at Oxford for five years. The fact that his lectures were delivered in Latin is one sign of many that the world does move.

He was a Quarterly Reviewer before Gifford's death, and thought kindly of that dread potentate, and was on the best of terms with Lockhart when that difficult person came in for the succession. But the great event of Milman's life was the publication of his 'History of the Jews.' It is difficult to imagine that his book was considered dangerous seventy years ago, so blameless is its innocence in comparison with Kuenen and Wellhausen, and their kind. When it appeared, it was denounced as "an impious book," "a gross misrepresentation of the Word of God," and there was a great tempest over it in the Anglican teapot. Milman was in truth one of the pioneers. His book was, as Dean Stanley said, "the first decisive inroad of German theology into England; the first palpable indication that the Bible could be studied like another book." Its worst offence was its attempt to relate Jewish history to a natural development, and especially that it called Abraham a "sheikh." A 'History of Early Christianity' followed and stirred up less wrath, though it carried over the method of the Jewish history to more dangerous ground. Out of his work on this book grew Milman's once famous, now somewhat discredited, edition of Gibbon's 'Decline and Fall.' It is amusing to find a friend suggesting to Milman that his Gibbon might be published by the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge. "Nothing," wrote Milman, "but the most merciless castration will bring him within their notions of safety and propriety," and he did not propose to omit one word. Surely a Christianized Gibbon would be like Dr. Holmes's convivial song which was made over into a temperance ode.

A much better book than the 'Early Christianity,' and a truly noble one, was Milman's 'Latin Christianity,' which was published in 1854-55. It was warmly praised by Stanley and Froude and Dean Church; thousands of clergymen found it "as interesting as a novel"; its glowing style was no deduction from its more solid traits; and those who think it has been superseded make a great mistake. Dean Milman's relations to the Colenso and 'Essays and Reviews' controversies were very creditable, and breadth and liberality were at all times distinguishing features of his mind. The Tractarian excitement seems to have overpassed him like a summer cloud. His picture facing that of the title-page is not sicklied over with the pale ecclesiastical cast. It suggests the bluff and hearty captain of an East Indiaman. There is every reason to believe that he was a gentleman after the manner of the Chevalier Bayard.

A Treatise on Zoölogy. Edited by E. Ray Lankester. Part III. The Echinoderma, by F. A. Bather, assisted by J. W. Gregory and E. S. Goodrich. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan. 1900. 8vo, pp. viii, 344. With many illustrations.

This work, although entitled Part III., is the first publication of a series of volumes to comprise a comprehensive treatise on Zoölogy planned by Prof. E. Ray Lankester and under his editorship. The authors are, for the most part, graduates of the University of Oxford, though it is not contemplated to restrict future volumes of the series without exception by this limitation. Each of the larger groups of the Animal Kingdom is to be described by a separate author or group of experts, and, as far as practicable, the editor aims to preserve a certain uniformity of scope and method.

The general object of the treatise is to give a systematic exposition of the characters of the classes and orders of the animal kingdom, with a citation in due place of the families and chief genera included in the groups discussed. A main purpose of the editor has been that the work should be an independent and trustworthy taxonomic presentation of the main facts and conclusions of animal morphography, especially for the uses of serious students of zoology. The work as a whole will comprise ten demi-octavo volumes of about the size of the present one, which will be issued without reference to logical sequence, as soon as ready for the press. Besides the editor, among those who have consented to take part in the preparation of the series, Professors Poulton, Benham, Weldon, and Minchin, and Messrs. Bourne and Fowler, may be mentioned.

The present volume constitutes an independent manual of the important group of the Echinoderms, including the sea-lilies, sea-urchins, and starfishes, besides other less familiar groups. It is illustrated by more than three hundred figures, nearly all of which have been specially drawn for this publication, many of them from generic types in the collection of the British Museum. Bibliographical references to the more important papers in the literature, and a complete Index to generic names and technical terms, have been provided.

The endeavor has been made to combine with a comprehensive, systematic treatise the historical or evolutionary succession of life in the class more thoroughly than in any previous publication on these animals. The chapters on Echini, Starfish, and Ophiurans have been written by Dr. J. W. Gregory, formerly of the British Museum and now professor of geology at Melbourne; that on the Trepangs or Holothurians by Mr. E. S. Goodrich, demonstrator of anatomy in the University of Oxford; the others by Mr. F. A. Bather of the British Museum, who has acted as sub-editor under the supervision of Professor Lankester. For many years Mr. Bather has been recorder of the literature of Echinoderms for the *Zoölogical Record*, and in charge of the collection of these animals in the British Museum. His very intimate knowledge of the Crinoids and the opportunities above mentioned have given him an equipment for his present task such as no other zoölogist possesses.

Bather divides the Cystidea of the palæozoic age into four orders, from one of which, the Amphoridea, by five different lines of descent, the Echinoderma have probably been derived. From the Edrioasteroid line, we may suppose the Holothurians, starfish, and echini developed in the order named; while representatives of the original stock persisted to the close of the Carboniferous epoch. The Diploporite line ought properly to include the Blastoidea, and from it probably arose, as a fresh development with a new lease of life, the important class Crinoidea, of which representatives still exist. The other lines were less successful, and none of them survived the Silurian. According to Bather, there are not less than seventy families of Crinoids, and their classification has been a work of extreme difficulty, scheme after scheme having been tested and rejected. The classification of Wachsmuth and Springer, though by far the best from an anatomical standpoint, is not, according to our author, the phylogenetic classification sought by the modern biologist. He takes the character of the "cup," which has either one or two circles of plates, as fundamental; this distinction running back to Archæan obscurity.

It is inadvisable to attempt here any detailed discussion of so technical a subject; let it suffice to say that the work appears to be of the highest quality, and to have all the promise of proving a permanent addition to the small list of manuals which do not lose their value with the lapse of time. The illustrations are of a high order of excellence. The portions of the work due to Messrs. Gregory and Goodrich lack the distinction of that which we have just referred to, but give a good general discussion and illustration of the groups concerned, which will be appreciated by students.

The United States Naval Academy. By Park Benjamin of the Class of 1867. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1900.

This work is mainly a history of the Academy at Annapolis, though the earlier pages are devoted to a description of the life and education of midshipmen before the Academy was called into existence and definitely established at Fort Severn at Annapolis, Md. It is to be regretted that the author has detracted so much from the dignity of his work by a flippant and affectedly quaint style for the sub-title and chapter headings. The book really is of importance and possesses substantial merit, and is by far the best extant upon its subject.

There seems no doubt that Mr. Benjamin has cherished a lively interest in his Alma Mater, as well as in the naval service from which he severed his connection many years since. His success in life in other pursuits has not weakened his affection for the scenes of his youth, and he has paid his tribute to the institution that shaped him in the present labor of love. Tracing the midshipman and his rôle from the first beginnings in the English navy, the author commences with our midshipmen at the creation of the navy in Revolutionary times, before which many of our colonial families were represented in the English navy, *e. g.*, the Brentons of Newport, R. I., one of whom became in later years a historian of the British navy. The midshipmen of the American navy during the Revolutionary war had the pay of twelve dollars a month, and were presented with a uniform of a blue coat and breeches and a fine red waistcoat. The men before the mast wore green shirts in those days. The way of the midshipman was hard, for it is recorded that John Paul Jones, when in command of the *Ariel*, not only found it necessary to "kick Mr. Fanning, midshipman, and order him below," but to "put Mr. Potter, midshipman, in irons for a thermometer being broken in his cabin." It was the only thermometer in the possession of the doughty commander, and the provocation was considered great. In the quasi-war with France that followed years afterwards, the estimation in which midshipmen were held was greatly increased, and Midshipman James Jarvis, as all patriotic boys well know, received the thanks of no less a body than the Congress of the United States for gloriously preferring certain death to the abandonment of his post on the *Constellation*.

President Jefferson desired to have the midshipmen of the navy educated at the Military Academy at West Point, and subsequently a bill was reported in the Senate which provided for the removal of the Military Academy from West Point to Washington, its reorganization, and the instruction therein of midshipmen. This measure was never passed by Congress, and midshipmen were taught by naval instructors afloat until the establishment of the school, in 1838, in the building erected for the Naval Asylum, now the Naval Home, at Philadelphia. This school was lax in discipline and systematic instruction, but fortunately included among its small staff of instructors the well-known mathematician Prof. Wm. Chauvenet, afterwards of Washington University, St. Louis, but whose name was more particularly linked with the establishment and progress of the Naval Academy at Annapolis. The foundation of the Naval Academy was due to the astuteness of Mr. George Bancroft, the historian, while Secretary of the Navy, in 1845. Without waiting longer for the action of Congress, having secured favorable recommendation from a board of officers of high rank, appointed as an Examining Board at Philadelphia for a naval school to be located at Annapolis, he proceeded, on the 7th of August, 1845, to direct Commodore Franklin Buchanan to assume charge of the school thus recommended to be established, and to prepare for the approval of the Navy Department a plan for its organization and administration. This was done without reference to Congress; the Secretary of War having transferred, with the approval of the President, the abandoned post at Fort Severn, near Annapolis, to the Navy Department as a site for the school.

Although the grounds and buildings at this antiquated post were little fitted for the proposed institution, still a permanent abiding place was secured and a future marked out, and the Superintendent (as Buchanan was termed), with an academic staff of seven instructors, began work on October 10, 1845. No systematic courses were provided for, and the length of stay and date of departure were both uncertain; but progress was made, and in August, 1846, Congress made its first recognition by an appropriation which continued annually, and in 1851 the course at the Academy was made a consecutive one of four years, and it was further provided that no one could have a warrant as midshipman who was not a graduate of the Naval Academy. The senior graduate of the class entering in 1851 is the younger Admiral Selfridge. Concerning this, the author says:

> "It required the span of Selfridge's active career, forty-seven years, to bring this about. The Mexican war was fought by naval officers educated wholly under the old system, and the only representatives of the naval school in active service were a few young midshipmen, like Simpson and others, who had been in attendance at Annapolis for a few months. The naval officers in responsible command during the civil war were all of them of the old navy. Not only the youngsters of the Naval Academy, but all the oldsters, were lieutenants when the war began, and none of them reached the grade of commander before it closed. The Spanish war was fought wholly by graduates of the Naval Academy who had gone through the regular course, and by a few survivors of those officers who had entered the regular navy from the volunteer service at the close of the civil war."

The civil war confronted the Academy with a novel situation. Not only was the Academy depleted by resignations of the midshipmen from the South, and the ordering into service at once of the upper classmen, but the geographical situation of its site south of Mason and Dixon's line brought it into the area of the earlier warfare of this great struggle. As a consequence, the Naval Academy was moved, so far as it could be, to Newport, R. I., on the 9th of May, 1861, and enjoyed the hospitality of the War Department, part of the time at Fort Adams, and part at Fort Wolcott on Goat Island, the site of the present naval torpedo station. To this afterwards was joined the occupancy of the Atlantic House, a large summer hotel opposite Touro Park, by the upper classes.

The four years at Newport were the eventful ones of the civil war, and, under the war impulse, the Academy rapidly filled up. The class entering in the autumn of 1861 numbered more than two hundred, all of whom were quartered on board of the old frigate *Constitution*, which was moored in the inner harbor of Newport, close to Goat Island. Notwithstanding the manifest difficulties of the position, and the temporary and improvised nature of the establishments, the discipline of the Academy was well maintained, though class and corps feeling naturally suffered. Classes were divided and subdivided, and portions hastened into the service; for in our navy, as in the army, there never seems to be on hand the small reserve to meet emergencies or to allow for systematic courses of training and education.

The war over, the long term of Commodore Blake, then a retired officer, came to an end, and with the unwise return to Annapolis came the progressive and energetic administration of Admiral Porter, who gathered about him the élite of the younger men who had distinguished themselves in the war. The author, who was a midshipman during part of this régime, is perhaps not unnaturally disposed to remark upon the transition as well as to exalt unduly the administration. Circumstances favored the changes, excellent as they were, and the times were such as naturally exist with respect to military services at the end of successful wars. The facts certainly were that Porter did leave the standards of scholarship higher and the military and general tone better than he found them, though he was far from founding a college or creating a university. The work of Craven, the brothers Rodgers, George and Raymond, and of Simpson was advanced and supplemented by the successful efforts and influence of Porter, Ramsay, Sampson, and Luce.

Of the last-named, Mr. Benjamin says:

> "It is difficult to convey to any one not of the navy an adequate appreciation of Rear-Admiral Luce's great service to the cause of naval education, unless adequate record is made of the admirable work of his later years in the establishment of the War College and of the naval-apprentice system, of both of which he was the originator. But Luce's 'Seamanship,' which was written for the midshipmen, and which appeared in 1862, has been the authoritative text-book of the navy on its subject ever since, and is so still. . . . Every youngster has grappled with it until its very words are crystallized into the brain-structure of the navy personnel."

Luce, though holding the position of Commandant of Midshipmen, never became Superintendent, but his name will always be linked with the history of the Academy.

The course of the administration at the Academy has not always run evenly; but no more successful and creditable régime has existed than that brought to a close in July, 1898, by Capt. Philip H. Cooper, as superintendent. The reconstruction of the buildings upon a comprehensive plan and with fine architectural effect should be accompanied by a reconstruction of the curriculum, in accordance with the demands of a modern naval service and of the newly reconstructed personnel of the official grades. It is to be hoped that an advanced entrance examination will compensate for the proposed shortened course from six to four years, and that a brick-and-mortar policy will not lower the attention to the personnel of the Academy, without which its *matériel* is nothing.

The Architectural Annual. Published under the auspices of the Architectural League of America, and edited by Albert Kelsey, President of the League, etc., etc., etc. Issue for 1900. Philadelphia. Pp. 292.

This book, in form a small folio, appears as the first publication of the Society named on its title-page, and is sold by subscription only. The motto, "Progress before Precedent," occurs on the cover and on the false title, and allusion is made to it at many points throughout the volume. It seems to be admitted that, in theory at least, the object of the A. L. A. is to encourage such a habit of thought, and to lead the so-called designers of the country in the paths of wholesome and natural design, away from the narrow semi-archæological view which too many of them have taken of their art, and that at all epochs since the French Revolution. The Annual contains papers especially devoted to the works of the more original and more independent architects, those less given to the mere copying of ancient work. There are also papers by other men who might be distinguished by similar epithets. And again, there are notices of men of absolutely the contrary habit of mind; and as much space is allowed to the non-original designs of the day as to those showing some slight ray of intelligence and independent thought. This is inevitable in the present condition of the art in the United States, unless it should be the resolve of the editor to make a book wholly on certain lines, urging this and ignoring that, pushing the argument vigorously on the right lines, and answering as vigorously the objections that are or may be made.

It is evident that nothing like this has been attempted in the book under consideration. The reprint of Mr. Brooks Adams's stirring but not very intelligent speech, delivered at the dinner of the Sculpture Society and Mural Painters in New York not long ago, bristles with patriotism and sonorous assertions that the country is a great country with great thoughts of its own, and that the architects ought to come up to the American standard of bigness and of energy. The address of President Van Brunt, of the American Institute of Architects, is the proper thing for a President to say at an annual meeting—something encouraging and cheerful; for he would be a poor president who should not, on such an occasion, keep up the spirits of the men who sit to listen. A very brief paper, entitled "The Modern Phase of Architecture," and written by almost the only one of the men in large practice who really has tried to design high iron buildings as if they were really high iron buildings—Mr. Louis H. Sullivan—occupies page 27; but it was a paper read in the absence of the writer, and consists of generalizations wholly. The Baltimore Conference on Municipal Art, which was held in December, 1899, is briefly noticed by Mr. George Kriehn. The recent international competition for the University of California receives much fuller notice, and a great number of plates are added which, in their form of greatly reduced half-tone prints, can hardly be thought to render adequately the drawings of this memorable struggle. They represent, however, the unsuccessful as well as the successful designs. There is an interesting paper on bridges as accessory to city embellishment, and the ten pictures selected for this serve their purpose well as illustrating the text. By way of illustration to different articles, a very great number of interesting pictures are included in the book. But as for the avowed purpose of the League, all that can be found bearing upon that important subject is the tone of the criticism here and there. Thus, for instance, the Dewey Arch, admitted to be admirable as a piece of associated sculpture, is overhauled vigorously as a mere copy of a Roman original.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Acker, F. Pen Sketches. Philadelphia: Published by the Author.
Bingham, C., and Thompson, G. H. The Animals' Trip to Sea. E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.
Gould, Rev. E. P. The Biblical Theology of the New Testament. Macmillan. 75c.
Hough, E. The Girl at the Halfway House: A Story of the Plains. Appletons. $1.50.
McMillan, Margaret. Early Childhood. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; Syracuse, N. Y.: C. W. Bardeen. $1.50.
Mead, Prof. W. E., and Gordy, W. F. Practical Composition and Rhetoric. Boston and Chicago: Sibley & Ducker.
Murray, J. A. H. The Oxford English Dictionary: A New English Dictionary on Historical Principles. Henry Frowde. Gradely—Greement, Vol. IV. Inferable—Inpushing, Vol. V. 60c. each.
Otto Hübner's Geographisch-Statistische Tabellen aller Länder der Erde 1900. Frankfurt: Heinrich Keller.
Perrot, G. Art History in the High School. Translated from the French by Sarah W. Moore. Syracuse, N. Y.: C. W. Bardeen. 50c.
Radau, Rev. H. Early Babylonian History. Henry Frowde.
Reitterer, T. Leben und Werke Peter Pindars. Leipzig: W. Braumüller.
Scoble, J., and Abercrombie, H. R. The Rise and Fall of Krugerism. A Personal Record of Forty Years in South Africa. F. A. Stokes Co. $3.
"The Georgian Period," being Measured Drawings of Colonial Work. Part V. Boston: American Architect & Building News.
The Voyage of Robert Dudley to the West Indies, 1594-1595. Edited by G. F. Warner. London: The Hakluyt Society.
The Story of the Christian and Missionary Alliance. New York: The Christian and Missionary Alliance.
Walton, Joseph. China and the Present Crisis. London: Sampson Low & Co. 6s.

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Published by L. C. PAGE & CO., Boston, Mass.

every State. This is true of every year, and even when the only question at stake may be which of two men shall occupy the Governor's chair. In a Presidential year, however, it is essential that the whole country shall have confidence that the result will be honestly reached and declared in a State which may prove the pivotal one. Nothing contributed so much to the quiet acceptance of the result in 1884 as the general conviction that New York had a fair election law. Kentucky ought to have such a law before next fall's election.

Gen. Wood's speech at Matanzas on Thursday implies that there has been a modification of the purpose of our Government to retain its hold upon Cuba in the indirect way of controlling the foreign relations and the finances of the island, but it is still a matter of doubt whether there has been any change. The recent proclamation issued by the General was for a convention "to frame and adopt a Constitution for the people of Cuba, and as part thereof to provide for and agree with the Government of the United States upon the relations to exist between that Government and the Government of Cuba." There could be no doubt of our intention, scarcely veiled under these words, to grant to the Cuban people only a part of the independence promised to them in the joint resolution of Congress which preceded the war with Spain. That resolution declared that

> "The United States hereby disclaims any disposition or intention to exercise sovereignty, jurisdiction, or control over said island, except for the pacification thereof, and asserts its determination, when that is accomplished, to leave the government and control of the island to its people."

According to the published report of Gen. Wood's speech, there was no specific withdrawal of the requirement that the coming Convention should make the relations of Cuba with the United States a part of the Constitution, yet the general tenor of his remarks points to complete independence as soon as a "stable" government is formed. The proclamation, by the way, requires the Convention not only to frame, but to "adopt" a Constitution. This word would seem to preclude the idea of submitting the Constitution to a vote of the people after it has been framed by the Convention, especially as no mention of such submission is made in any other part of the proclamation.

The protesting delegation of Cubans, headed by Señor Cisneros, called on President McKinley on Saturday, and laid before him their objections to the scheme of semi-independence which the proclamation mapped out for them. According to an interview with Señor Cisneros, published in the New York *Times*, gentleman does not look for any change in the terms under which the Convention is to act. He says that for his own part he would walk out of a convention where he was not free to act upon the whole subject-matter of the Constitution. He believes also that the people of Cuba will not be satisfied with a Constitution framed under duress, and he adds that "time only can tell whether a revolution against the Americans will be necessary, should the present policy be continued." He looks for the happiest relations between the Government of Cuba and that of the United States if the former is left, after the adoption of its Constitution, a free agent in the negotiations, but only on those terms. If there is to be coercion beforehand, he expects only strife and bitterness as a result.

The leading article of the *Diario de Porto Rico* of July 30 bears the heading, "Why We Abstained from Joining in the Celebration," that is, of the anniversary of the union with the United States (July 25). It draws a contrast between the conditions prevailing under Spanish and under American rule, which cannot be considered flattering to us. In the first place, it says that Porto Rico enjoys less of civil liberty now than it had under Spanish rule. Civil liberty means not merely freedom of action under the laws, but participation in all the affairs of government. It means equality in making the laws as well as equality under them. What are the facts? The *Diario* says that formerly Porto Ricans elected three Senators and sixteen Representatives to the Congress of Spain, whereas now they have one delegate in Washington without a vote. As to the Executive Department, it continues: "We had a council of secretaries, whose resolutions were *always* sanctioned by the Governor. Now we have an executive council, chiefly composed of persons who were not born here and enjoy no standing whatever in the island, and will naturally interest themselves more for the country appointing them than for the region which pays their salaries." Still more surprising, perhaps, is the fact that formerly the island always had a surplus revenue, although it was taxed for army and navy expenses and for "pensions to the descendants of Christopher Columbus," whereas now it is facing a deficit amounting to one million dollars. The *Diario* has a long list of disabilities suffered by Porto Rico now that were not known under Spanish rule, ending with the degrading one that the inhabitants are not citizens of the United States or of any other sovereign power. They are not under the protection of the Constitution. They do not form any part of the nation to which they belong. "We have been granted nothing of what we were promised," it says, "and our condition is that of a slave adscript to a conquered soil."

Hawaii is undergoing the process of transformation from a quasi-republic to a Territory of the United States, and the first step is the development of political parties. Already the white population is sharply divided into Republicans and Democrats, with their appropriate Central Committees and organizations. Such a division in a new Territory with its purely local interests can, it would appear, be based only on personal habit and prejudice, but its very existence testifies to the invincible vitality of the party idea. "Votes" of greater or less respectability are beginning to trouble the quietude of the managers. There is an ominous possibility of a third party in the native or Kanaka movement. But, as the Honolulu correspondent of the Philadelphia *Press* remarks, the Kanakas are dying off pretty rapidly, while from the lack of effective leadership this largest of all the Hawaiian "votes" is likely to drift towards the great organizations and lose itself in one or the other. There is also a Chinese vote of some five hundred, which is regarded as safe for the Republican party.

The governmental situation in Hawaii offers some features of novel interest. The first Territorial Legislature must face new and pressing problems. Foremost among these is the question of local self-government. Whether under king, queen, or president, Hawaii has been ruled by a strong central government. Even Honolulu and Hilo, towns of 30,000 and 15,000 inhabitants, respectively, have been invariably so governed. Under the change of administration there is already a clamor for the recognition of local rights and powers as we have them in America, and the new Legislature will have its hands full in dealing with applications for city charters. This problem of changing from a centralized to a decentralized form of government is seriously complicated by the number of races to be dealt with, and the absence of a local administrative tradition. The raising of revenue will prove a problem of no less difficulty. Through annexation to the United States, Hawaii loses the customs receipts, until recently an abundant source of revenue. The present tax rate is only 1 per cent., but any proposition for increase of the rate will meet with strong opposition. Gov. Dole advocates the floating of a temporary loan, a policy which appears to leave the main fiscal problem untouched.

It really looks as though a practicable system had been devised for keeping unfit immigrants from getting into the United States by being smuggled through Canada. The principal railroad and steamship companies of the Dominion have agreed to coöperate with the United States authorities in enforcng an inspection at the Canadian port of arrival

THE PATHFINDER.

The Republican organs cannot keep their minds off Mr. Bryan's speech; and we, too, recur to it, to whom it gave no uneasiness though we foresaw its withering effect on the third-party movement. Political progress, no more than human progress in general, moves in straight lines, and the reformer's ends are often, perhaps oftenest, reached by ways and instrumentalities not comprehended in his programme. The Anti-Imperialist has scored a triumph already in dictating a Presidential acceptance exclusively upon his own ground. The candidate may be insincere, may be simply cunning, but he has mastered the grammar of reform, and his exposition of genuine American principles—call them Hoar's, call them Boutwell's, or Schurz's, or Chapman's—has not only surpassed his models, but has perforce obtained universal consideration. Seldom indeed is it that a Presidential candidate furnishes the best campaign document in his own behalf, and takes the lead in the higher education of the citizen voter of all parties. Mr. Bryan has opened school with a lesson in fundamental republican morality, and prefaced the exercises with appropriate readings from the Republican scriptures. One has but to compare this with the wildfire of 'Coin's Financial School' four years ago, to perceive how great an advance has been made in the Democratic canvass in reason if not in principle.

No one can deny that we owe this advance to Mr. Bryan's initiative, to the same will-power that imposed the folly of 16 to 1 on the Kansas City Convention—but let him alone to know on which plank to trust his full weight. This elephantine sense, however, is not uncommon. Other candidates, Cleveland included, have been obliged to shut their eyes on the shameful parts of a platform which they nominally accepted as sound in its entirety, and to select those which they could defend on the stump and promise to maintain if elected. Mr. Bryan's distinction consists, not merely in selection, but in a specific pledge of maintenance which he, and he alone, can carry into effect. The Democratic party in convention on July 4 committed themselves to this attitude respecting our Eastern possessions:

> "We condemn and denounce the Philippine policy of the present Administration. . . . We favor an immediate declaration of the nation's purpose to give the Filipinos, first, a stable form of government; second, independence; and, third, protection from outside interference, such as has been given for nearly a century to the republics of Central and South America."

This is clear and unequivocal, but it is weak in merely "favoring," and it makes no promise of consistent party action. In other words, in this particular, *the platform resembles platforms in general—they are supposed to be self-executing, like curses and imprecations.* The authors of them are anonymous, the personnel of our huge conventions is incognizable and unrememberable, there is no party executive committee responsible for the drafting and introduction of the measures demanded. Hence the hollowness and emptiness of these declarations, and the contempt into which they have fallen. In the present case, the framers of the Kansas City platform could not refer to antecedent party conduct conformable to the resolution just quoted. It was one of the disingenuous features of Bryan's speech that he omitted all notice of Democratic joint responsibility for Congressional abdication in the matter of a colonial policy. There was no coherent opposition to the Administration on this subject, no shibboleth, no test. The drifting which suited the President and the Jingoes was tolerated by Democrats and Republicans alike, and McKinley found plenty of positive support in both houses from his natural opponents. There was no reason to suppose that the Kansas City plank had in it any compelling power for Senator Morgan, for example, or for the rank and file.

Mr. Bryan has changed all that. He declares that, if elected, he will prove his sincerity in treating Imperialism as the paramount issue by summoning Congress in special session. Congress must assemble. It may again abdicate its function: Democratic members may refuse to obey their chief; Republican anti-imperial partisans like Senator Hoar may refuse to coöperate with a Democratic Executive. Nevertheless, the issue will have been made up in sight of all the people, and Mr. Bryan, if thwarted, will still retain all the powers as Commander-in-Chief which McKinley has exercised from the moment he made war on Aguinaldo. More than that, he will have set an imperishable example to all succeeding candidates for the Presidency who wish to advertise themselves as men, and not plastic doughfaces under party or Congressional pressure. Nor would the example be less honorable for not being altogether the first of its kind. Seven years ago this month Mr. Cleveland convened Congress in extra session to repeal the Sherman Silver-Coinage Act, and succeeded, if by dint of some sorry bargaining. Mr. Bryan's originality lies in staking his election on a similar procedure, and at the very beginning of the Presidential conflict.

Should the battle rage more and more about the issue defined by Mr. Bryan at Indianapolis, to the exclusion of all other issues, real or factitious, Senator Hoar himself could hardly fail to applaud the strength of a leader who marshalled his forces to victory in behalf of the right of mankind to self-government. It would be the Cleveland miracle over again as regards persons; and as regards the party, it would demonstrate anew the fact that while the Republican party has not shown since 1876 the power of self-regeneration, the Democratic—with all its base residuum, with all its Tammany thieves and ruffians masquerading as a political organization—has that power in reserve. It might also appear that Mr. Bryan's demagogic capacity, joined to his persuasive rhetoric, would serve him in winning the people to his side in dealing with a refractory Congress—an art for which Mr. Cleveland was slenderly equipped. Be this as it may. For the moment it is our duty to praise an act of courage and of high innovation, attended by admirable words which, had they been uttered *in vacuo*—that is, by a man quite unknown, or unsuspected of duplicity—would everywhere have been recognized as heralding a renaissance of public virtue and loyalty to national ideals.

GENERAL APATHY.

The politicians may disagree on other topics, but on one subject they appear to be harmonious; they all deplore the apathy which prevails among the voters. The Republicans say that there is no doubt of McKinley's election if the Republican voters will take some interest in it. Unfortunately, there appears to be no means available for arousing their interest. Every one knew months, if not years, before the Convention that McKinley was to be renominated, and the same was true of Bryan's nomination. The interest at Philadelphia was confined to the unexpected episode of the nomination of Mr. Roosevelt for Vice-President; and at Kansas City there was a similar excitement over Mr. David B. Hill. But the popularity of Rooseveltism has waned almost as much as that of McKinleyism; and Bryanism has become tiresome, even to Bryanites. The Democratic politicians find nearly as much trouble with apathy as the Republicans, although they do not talk so much about it. They are tired of Bryan themselves; and the public has at least had abundant opportunity to satiate its curiosity about him during the last four years.

Emerson said that in order to understand any crime, he had only to look into his own heart; and the explanation of general apathy may be found by every individual who feels apathetic. The general comfort which now prevails is itself favorable to general apathy in politics. There is no large class suffering from poverty, as was the case in 1896. The farmers have been faring well, and are not troubled by their mortgages; the laboring classes are getting steady work and good wages. The masses of the community are really too busy at present to give much time to politics. The clergy always complain of the lack of spiritual fervor in times of prosperity; and the same influences affect political life. In 1896 half the people were embittered père, even the amateur performances of Jules de Goncourt. I have never seen anywhere such a representative showing of the wood-engravings of the first half of the century. There are prints from almost all the illustrated books that had a great vogue from (putting it roughly) 1830 to 1850 or 1860, and are now sought after by the collector. The illustrators are chiefly the same men who made those endless numbers of lithographs—Lami, Monnier, the Johannots, the Devérias, Gigoux, also Jacque, Meissonier, and, indeed, too many for anything like a complete list to be given here. The engravers were the men who developed wood-engraving in France, most of them having learned their craft from Bewick or his pupils—Best, Leloir, Andrew, Brévière, Laveille. The great book of those days, the prize of the modern collector, is the 'Contes Rêmois,' with illustrations by Meissonier, engraved by Lavoignat, and, fortunately, a set of proofs has been lent by M. Lepère, who, with Baude and Léveillé, bring the history of wood-engraving well down to 1889.

But, long before this, photography had been the cause of a radical change in the conditions of illustration. It had given the illustrator a freedom never hitherto enjoyed. He, more than all other artists, had been restrained by technical limitations, far more so than the painter, who is held within bounds by his frame, or the sculptor, whose imagination is chained to his bit of marble. The illustrator, provided he was the master of his craft, could now make his drawing as large as he chose, and in whatever manner best pleased him, and it was photographed on to a block of the required proportions for the wood-engraver, or of metal for the photo-engraver. There is no question that this freedom was a new incentive to the art. Many artists who had hitherto always held aloof were induced to illustrate, while the illustrator of experience was able to experiment and strike out fresh paths for himself. As many new departures followed in black-and-white as in painting. The illustrator, too, led revolts and inaugurated improvements. Then came what the enthusiasts called the revival of book decoration, and in a wilderness of mannerisms and affectations was found occasional evidence of originality, occasional expression of very distinct personality. Increased activity among illustrators gave a corresponding stimulus to the art, or science, of reproduction. New and more ingenious methods were evolved, until the developments and changes of the last twenty years are almost beyond belief. But of this activity, of this growth, this never-ceasing increase in the popularity of the art, what recognition is there in the Grand Palais des Beaux-Arts? Practically none. In section after section, French and foreign, drawings and prints alike are hidden in dark corners or banished to blazing balconies. Where the painter may cover a few feet with his one canvas, the illustrator is allowed but a few inches for his drawing. Ambitious painters, nowadays, work on a colossal scale simply because they fear that, if they do not, they must be overlooked in an exhibition. What chance is there, then, for the illustrator to attract attention, when, anyway, for his work to be fairly represented, he should show not one, but as many drawings as were made to illustrate a certain article or book? And this custom of reserving for black-and-white the worst and most insignificant places would convince many people, who really care more for it than any other form of art, of its comparative insignificance. It seems almost as if the painters were jealous of the illustrator's greater success and popularity.

In the French Section, where there is more space, matters are not quite so bad, and yet bad enough. The one long gallery is not large enough, and the result is the unpleasant overcrowding that comes from a series of alcoves on either side and screens running down the centre. Little fault need be found with the collection of etchings, lithographs, and wood-engravings. No new etcher, within the last decade, has arisen to take the place of Félix Buhot, but there are the prints of Louis Legrand, Renouard, Lepère, Lunois, and all the men now at work, with the unexpected exception of Helleu, of whom I could find no trace; and also the clever and amusing color experiments of Raffaëlli, Jeanniot, and too many more to name. All the lithographers whose designs have been adding to the gayety of nations in *L'Estampe Originale*, and in the two Salons year after year—Dillon, Lunois, Carrière, Chéret—are here in endless array. And the wood-engravings and woodcuts, original, reproductive, and in color, by Lepère, Baude, Léveillé, Henri Rivière, are no less conspicuous. The original drawings of the most distinguished or popular French illustrators are, however, not so easy to discover. In vain I searched the catalogue and the gallery for the most prominent of all, Forain, Caran d'Ache, Steinlen, though they do appear in the French Section of Publishing and Printing, a mile away. Nor is it only that many are missing. Others, like Boutet-de-Monvel, have unaccountably refrained from sending their finest work; or, like Louis Legrand, Renouard, Vogel, are so scattered, here, there, and everywhere, that an estimate of contemporary illustration in France, as a whole, is out of the question.

If there is any country in which modern illustration is generally supposed to have made the most striking advance, it is America. But the foreigner must wonder why this should be when he reaches the American Section. One short stretch of wall on the balcony, and a screen in the forgotten room below, are considered sufficient for the representation of the arts of drawing, etching, lithography, wood-engraving, and architecture in the United States. Even the miniatures share the already too restricted space. I admit these are unusually good examples of the art to-day, when, in England, a miniature is little more than a touched-up photograph on ivory. It is long since I have seen work as delicate and charming as Mrs. Fuller's, and as personal, in a way, though there may be no mistaking the source of her inspiration. But the merit of the miniatures is no excuse for their encroaching upon the absurdly limited space nominally devoted to black-and-white. Of the quality of the prints and drawings there can be no complaint; it is a question, altogether, of quantity. In etching, Mr. Whistler has a number of his masterly prints, the greatest surely since Rembrandt's, and Mr. Pennell, a series of aquatints, and that is all. In lithography, one print by Mr. Whistler exhausts, as far as can be seen, the efforts of lithographers in America. In wood-engraving, there are examples of Mr. Cole, Mr. Wolf, Mr. Davidson, Mr. Kingsley, Mr. Johnson, and, according to the catalogue, Mr. Kruell, whose prints, however, to my regret, did not appear upon the walls. But the original drawings are few, and these few are hung to anything but advantage. Mr. Pyle's one design, in oils, is lost among the paintings, though why it should be there might be hard to explain. Blum and Remington are absent, while Abbey, Pennell, Frost, Gibson, Clark, MacCarter have either been allowed to send such a small number of drawings, or are placed so badly, that their work does not tell as it should. This is the more provoking because other countries, with less to show, have, by building in their portions of the balcony, gained in hanging space, and, therefore, have been able to make more of a display.

In the British section, one is struck principally with the omissions. All the things one, in reason, expected to find, have been left out. In England, if anywhere, originated the modern so-called revival of book-decoration. But though the Kelmscott Chaucer has been thought worthy of a case of honor in the publishers' section, not one of Burne-Jones's designs for it is here. Ricketts and Shannon, disciples of Morris, have nothing. Anning Bell has nothing. The Birmingham School have nothing, for Mr. Gaskins's drawings, decorating the walls of a bedroom in the English pavilion, hardly seem to form part of a black-and-white exhibition. Walter Crane is the one representative of the decorative group. Again, Phil May is now the leading English comic draughtsman, and deservedly so, but he, too, has nothing. Sambourne and Raven-Hill are the living artists who, with Du Maurier and Keene, uphold the traditions of *Punch*. Of the younger men, Greiffenhagen, Hartrick, and Sullivan have nothing; Nicholson alone is admitted, and that rather grudgingly, for his color prints are well above the line. To all appearances, England is without lithographers, though Shannon's lithographs have a world-wide reputation. And, if a half-dozen of the best-known etchers are included—Haden, Short, Watson, Hall, Cameron, Holroyd—where, one cannot but ask, are William Strang and Edgar Wilson?

It is the same story in the German and Austrian sections. A few odd drawings, lithographs, and etchings lie in portfolios or are hung where it is almost impossible to see them, in the German balcony. But Menzel, the greatest illustrator of all, is not an exhibitor, and you must go to the German pavilion for Sattler—or so I believe; he is carefully protected in a locked apartment to which I was not admitted—and also the younger men, Unger, Fischer, and the group who work for *Jugend*, and whose gay and daring designs are made by Hirth, the Munich publisher, the feature of his exhibit. For Austrian illustrations, also, you must leave the Grand Palais and wander to the Rue des Nations, and then, even in the Austrian pavilion, there is but one illustrator, Mucha, seldom worthy of his fame at home, but, fortunately, in this series, illustrating the "Our Father" so much better than usual that it would be doubly interesting could he but appear side by side with the illustrators of the world.

The other sections make a still scantier showing. It is the distinction of Switzerland to boast one of the most distinguished and individual draughtsmen and one of the most distinguished and individual wood-engravers jugation, conquest, or territorial partition. "The United States," said Secretary Hay, "is opposed to the partition of China." Our object was the reëstablishment of the *status quo*, and not the erection of a new or dismembered China on the ruins of the old one.

This declaration of policy, at once frank, dignified, and palpably unselfish, unquestionably did more than anything else to clear the air and bring the Powers to agreement as to the military steps to be taken. A second declaration four weeks later, called out by Li Hung Chang's suggestion that the Ministers be sent under escort to Tientsin, was no less explicit, and, as things have turned out, equally effective. The United States, it was declared, could enter into no negotiations so long as free and unrestricted communication with the American Minister at Pekin was denied. As an indispensable prerequisite to negotiations, the attacks upon the legations must cease, communication must be restored, and order must be secured; and until these conditions, demanded not as favors, but of right, were fully met, military operations would continue. It was at once evident, of course, that this plain statement virtually threw down the gauntlet to China, and made possible any number of startling moves. China might treat the reply as equivalent to an ultimatum, and itself declare war. It might murder the foreigners. It might sow dissension among the allies, and, perhaps, land the United States in isolation and defeat. Nothing can be clearer now, however, than that Secretary Hay's announcement was exactly what the Chinese Government needed to bring it to its senses and induce it to stay its hand, and that the opposition to the advance of the international army was weakened, from that time on, by the certain knowledge that the allies were not to be seduced by fair words or intimidated by covert threats.

The success which has crowned American diplomacy in this matter is so far a matter of national achievement that no personal or party feeling ought to color the recognition of it. Out of a tangled and dangerous situation, full of pitfalls and snares, into which the United States was plunged with scarcely a word of warning, this country emerges with dignity and great honor. For the time being, no doubt, the treatment of the Chinese difficulty has appreciably enhanced the prestige of the Administration. The greater difficulties, to be sure, are still before us. What may follow the occupation of Pekin, no one can tell. Undoubtedly, the question of the partition of China will yet be very seriously discussed, but the troubles of the Administration with our possessions in the Philippines seem not likely to tempt President McKinley or his advisers to seek more territory in that part of the world. o long as the United States maintains a body of troops in China, however, it has itself marked out its own course of action, and has the satisfaction of knowing that its course has had, up to the present time, the assent and coöperation of the Powers. It is earnestly to be hoped that nothing may occur to change our present policy, or turn us from the path which thus far has led to such conspicuous and gratifying success.

THE PARIS EXPOSITION.—VII.

THE BLACK-AND-WHITE.

LONDON, July, 1900.

The disappointment of the exhibitions is the black-and-white. It is true there is much of genuine interest, but it is found chiefly in the Centennial Collections, while the good work in the Decennial Sections is so scattered that it fails to produce any effect whatever. Curiously, illustration, the art of all others whose complete development belongs to the nineteenth century, is always the least well represented on these occasions. In 1889, at Paris, a few illustrators were brought before the whole world for the first time—Vierge, Charles Keene, Abbey. In 1893, at Chicago, thanks chiefly to the publishers of the large magazines, some idea was given of the excellence and distinction of American illustration. But, even at Chicago, black-and-white had not a section apart; it was overshadowed, as it ever has been, by painting, and the only hope was that the Exhibition of 1900 would, at last, do it the justice and insure it the prominence it deserves.

Paris has failed to fulfil this expectation, and you begin to understand why when you examine the constitution of the various Committees of Selection. On the American Committee, there were at least two artists who made their reputation as illustrators, but, too often, the work of selection seems to have been left to men who have no practical interest in illustration, and, what is worse, make no pretence of having any. It may be the fault of their indifference, it may be the result of some traditional system of classification in France, but it is discouraging at the outset to find drawing classed with painting, wood-engraving in another division with etching and lithography, and modern methods of reproduction omitted altogether. There is no attempt to group the arts of book-illustration together, or to have them judged separately by a jury of experts. Only here and there, in the Publishers' Department, is there any adequate suggestion of the work that is being done at the present time in black-and-white. As for an adequate representation, you might think it was out of the question until illustration, as a vital, living form of art, shall belong to the past. For the inconsistent part of it is, once an art does belong to the past, its value is appreciated; once an artist is dead, no matter in what medium he worked, he becomes a classic, to be treated with all honor. The retrospective or Centennial Collection of French drawings and prints is complete and delightful, and would be a most valuable introduction to the art of illustration as practised to-day, were the existence of that art only as much as recognized. The history of the century is one of continual growth, and the methods of the earlier decades, to be understood, should be considered in relation to the more modern work. The last hundred years have seen the invention of wood-engraving and lithography, the change from copper to steel in metal-engraving for the illustration of books, an entire revolution in reproduction by photography—in a word, they have seen the almost phenomenal popularization of illustration. It is one long story of change and development.

In the early part of the century, when there was no photography, if the artist worked for the metal-engraver, he made his design in an elaborate form, it was copied on the plate, and the original was spared. It was the same when he worked for the reproductive lithographer. If he made the lithograph himself, his prints were but the multiplication of his drawing. On the other hand, if he drew for the wood-engraver, it was on the block, and his work disappeared in the engraving; but the engravers of that period were themselves artists. These different methods are admirably recorded in a fine series of drawings and prints.

It begins with the classical, rather pompous and ponderous designs of David, Gros, Guérin, Girodet, Gérard, really studies for their pictures, and not illustrations at all. Then came the vigorous sketches, so many protests of independence, by Géricault, Delacroix—his caricatures will be a surprise to most people—Decamps (all these as striking as their paintings in the galleries down stairs), and a marvellous, probably unrivalled collection by Ingres, portraits in pencil, so beautiful, so refined, so learned, so perfect in draughtsmanship, they make one wish he had never used a brush, and attempted to draw in the color that meant so little to him. Still more numerous are the notes and sketches and more carefully finished designs by the men whose profession was illustration—Monnier, Grandville, Lami, Devéria, Gavarni, Daumier—the greater number in pen-and-ink strengthened by flat washes of color, the effective early method that might better be revived than the primitive naïvetés the modern artist prefers to borrow from a more remote past. There are also the designs of another group of painters who either illustrated very occasionally, or not at all—Paul Huet, Corot, and the Barbizonians, Legros; among them, it is amusing to find Victor Hugo in two romantic compositions, as magnificently exaggerated as his descriptions in 'Notre Dame,' but impressive in their extravagant fashion.

The series of lithographs, naturally, is not as exhaustive as in the great show of lithography in 1895, but it covers the ground fairly well. It opens with the inevitable "Cossack" by Baron Lejeune, and some of the initial experiments by Girodet, Denon, Horace Vernet. It includes the most famous of the few masterpieces by Géricault, Delacroix, Isabey, and many of the most distinguished and, in their day, notorious prints by the artists who won for lithography its astonishing popularity—Charlet, Grandville, Monnier, Lami, Devéria, Gavarni, Raffet, Gigoux, Daumier. It ends only with the performances of Manet, Hervier, Fantin, and the little group who revived lithography as an art, when it had lost its supremacy as a method of popular illustration.

But it is impossible to describe in detail a collection that would require an entire article to itself; and this is as true of the etchings, which are mainly reproductive, with here and there the original designs of Méryon, Lalanne, Bracquemond, Millet, Leened with great danger. And in particular they should distinctly take the ground that Paris is a place where the joy of student life, as the healthy young American understands it, cannot be had.

In saying this, one need not commit himself to any judgment as to the precise statistics of vice in one country or another. What is certain is that nowhere else is it so open and blatant and all-pervading as in Paris. To show that I do not exaggerate, that to ignore this matter in the face of what everybody knows is a piece of pure silliness, I append a passage from a letter on Paris taken from a yesterday's daily newspaper; it is written (the article is signed) by a good observer and a man of honest speech, who is merely engaged in giving his readers a clear impression of what Paris is like. Let those wise and good men who are urging on a movement to deflect young men from the German universities and to send them to the Paris schools, consider carefully within themselves if they are doing well:

> "It is to get sensations, to study the psychology of pleasure, to know what is meant by 'la vie de Bohême,' that all the world goes to Paris. It is to her we take our materialism, our appetite for good dinners, our love of the footlights, our extravagance, all the catalogue of our vices, and she does her best to satisfy our expectations. Above all, she creates about her an atmosphere which makes the puritanical person feel a strangely easy conscience. She has known many who came to pray remain to scoff at the sad-faced moralities. The metamorphoses that take place in her visitors might be set down as one of the sights of Paris."

C. L. F.

NEW YORK, August 11, 1900.

ON TRANSLATING THE CIVIL LAW.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have read with interest the review of Mr. Walton's 'Civil Law of Spain and Mexico' which appeared in your columns of the 2d of August. With that part of the review which deals with the introduction I am not concerned; but as a student of the Roman, and a practitioner of the civil law as it prevails in Louisiana, I am much concerned at some of the criticism indulged upon the method pursued in rendering the Spanish code. This criticism appears to me not only unjust to the translator, but pregnant with sanction of a most dangerous method of dealing with the civil law. We are now in extensive contact with that system, and it would appear to behoove us to bring into it as little change as possible unless we have a better substitute to offer. Have we? Your reviewer appears to assume that we have. He even ventures to offer substitutes of his own for certain technical terms, many so consecrated by the usage and tradition of centuries as to have attained to an almost mysterious precision. Speaking of Mr. Walton's translation, it is said:

> "It does not fail for lack of pains, but for lack of skill. Unless the reader knows Spanish, he will find much of it wholly unmeaning because the translator prefers to render Spanish words into their nearest phonetic equivalent in English, where an apt selection, a circumlocution, or the retention of an idiom incapable of exact translation would make the sense clear. For instance," etc.

The foregoing contains a wholly unwarranted assumption, viz., that much of Mr. *Walton's translation is meaningless to any reader who happens to be ignorant of Spanish, solely because of such ignorance.* But it is not ignorance of the Spanish language that makes the translation meaningless, but of the Roman law. I am safe in saying that no Louisiana lawyer of education would fail to grasp instantly the precise import of the Spanish terms, or to assert the entire propriety of Mr. Walton's English equivalents. To do the first, he would be in no need of Spanish. He would see that the Spanish words come directly from the Corpus Juris, and that in form they have but slightly suffered from the law of consonantal change, and in substance not at all. If the propriety of the English equivalents was questioned, he would point out, for example, that the word *faculdades* is but the *facultates* (*facultas*) so common in Roman jurisprudence; that the French Code Civil and its commentators frequently use the word *faculté*, and that the Code of Louisiana follows them both in the adjective *facultative*.

In the term *donationes inter vivos* he would recognize leading titles of the Institutes of Justinian, the Code of France, the Code of Louisiana, and of innumerable commentaries on all three. If the word *gift* was tendered him as a substitute, he would at once point out that that word in English imports only a gratuitous disposition of property; while the technical word *donation* is generic in the civil law, and comprises dispositions which are both gratuitous and non-gratuitous. For example, he might refer to article 1,523 of the Civil Code of Louisiana, which defines three kinds of donations *inter vivos*, viz., gratuitous, remunerative, and onerous. He would see as little reason for abandoning the term donation "having an onerous cause," and adopting in lieu thereof "gift for valuable consideration." He would recall the same long and exact tradition which fortifies his use of the word "faculty," and he would assert, with as much joy as is permitted to a lawyer, that a valuable consideration is not, and never was, necessary to support a civil-law contract; and that he is glad to have forgotten the five differing historical theories of the doctrine, taught at Harvard and elsewhere. If the abandonment of the term "institution of heir" were demanded of him, and the adoption, instead, of the term "bestowal or creation of heirship," his shudder would be uncontrollable. If to the injury of this demand is added the insult of the query, What sense do the words "institution of heir" convey? he would hold himself entitled to wrath. For of all the ancient and sacred formulas of the Roman law, there is none so ancient and sacred as that contained in the words *Instituo heredem*—the *caput testamenti* says Justinian—the words of nomination, without which every solemn testament must fail. The figure of the *heres institutus*, the instituted heir, gladdened the eyes of an expectant bar ages before Bracton borrowed wholesale from Rome the materials for the first crude legal treatise known to his half-savage island; and to-day he walks the soil of Louisiana and all the countries of Europe under his inherited name. Surely it would be a hardship to compel so large a part of the world to speak of his nomination as a "bestowal or creation of heirship" and of him as a "bestowed" or "created heir." Napoleon's commission gave him his due when it headed the third section of the third book of the Civil Code with the words "Institution d'Héritier," and Mr. Livingston, called by Sir Henry Maine the first legal genius of the age, robbed him not in the Code of Louisiana (Arts. 1,495-1,499.)

The crowning injury would be wrought by bidding any Civilian to speak of "heirs defined or limited by statute, *i. e.*, disposition to certain blood relations if living, somewhat analogous to the New York restriction on charitable bequests by a man of family," instead of "forced heirs," when he wished to designate a person entitled to the birthright portion. He would recall at once the *sui et necessarii heredes*—the necessary heirs of the Roman law; and neither the *herederos forzosos* of the Spanish, nor the *forced heirs* of the Code of Louisiana, would in the least perplex him. Indeed, no severer criticism of the method Mr. Walton is blamed for not pursuing can be found than that which lies on the surface of the examples given of translations that might have been made by him. Thus the abandonment of the single word *forced* drives the reviewer to a periphrasis of thirty words, and one that wholly fails to convey the fundamental legal conception. Surely the price demanded is heavy and not to be slightly paid.

The point I wish to make in this connection is one made long ago by Sir Henry Maine in a paper published in the Cambridge Essays for 1856, entitled, "Roman Law and Legal Education." He contrasted the precision and rigorous consistency of terminology which pervades the Roman law and its derived systems, with the looseness of terminology of the English law. He first adverts to the poverty of our legal vocabulary. Of this the slender contributions of English law to the language of English speculation is adduced as proof; and against these slender contributions is set over the immense debt owed to the Roman lawyers by the language of European speculation in all branches. One of the prime causes assigned for the looseness of our legal vocabulary is the attempt so often made to eke out its deficiencies by an ignorant borrowing from the vast storehouse of the Roman law. The material thus introduced, in the hands of lawyers and judges profoundly ignorant of its weight of exquisite accuracy, has become positively baneful, when, in the hands of a less insular bar and bench, it might have been the means of redeeming our jurisprudence from the formless shape we all know it to be in.

It has been my lot from time to time to see the courts of Louisiana put, in the rightful places of Paul and Papinian, the jurists annually announced by the publishing houses of Boston, Minneapolis, and Chicago; and the result has been neither beneficent nor harmonious. If I have deprecated with over-much fervor a review which appears to sanction a like preference as a matter of course, the great names under whose shadow we practise our profession in Louisiana, and our jealousy not only for the continued, but for the further, recognition of their bearers as the rightful sovereigns of the domain of jurisprudence, will, I am sure, secure me indulgence.—Respectfully,

CHAS. P. COCKE.

NEW ORLEANS, August 8, 1900.

[Mr. Cocke is, of course, influenced by local sanction, nearly a century old, for the usage of English words in a Latin sense that conveys no meaning to a stranger. Granting that certain terms of the civil law are untranslatable, is it not better to retain them in the Spanish or Latin, rather than render them in an English that (save through accepted usage) is at once uncouth and meaningless? This alternative we ourselves suggested. We admire Mr. Cocke's veneration for the law he lives under, and hope that something of his spirit will animate the revisers about to lay their hands on the civil law in Porto Rico. Were the bar in the common-law States affected by a like sentiment, we should have much less slovenly law-making.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

Herbert S. Stone & Co. will publish during the autumn 'The Life of Edward FitzGerald,' by John Glyde; 'The Love of an Uncrowned Queen [Sophie Dorothea, Consort of George I.],' by W. H. Wilkins, M.A.; 'Famous Trials of the Century,' by J. B. Atlay, M.A.; 'Chapters from Illinois History,' by Edward G. Mason; 'Wooings and Weddings in Many Lands,' by Louise Jordan Miln; 'Between the Andes and the Ocean,' a South American journey southward, by William Eleroy Curtis; 'More Fables,' by George Ade, author of 'Fables in Slang'; and 'The Fortune of a Day,' by Grace Ellery Channing-Stetson.

Mr. Fisher Unwin's autumn announcements include 'The Unpublished and Uncollected Poems of William Cowper,' edited by Thomas Wright; 'Critical Studies,' personal and abstract, by Ouida; 'The Speaker's Chair,' by Edward Lummis; 'The Jew in London,' by C. Russell and H. S. Lewis; 'A Review of Irish History in relation to the Social Development of Ireland,' by John P. Gannon; 'A History of the Isle of Man,' by A. W. Moore, Speaker of the House of Keys; 'The Canadian Contingent,' Canada's work in the cause of the Empire, by W. Sanford Evans; 'Among the Berbers of Algeria,' by Anthony Wilkin; 'In the Ice-World of Himalaya,' by Fanny Bullock Workman and William Hunter Workman; 'The Paris Salon of 1900,' 100 choice examples; and 'In Birdland with Field-Glass and Camera,' by Oliver G. Pike.

The Lothrop Publishing Co., Boston, have in press for immediate issue 'China's Open Door,' by Rounsevelle Wildman, United States Consul-General at Hong Kong.

Truslove, Hanson & Comba have nearly ready the seventh edition—virtually a new product—of 'The Temperance Problem and Social Problem,' by Joseph Rowntree and Arthur Sherwell.

Volumes xvi. and xvii. in the Scribners' uniform edition of Mr. Frank R. Stockton's novels and stories are also numbered ii. and iii. of the (short) "Stories." The latter has a very good portrait of the author, who, in "My Terminal Moraine," turned an honest penny out of the site of his actual New Jersey home, if not exactly in the way his humor represents when figuring the discovery of a glacier ice mine.

In the fourth volume of their series of "The World's Orators," under the editorship of Dr. Guy Carleton Lee, assisted by Dr. Joseph Cullen Ayer, Messrs. G. P. Putnam's Sons have gathered sermons by seventeen preachers of the long period between Wycliff and Massillon. Recognizing the limitations imposed on them in most instances by translation, by the brevity of the excerpts, and by an evident desire to avoid selections polemic in tone, it may be said that the editors have had decided success in presenting characteristic examples of the oratory of men illustrative of as various tendencies as Savonarola, Luther, Calvin, Knox, Latimer, Bossuet, Fénelon, and Vieyra. The prominence given to the great French preachers of the age of Louis XIV. is doubtless deserved by their oratorical eminence, and adds materially to the interest of the compilation; but it is not surprising that the editors feel constrained to say that the sub-title of the volume, "Orators of the Reformation Era," is to be "construed in its broadest meaning," and to explain the inclusion of the eminent Frenchmen as "justified by the arrangement of the remainder of the series." The presswork and portraits are admirably executed.

Among the latest publications issued by Cornell University (Macmillan) are an 'Index to the Memorabilia of Xenophon,' the joint work of Catharine Mary Gloth and Mary Frances Kellogg, and 'A Study of the Greek Pæan,' by Arthur Fairbanks, Ph.D. The latter we shall consider hereafter. The Index is one of those patient labors of pure scholarship which can hardly receive due acknowledgment; it owes its existence partly to the encouragement and the example of Dr. Forman. We have only one suggestion to make. Under ἄν, μή, ὅπως, and similar words, much valuable information is conveyed by simply grouping the references under certain heads. Perhaps we might plead for a slight extension of this method, which would note under certain verbs the construction or the cases by which they are followed. This would hardly add to the bulk of the volume, nor to the toil of compiling, while it would greatly assist the student of style and usage.

The special field of the John Crerar Library of Chicago was determined by agreement with the Public Library and the Newberry Library, as well as by the restrictions of the founder. It is defined as "that of the natural, the physical, and the social sciences, with their applications." The Library has a complete catalogue printed on cards, copies of which are to be found in the libraries just named, as well as at other institutions even as remote as the University of Champaign, Ill. The contents of its reading-room, which is used by the public without formality, have just been set forth in a list bearing date of January, 1900, a handsome large octavo volume, very open in its typography, and remarkable for the use of electrotype titles. Noticeable, also, is the class arrangement, which is logical and not alphabetical by author or subject; things which belong together being grouped. An index chiefly of authors, but also of collective titles, anonymous, and some other, is the clue to individual works. The List is put forward tentatively for criticism as to fulness. As the compilers point out, its utility is by no means confined to the patrons of the Crerar Library.

One of the most valuable publications issued on the occasion of the semi-millennium of Gutenberg is Catalogue No. 24 of the house of Jacques Rosenthal of Munich, called 'Incunabula Typographica,' containing a description of 1,500 incunabula in the possession of this enterprising firm, covering the period from the invention of the art of printing to the year 1500 A.D. Although it is an elegantly printed octavo volume, with three colored plates and 80 illustrations in the text, the price is only 3 marks. The book will delight the heart and eye of the bibliophile and the student of literature. The collection represents the product of 400 printing establishments at fully 90 different localities; the city of Mainz, with the productions of Gutenberg, Fust, and Schoeffer, being in the lead. The chief publications of the German, Italian, French, and Dutch concerns of the period are all represented here, together with a number of the rare and costly "block books." There is an index of 32 pages.

China is the principal subject of the *National Geographic Magazine* (Washington) for August, the first article being an attempt to show the two main causes of the present situation. A civilization which is founded upon the right of a man to his life and his property, and upon the inviolability of a contract or promise, has come into intimate relations with a civilization which denies that these are rights. The other and possibly as significant a cause is the "sacred right of rebellion," distinctly taught by Confucius when a ruler "ceases to be a minister of God for good." The corruption and incompetency of their present rulers are known to every intelligent Chinaman, and it is probable that the Boxer rising, with its watchword of "China for the Chinese," was originally directed as much against the Mantchu dynasty as against foreigners. The difficulty of invasion and conquest is shown by a brief description of the physical features of the empire, and it is maintained that the hatred of foreigners is confined to the ruling classes, and is not shared by the people at large. Commander H. Webster, U.S.N., gives an interesting account of some of the manners and customs of the Chinese. Observations of their methods of doing things led him to the conviction that nearly all of these are the "results of long experience, a survival of the fittest in pretty nearly every branch of human needs and conveniences." Referring to the fact that even the lowest classes can read and write, he says "that their education comes largely through the steady and persistent use of the stray minutes of life. As soon as a piece of work is done, while waiting for a fresh job, or even standing in line, waiting his turn to deposit his package, bale, or cask, the coolie plays with a stick or bit of bamboo, writing a character over and over, or studies a few characters written on a bit of paper brought from a pocket." Prof. Simon Newcomb contributes some notes on the shadow bands observed during the late eclipse, and there is a brief sketch of the hydrographic work of the United States Geological Survey.

Mr. E. S. Grogan, in a communication to the London *Times*, says that the success of his journey from the Cape to Cairo was in part due to the fact that the Nile was lower than it had been for 150 years. "The consequent drying up of much of the marshland south of the Sobat junction alone rendered my overland route from Bohr to the Sobat possible." He estimates this region through which the river flows to be at least 10,000 square miles in extent, the most of it being covered by dense growths of juicy vegetation. The loss of water resulting from this is shown by the fact that the Nile, after receiving the enormous volumes brought down by its great western tributary, the Bahr el-Ghazal, is but little larger than it is when it leaves Lake Albert, five hundred miles nearer its source. Referring to the various plans for reclamation, as by planting willows and poplars, he says, "It is the utter impossibility of imagining, even from description, the magnitude of these swamps and the impenetrability of the vegetable barriers that makes these schemes appear feasible." The sudd formation he ascribes chiefly to a plant growing in the Victoria Nile with a head like a small cabbage and a tangle of root which descends to a depth of twelve to eighteen inches. "These plants become detached singly or in blocks from the main mass, by hippopotami, crocodiles, fish, or some other disturbing influence," and drift until stopped by some snag, lily, or shallow. Refuse of all sorts accumulates about them; "then comes the papyrus and dense reeds, and what was originally a stick or a water-lily has in a few months become a solid island on which the hippopotami can walk." From observations of the effect of the native fish weirs on this floating vegetation, he believes that piles driven into the river here and there would deepen the channel and prevent the accumulation of sudd barriers.

The excavations conducted by Dr. Bliss for the Palestine Exploration Fund continue to yield meagre and unsatisfactory results, to the great disappointment of archæologists and Bible scholars. In view of the astonishing wealth of inscriptions, constructions, statuary, pottery, etc., found by explorers, not only in Egypt and Babylonia, but also in Syria, Asia Minor, Crete, Greece, and, in fact, in almost every ancient country where the spade has been used in latter years, it was confidently expected that excavations in Palestine would yield important returns. Up to the present such has not been the case. We trust, however, that the Palestine Exploration Fund will persist in its search. Very few sites have yet been touched, and those, for the most part, not the most promising. It will bear repeating that a "School for Oriental Study and Research" is to be started in Jerusalem this October, on the same general plan as the archæological schools at Athens and Rome, which have done so much to increase our knowledge of Greek and Roman antiquities and literature, and to improve the instruction in Greek and Latin in our schools and colleges. The first director of this school, it is announced, will be Prof. C. C. Torrey of Yale. The chairman of the committee having the management of the school in charge is Prof J. H. Thayer of Harvard. More than twenty colleges, divinity schools, and universities in this country have become members by the subscription of $100, and the American Institute of Archæology has granted the new school a subvention of $500. This renders it possible to commence the work on a very modest scale. There is pressing need of further funds to establish the school on a secure basis, and equip it adequately for the important task it has undertaken.

Dr. Erich Adickes of Kiel, a young scholar already favorably known through his writings on Kant, contributes to the *Rundschau for August* a fascinating study of human nature under the title, *"Die Halben und die Ganzen: zwei Menschheitstypen."* The latter designation he used for those self-centred characters whose intellectual and moral strength renders them independent of the outward support of immutable beliefs and institutions; to whom all things without, all authorities and principles, are of relative worth only. The former name denotes those far more common characters who need a multitude of conditions, opinions, ideals, authorities to lean upon, to appeal to as a last and absolute resort. The contrast between these two types of the "relativists" and "absolutists," to be sure, rarely appears with perfect distinctness; neither does the writer deal with individual examples. He traces the two *tendencies* in all human relations—in social and married life, in national (patriotic) and political affairs, in science, art, philosophy, religion—and shows, not without originality, their influence in each of them.

The German National Association of Engineers have decided to publish on a grand scale a 'Technisches Woerterbuch,' and have invited the coöperation of specialists abroad. Promises to this effect have been requested from leading savants in France, England, and America.

The French authorities are seriously agitating the project of a restoration of the Papal Palace at Avignon, one of the most characteristic specimens of mediæval architecture. For about a century it has been used by the Government as a barracks, as a result of which the structure is in a deplorable condition. Many of its wonderful frescoes have been erased or covered with whitewash. The walls of the magnificent conclave hall are covered with crude sketches and inscriptions. The two papal chapels have been divided into several stories. The chapel of St. John, containing exceptionally fine mural paintings, is sadly in need of restoration. The frescoes, regarded as the work of Spinello (Aretino), which picture the Last Judgment and the Crucifixion, are practically lost to art. In 1859, Napoleon III. promised that the Government would give four million francs for this work of restoration, but the project failed. Since 1870, the citizens of Avignon have been memorializing the Government for this purpose; but the state and the city cannot agree as to the payment of two million francs which the new barracks would cost. It is estimated that the restoration of the building would cost about seven million. The Minister of War has decided upon an inquiry with a view to a settlement.

From the annual report of the Secretary for Mines and Water Supply of Victoria, it appears that the annual output of gold in that colony during 1899 was 854,500 ounces, and that the total production of Victoria up to the close of that year amounted to 63,539,205 ounces, valued at £254,156,820. Thus, of the 110,413,597 ounces, valued at £427,194,079, which the Australasian colonies have yielded from the first discovery to the close of last year, 60 per cent. has been produced by Victoria.

Many people seem unable to understand what an extensive business the forging of Shakspere documents, portraits, and signatures was in the early part of the last century. Forged Shakspere portraits and forged Shakspere signatures, therefore, continue to turn up from time to time with a distressing regularity. It is to be hoped that Zincke's well-known forgery, the Talma bellows portrait, which is on the market again and offered in a recent bookseller's catalogue at eighty-five guineas, will not find a lodgment in Chicago beside some of the recent alleged Shakspere signatures which have gone thither, or that, if it does tempt the Chicago millionaire, he will get an expert to look up its interesting history.

—In the double July quarterly issue of the Oxford English Dictionary (Henry Frowde) volume iv. runs abreast with volume v., Mr. Henry Bradley carrying on the torch from Gradely to Greement, and Dr. Murray from Inferable to Inpushing. Greek derivatives are rare in this tract of the letter G, but the ending -graph finds a place, and we are told that Telegraphist is more common in England than Telegrapher. Under -gram there is a hint of future editorial preference for Program over Programme. Telegram, though formed contrary to Greek analogy, proved too convenient to be disallowed. Proposed in 1852, its record date in literature is 1857. Many hybrids, like Cablegram, have been fashioned after it. The obsolete Gramm—'what is written,' 'a phrase'—cited solely from Nathaniel Ward's 'Simple Cobbler of Agawam' (1647), is an Americanism which was worth taking root, but it fell by the wayside, and perhaps the Ipswich author of the Massachusetts Body of Liberties was its only sower. Walter Savage Landor had no better luck with his Grandor—for Grandeur, as if to help Clio to a neat rhyme for his own name. Emerson fathers Grandiose in 1843; Mrs. Browning Grandpaternal in 1844, and Byron Grand-dad in 1819. The oldest forms in English for this human relationship are Grandame and Grandsire, which go back to the twelfth century, while Grandfather and Grandmother emerge only in the late fifteenth. Grandevity has been superseded by Longevity. Mr. Bradley's leading rubric is Great, which fills eighteen columns. Very interesting is the evolution of Grammar, which at first and until the seventeenth century connoted only Latin, and a Grammar-school a Latin school. The intransitive verb Graduate, by the way, to which some purists object, was used by Southey in 1808. The French adopted their verb *graver* from the Teutonic, then formed *engraver;* and this, taken over into English as Engrave, has all but driven out Grave.

—Dr. Murray finds *his* interesting suffix in -ing, which is peculiar to English in its gerundial use, though this was unknown to Old English and Middle English. "The gerund," we read, "still retains one feature of the verbal substantive, viz., that of admitting of a preceding possessive case or possessive pronoun, as in 'after John's behaving so strangely,' 'upon my readily granting it.' In the literary language this construction is regularly retained with a pronoun, and very generally with a single personal substantive; but, with names of things, and phraseological or involved denominations, the sign of the possessive began to be dropped already by 1600; . . . and, in current spoken English, the *'s* is commonly omitted with all nouns," as by Thackeray in 'Vanity Fair,' "I insist upon Miss Sharp appearing"—"where," adds Dr. Murray, " 'Miss Sharp's' would now sound pedantic or archaic." With the passing remark that this would not, in our opinion, so sound to an American ear, we note a disregarded function of the novelist in bringing to light colloquialisms which are carefully excluded from the cultivated style in almost all other branches of literary production. In this, novel-writers play the part of earthworms in dragging the subsoil to the surface. Scott was a very industrious earthworm with archaisms, which he sometimes misapplied, as when he used Ingle, 'a boy-favorite' (in bad sense), for 'chum.' So Bulwer-Lytton, in 1841, and Hall Caine half a century later, dependently or independently, converted Ingle, 'a fire on the hearth,' into 'an open fireplace.' Such an extension of meaning, however mistaken, is, of course, common enough. On a later page we find Inherit meaning 'to make heir' from 1304 to 1593 (Shakspere),yet in 1400 starts up the opposite meaning 'to receive as heir,' and in the end prevails. Thus, given time enough, Ingle may be extinguished by its own fireplace. Another instance is afforded by Inhabitable, which meant 'uninhabitable' from 1400 to 1742, whereas the upstart sense of 'inhabitable' reared its head in 1601, and the prefix *in-* finally went over altogether from the negative to the locative. Curious is the fate of Inhumane, which began with the sense of 'inhuman,' of which it presently adopted the form and stress. Later, Inhumane arose anew, but with a milder signification. The poets are the natural recorders of this transformation. Dr. Murray warns us off from Innuendo minus the second *n*. Of the cleft or split infinitive he has nothing to say objurgatively or otherwise, contenting himself with referring by way of the *Nation* to Dr. F. Hall's discussion of the usage in the *American Journal of Philology*, and with citing from the *Academy* an undated example from Byron, "To slowly trace." The intransitive use of the word Inform, in the sense of 'to report,' is marked obsolete. We have met with it in Quaker minutes of the latter part of the last century in New Jersey (Hardwick and Mendham Meeting), *e. g.*, 1797: "Women friends informed that Hannah Housel . . . has gone out in marriage with a man not a member of our Society, by the assistance of an hireling priest"; and have found it still in vogue in the same denomination in Pennsylvania within the present generation.

—We have before us two volumes of a new historical series, edited by Mr. Oliphant Smeaton, which is entitled "The World's Epoch-Makers" (Scribners). A publisher's announcement states that the desire is to "give a bird's-eye view of the origin and progress of the most prominent movements that have taken place in theology, philosophy, and the history of intellectual development from Buddha to the present day." This definition is extremely elastic, and the set should prove a long one. The two volumes of which we now notice the appearance are 'Luther and the German Reformation,' by Dr. Thomas M. Lindsay, and 'Cranmer and the Reformation in England,' by Mr. Arthur D. Innes. The latter book comes first in order of publication, but we shall observe the order which is dictated by relative importance of subject. Dr. Lindsay frankly approaches Luther with the intention of treating his career in a new way. "Although Luther's life has been written scores of times, it has always seemed to me that there is room for another—for one which shall be careful to set Luther in the environment of the common social life of his time. . . . To show what that life was, and to show Luther in it, would, it seems to me, bring him nearer us than has yet been done." Accordingly, he gives us much less of dogmatic theology than might be expected, and much more of the popular culture which existed in Germany at the close of the Middle Ages. In short, the book follows Janssen's method more nearly than that of the ordinary evangelical treatise which used to be written for English readers a generation ago. We welcome this change both as furnishing a new means of approach to an oft-discussed topic, and as better adapted to the tone of the series, which is comparative in scope. According to Dr. Lindsay's plan, a large part of the space is devoted to the different orders of society, peasants, burgesses, knights, and nobles, to the national character of the Lutheran revolt, to the effect of Luther's marriage on popular opinion concerning sacerdotal celibacy, to the superstitions which were prevalent in the sixteenth century, to Luther's educational views, and to the reformer's home life. He shows at all points familiarity with Luther's own works, whether theological or popular, and has formed his judgment at first hand, after examining the opinions of friend and foe from Cochlæus and Seckendorf to Döllinger and Köstlin. While the learning displayed in the volume is sound and the thought mature, we have noticed a number of small errors in statements of fact, in the spelling of proper names, and in the use of accents. Some of these may be fairly called misprints, and altogether they do not constitute a serious blemish. Dr. Lindsay sympathizes with Luther so strongly that he lays slight stress on his well-known faults of temper. He concludes with a passage from Döllinger: "Even those Germans who abhor him most as the powerful heretic and the seducer of the nation cannot escape; they must discourse with his words, they must think with his thoughts." A good chronological summary and a carefully selected bibliography are added to the text of the volume.

—Mr. Innes's volume on Cranmer is considerably shorter than Dr. Lindsay's 'Luther,' from which it also differs in style and purpose. It shows a greater feeling for picturesqueness, and it is closely confined to the subject of religious politics. Mr. Innes likens the English Reformation to the Revolution of 1688. No one questions the importance of either, and yet neither can display a hero. Here the real subject is the movement, not the man, despite the title of the series. "The purpose of this volume is not so much to present a biography of Cranmer as to give a sketch of the ecclesiastical period through which he remains a consistently prominent figure; a period during which he, more than any other single individual, left his personal impress upon a national institution." The three great points in any life of Cranmer which aims at exceeding the compass of a personal biography are, first, the archbishop's policy towards Church and State in the reigns of Henry VIII., Edward VI., and Mary; secondly, the lasting seal which he impressed upon the Church of England; and thirdly, the conflicting views of his public character which have been formed by Romanists, Anglicans of the High Church party, and Evangelicals of all classes. Mr. Innes keeps each of these matters before him in his accurate and thoughtful essay. One of the most striking opinions which he advances is that Cranmer, in deserting warm friends like Anne Boleyn and Thomas Cromwell, was not acting from fear nor "from the political preference for expediency over right." The reason, Mr. Innes urges, why he acknowledged their guilt is, that he did not trust his own judgment when it came into conflict with Henry's, simply because he had come to place implicit reliance upon the King. This explanation of meanness—it is hardly an extenuation—on the ground of intellectual subjection is more novel than satisfactory, but it at least shows an acute sense of the relation which existed between sovereign and primate. Both in England and Sweden the breach with Rome represents the power of the crown rather than any religious initiative on the part of the national church or of the people. Mr. Innes is a writer of terse and clever phrases; his distinctions, too, are often subtle and suggestive, for instance, his definition (in the preface) of the terms Romanist, Protestant, Puritan, and Catholic. As an illustration of his style and also of his attitude toward the English Reformation, we quote the concluding sentence of his summing-up: "The reconciliation of Catholicism and Puritanism could never be more than partial. The peculiar achievement of Cranmer lay in his framing a *modus vivendi* so effectively inclusive in its scope that Laud could rule the same Church whose children in later generations were brought up on the 'Pilgrim's Progress'; that Church which a few years since included among her sons Lord Shaftesbury, Dr. Pusey, and Dean Stanley." Why to these last did not Mr. Innes add the name of Benjamin Jowett?

—Nearly ten years ago, Dr. Hermann L. Strack, Professor of Theology in the University of Berlin, published a pamphlet entitled 'Der Blutaberglaube,' in which he discussed the use of human blood for sacrificial and superstitious purposes, and the magical and medicinal qualities popularly ascribed to it. The pamphlet created considerable sensation and passed rapidly through seventeen editions. This success was due chiefly to the fact that the author refuted the accusation so frequently brought against the Jews, that they commit so-called ritual murders in order to obtain Christian blood to mix with their unleavened bread at the feast of the Passover. For this reason he was bitterly attacked by the Catholic press, and the controversy which ensued contributed largely to the sale of the brochure and the consequent enlightenment of the public mind. The persistency of this absurd notion for nearly seven centuries (at least since 1236) is most remarkable. The same charge was brought against the early Christians, who were said to use human blood in their religious rites because they were wont to speak of the sacrament as partaking of the body and blood of the Lord. Even a scholar so distinguished as Prof. G. F. Daumer, in his work 'Geheimnisse des Christlichen Alterthums' (Hamburg, 1847), describes human sacrifices, anthropophagy, and drinking human blood as characteristic features of the Christian religion from its origin to the end of the Middle Ages. Nearly every year at Easter intense excitement is produced somewhere in Europe by the report of ritual murders perpetrated by Jews. In 1899 a girl, Agnes Hruza, at Polna in Bohemia, and recently a student named Winter at Konitz in West Prussia, were supposed to have been victims of this sort of religious fanaticism, but the allegation in both cases proved to be false. In one instance, at Boleslaw on the Vistula, a woman drowned her child in a swamp and stated that the Jews had slain it for their Paschal feast. The body was soon afterwards found, and she confessed that the accusation had been made at the instigation of the parish priest. Professor Strack has now revised, enlarged, and republished his pamphlet under the title 'Das Blut im Glauben und Aberglauben der Menschheit' (Munich: Beck), in which he discusses the whole subject in a masterly manner. The latter half of the volume is devoted to a careful examination and complete refutation of the opinion so maliciously fostered by Anti-Semitic agitators, that the Jews use Christian blood in certain religious rites. The author gives the sources of his information on every point, and thus enables the reader to control the statements made and to form an independent judgment.

BYRON'S WORKS.

The Works of Lord Byron; A new, revised, and enlarged edition. Poetry. Vol. III. Edited by Ernest Hartley Coleridge.—Letters and Journals. Vol. III. Edited by Rowland E. Prothero. London: Murray; New York: Scribners.

"I do believe," wrote Byron to the Mr. John Murray of ninety years ago—"I do believe that the Devil never created or perverted such a fiend as the fool of a printer. . . . There is an ingenuity about his blunders peculiar to himself. . . . There is one mistake he made, which, if it had stood, I would most certainly have broken his neck." What would Byron say to the Mr. John Murray of to-day if he could see some of the typographical eccentricities in the volume before us? At the end of a famous paragraph in "The Giaour," instead of the familiar

> "Yes! Self-abasement paved the way
> To villain-bonds and despot sway,"

we are brought to a gasping halt by a senseless and asthmatic ejaculatory "yet":

> "Yet! Self-abasement paved the way."

Again, when the dying Giaour apostrophizes his lost Leila,

> "Earth holds no other like to thee,"

Mr. Murray's printer has made him cry out:

> "Each holds no other like to thee,"

which is a veritable puzzle in pronouns, especially in the context in which it stands. Atrocious as these blunders are, they pale into insignificance before what stares at one from the very centre of page 288:

> "Up rose keen Conrad from his silent trance,
> A long, long absent gladness in his glance;
> ''Tis mine—my *blood-rag* flag! again—again—
> I am not all deserted on the main!' "

For this translation of *blood-red* Byron would doubtless have broken the printer's neck in good earnest, nor would it be easy for the mildest-mannered man to rate the punishment as excessive.

What vengeance would have satisfied him for the trick that we have next to mention, we prefer not to conjecture. In the eleventh stanza of the second canto of "Lara," on page 358 of this definitive edition, occurs the following peculiar couplet:

> "The stubborn wall that mocks the leaguer's art,
> And palls the patience of his *baffled art.*"

The right reading, of course, is "baffled *heart.*" Printers and proof-readers have a right to drop their *h*'s, no doubt, for that is "largely a personal matter"; but they should at least have indicated the omission in the usual manner. "Baffled *'eart*" might not look pretty in an English classic, but it would at all events be intelligible, and would not pervert the poet's meaning.

Misprints are small deer, and under ordinary circumstances the less said about them the better. They may fittingly be gathered in at the end of a book-notice or smuggled into an obscure foot-note. But here the circumstances are far from ordinary. We are dealing with a notable literary undertaking. Mr. Murray's Byron is meant to be a definitive edition, and it has many claims to that title. In particular, it is advertised as exhibiting "a new text, collated with the original MSS." Now the typographical prodigies to which we have referred are not in the editorial apparatus: they are in the text of the poems! Such slips as "Chants Populaires des *Servics*" for "Serviens" (p. 188), "Timal[eon]" for "Timol[eon]" (p. 311), "claves" for "slaves" (p. 297), "The American *Magazine of History*" for "The Magazine of American History" (p. 298), "Opera" for "Sallusti Opera" (p. 117), are annoying because they give the impression of slovenly editing and make one uneasy about weightier matters, but they are of no importance in themselves, and no critic would think of dwelling on them. But "blood-rag flag" in Conrad's outburst in "The Corsair," and the inexpressibly comic "Yet!" in the splendid Grecian passage in "The Giaour,'" fall in quite another category. They suggest the "Vinegar Bible" and such-like historical triumphs of mechanical perversity. And that is not the worst of it. They throw suspicion on the accuracy of that portion of the critical apparatus which, being based on manuscripts in the publisher's possession, cannot be controlled by the reader. For our own part, we must confess that we turned with some trepidation to the ferocious couplet in "A Sketch":

> "And make a Pandemonium where she dwells,
> And reign the Hecate of domestic hells,"

uncertain whether we should not find "hecat" instead of "Hecate," according to the immortal anecdote.

In reviewing the earlier volumes of Mr. Murray's Byron, we have spoken of the enterprise in highly commendatory terms. If we dwell rather on the shortcomings of volume iii. than on its merits, there is good reason for such procedure. The good points are obvious to the most cursory eye, and are, indeed, precisely what they profess to be. The volume, like its predecessors, is fully and intelligently annotated, and, founded as it is on the archives of the house of Murray, it at once and inevitably supersedes all other editions. In a word, it makes good, in many respects, its implicit claim to definitiveness. This being true, the editor was bound to quite unusual and exemplary care in all the details of his delicate task. His work should, of course, be accurate, but it should be more than merely accurate: it should be artistically perfect, so far as perfection is attainable. And this quality of artistic finish—which is as recognizable in a foot-note as in a sonnet—should pervade all the pedantic minutiæ inseparable from conscientious editing. Now the trouble with Mr. Coleridge lies precisely here. He is a good editor in the main. He has taste and scholarship; he takes his task seriously and is not impatient of drudging toil. Yet he seems to be constitutionally incapable of putting the last hand to his work—of giving it that final revision which tells for so much in the sum, though it can be observed and studied only in trifles almost too insignificant to specify. In the volume before us, this laxity of editorial fibre is perhaps more manifest than in those that precede. At all events, the inexcusable misprints to which attention has been called suggest uncommon carelessness somewhere. There are important volumes to come, and our hope is that either Mr. Coleridge himself, or, preferably, some candid friend, may be induced to give the proof-sheets that last half-hour's "going-over" which is always so fertile in disagreeable surprises. It is in this hope that we subject the present volume to a somewhat narrow scrutiny.

Volume iii. contains, besides the "Hebrew Melodies" and a number of miscellaneous poems, the six tales of 1812-15—"The Giaour," "The Bride of Abydos," "The Corsair," "Lara," "The Siege of Corinth," and "Parisina"—and closes with what the editor calls "Poems of the Separation." It covers, therefore, an extraordinarily interesting period of Byron's poetical career, and its contents, from whatever point of view they are judged, comprise some of the most significant verse of the century. Byron's greatest work, as Mr. Coleridge well remarks, "was yet to come; but the work which made his name, which is stamped with his sign-manual, and which has come to be regarded as distinctively and typically Byronic, preceded maturity and achievement." It is the fashion to belittle this work, to decry it as footlight trickery and tinsel, to raise the eyebrow at its instant and unparalleled popularity. In the critical jargon of the day it is called "insincere" and "unconvincing," and foreigners are pitied for still admiring it. "Poor things, they know no better!" At least one of the denunciators has read it all, for he is a genuine *helluo librorum*, but it may well be questioned if the rank and file of repetitious criticules have done anything of the sort. At all events, just as the thorough-going Byronian—and a few of these are left—cannot help shuddering at some of the lapses of which their author is guilty, often in the least opportune contexts, so the most superior apostle of convincingness could not read "The Giaour" or "The Corsair" at a dash, as they were written, without feeling their real, if intermittent, power. But it is too late—or rather too early—to debate the Byronic question. We must leave it "to the next age," which is lying in wait for so many of the critical *aperçus* of our generation, and pass on to the simpler problem of Byron's editor.

Bibliography is not Mr. Coleridge's strong point, yet in editing these 'Tales' he has had to grapple with bibliography of the most perplexing kind. In former volumes, as we have had occasion to remark, he has embroiled matters a good deal. In vol. iii. he has done better. Yet there are instances enough of vacillation and inconsistency to make the reader uneasy. His account of the editions of "The Giaour," for example, though far more complete than any previous record, is not quite intelligible after all. There were twelve editions in 1813-14. The question of their relations is not a mere subject of pedantic curiosity. "The Giaour" grew from 407 lines in the first draft to 1,334 lines in the seventh edition, and the history of this accretive process is interesting from several points of view besides that of the professional potterer with texts. Mr. Coleridge's well-conceived table (pp. 79-80) is a great help, and we try to be duly grateful. But we should feel more comfortable if his computations would only balance! As it is, he tells us that a mysterious first edition (extant in proof only) of twenty-eight pages contains 460 lines. His table foots up 453 lines for this same edition. Again, he informs us (p. 79) that a seventh edition "was issued subsequently to November 27, 1813," adding that it "was advertised in the *Morning Chronicle*, December 22, 1813." Later (p. 217) we are told, without any qualification, that this edition "was published on the 29th of November, 1813." The matter is of slight consequence except as a symptom. Other symptoms of like nature are not lacking. In the introduction to "The Bride of Abydos," apparently from forgetfulness, there is no discussion of the different editions—not even a statement that the poem was issued at all after its first appearance. Yet in the introduction to "The Corsair" we have a casual reference to the sixth edition of "The Bride" as published on a particular date. This is not all. The MSS. of "The Bride" are discussed with what appears to be the nicest care on pp. 151-2; yet at the end of the text (pp. 211-12) there is an additional note, and a comparison of this with the prefatory treatment reveals inconsistencies in matters of fact. Apparently the later note is meant to rectify the earlier. We have had an instance of the same kind of editorial afterthought in a previous volume. The result is confusion. We can only hope that all these tangled threads will be unravelled in the promised general bibliography, which is to be prepared by an expert, and to which each succeeding volume makes one look forward with more and more trembling hope.

To return to "The Giaour." It is surely not too much to expect of such an edition that it shall try to settle for good and all the moot point—Who is the teller of the tale? But Mr. Coleridge does nothing here. He quotes George Agar Ellis to the effect that "the reciter is a Turkish fisherman," etc., etc., with evident approval. Yet by-and-by (p. 123) he burkes the fisherman and proposes, to explain the last part of the poem, "a kind of dialogue between the author and the protesting monk," followed by the infidel's confession. "Who speaks verses 467-472?" is a question to which neither Ellis's hasty theory nor Mr. Coleridge's imperfect and baffling combination affords any reply. The fact is, Ellis's fisherman-narrator, though he has a conventional standing in the world, is a good deal of a humbug. Byron's own note shows clearly who is meant to be the narrator. "I heard the tale," he writes, "recited by one of the coffee-house story-tellers who abound in the Levant. . . . I regret that my memory has retained so few fragments of the original." This, if rightly taken, reveals the precise kind of literary artifice which the poet had in mind, and enables the reader, without much difficulty, to arrange the acts and scenes, and to distinguish the presenter from the *dramatis personæ*. The fisher who, "fearful for his light caïque," rows ashore at Port Leone, may be one of the actors, or he may be a mere bit of motion in the evening landscape. It is not easy to see how he can be the teller of the story. The debate is still alive in Germany, where scholars seem to be as oblivious of Byron's authoritative explanation as Mr. Coleridge himself.

Worse than this is Mr. Coleridge's queer treatment of "Lara." Byron's remark that, "the reader may probably regard [the poem] as a sequel to the 'Corsair,' " he calls "an admission which forestalls and renders nugatory any prolonged discussion of the subject." "It is evident," he adds, "that Lara is Conrad, and that Kaled, the 'darkly delicate' and mysterious page, whose 'hand is femininely white,' is Gulnare in a transparent and temporary disguise." Now, under favor, these words could never have been written by anybody as familiar with both poems as an editor ought to be. "Prolonged discussion" is, indeed, unnecessary. Whether or not Lara is Conrad, Kaled is certainly *not* Gulnare. Kaled, on a memorable occasion, refrained from tearing "the glossy ringlets of his raven hair" (v. 1,155). Gulnare's hair was auburn:

"That form, with eye so dark and cheek so fair,
And auburn waves of gemmed and braided hair."
—(*Corsair*, vv. 1008-9.)

Of course, Byron "visualized" Gulnare and Kaled. He had seen both ethnological types often enough in the East. But there is no absolute need of appealing to the hair and complexion of the heroines. Between the heroes themselves there are many slight differences—actual or psychological—that forbid their identification. Byron's use of the word "sequel" has been driven too hard. Mr. Coleridge should have compared the letter to Murray, September 2, 1814, in which the poet speaks of "Lara" as "connected with the other tales," and adds: "I would recommend this arrangement—Childe Harold, the smaller poems, Giaour, Bride, Corsair, Lara; the last completes the series, and its very likeness renders it necessary to the others." This shows well enough the loose sense in which "sequel" was employed in the passage which has led the editor so far astray.

In quoting parallel passages and tracing illusive tags of phrase, Mr. Coleridge errs in two ways—by inclusion and by exclusion. Exhaustiveness is impossible; perfect consistency is a vision; but an editor should try not to be freakish. Nothing is gained by comparing the couplet—

" 'Tis the clime of the East, 'tis the land of the Sun—
Can he smile on such deeds as his children have done?"

with Young's

"Souls made of fire, and children of the Sun,
With whom revenge is virtue."

The verbal resemblance is commonplace, and the similarity in thought is shadowy. And why quote Pippa's "God's in his Heaven, all's right with the world!" in connection with v. 651 of "Lara": "The Sun is in the heavens, and Life on earth"? There is no contact in ideas between the two passages. On the other side of the account, Mr. Coleridge neglects to register a number of real allusions—to Macbeth, for example, in "The Bride of Abydos," v. 1,127, and "Lara," vv. 190, 357, and to Othello in "The Corsair," v. 239. Trifles, no doubt, but worth noting—especially in view of Byron's familiarity with Shakspere, which comes out on every page of his correspondence. It is not to be imagined that Mr. Coleridge omitted the passages because he regarded such jottings as trivial. If so, his ideas of triviality must be rather vague, for there is much inconsequent matter in some of his foot-notes. To trace, for example, the spirited opening of "The Siege of Corinth" to a feeble stave in an "old ballad" (p. 449) is not only trivial, but wrong. Besides, the piece in question is not a ballad at all, as Mr. Coleridge's authority, the late Prof. Kölbing, knew very well. Even further-fetched is the attachment of the Corsair's character, by some occult bond of literary derivation, to Malefort Junior in Massinger's "Unnatural Combat" (p. 219). True, Mr. Coleridge has had many predecessors in such elaborate trifling. One note of Moore's, which he perpetuates, is the nonpareil. In this owlish comment the splendid Grecian passage in "The Giaour" is referred for its origin to the following words from Gillies's 'History,' quoted in "a book which Lord Byron is not unlikely to have consulted": "The present state of Greece, compared to the ancient, is the silent obscurity of the grave contrasted with the vivid lustre of active life." The antithesis between life and death was in the world before Gillies! —We do not wish to be misunderstood. The tracing of thoughts and allusions, and the accumulation of parallel passages, are part of an editor's business. Even when there is no likelihood of borrowing, such things illustrate the atmosphere which surrounded an author, and have their value. But the canon of reasonableness must be heeded, or annotation degenerates into the hit-or-miss scribbling of casual marginalia.

We do not find Mr. Coleridge completely intelligible in his interpolation (from the MS.) in Byron's comment on vampires (p. 123). It looks as if he were unaware that freshness and ruddiness of complexion is one of the unfailing signs by which a corpse is recognized as subject to vampirism. But perhaps we misunderstand. The authorities cited are well chosen, and will put the reader who verifies them into possession of the main facts. It seems strange, however, to omit Bernhard Schmidt, whose information about the modern Greek beliefs would have been peculiarly apposite. The note on the story of the "sultan in the bath" is not quite precise, interesting as it is. Mr. Coleridge can hardly be expected to know Reinhold Köhler's little essay in an early volume of *Germania*, but he might well have followed his own clue a little more industriously—to 'The Forty Vezirs,' perhaps. The note on Alp "the Adrian renegade" in "The Siege of Corinth" (p. 454) is not so novel as Mr. Coleridge thinks. It has been partly anticipated by W. Bang in *Englische Studien*, vol. xxvi., p. 138. The editors of Murray's Byron know the *Studien*, with which the Byronic investigations of the late Professor Kölbing have brought them into contact. Bang's note is minute, however, and it was not hard to overlook it. One note of Mr. Coleridge's is downright ludicrous. It is a gloss on *tier* in "The Corsair" (p. 288)—

"She bears her down majestically near,
Speed on her prow, and terror in her tier."

" 'Tier,' " writes Mr. Coleridge, "must stand for 'hold.' " This is on the same page with the unmatchable "blood-rag flag," to which it is a fitting pendant. The pirate-ship, then, carried her armament in her hold. No wonder there were ups-and-downs in Conrad's life if his followers adopted this arrangement habitually when, as now, they "sailed prepared for vengeance"!

The "Poems of the Separation" have a good introduction and are well annotated but for one surprising omission. Mr. Coleridge has actually contrived to edit the pieces in an elaborate manner without telling us anything about the original of "A Sketch." Will it be believed that the name of Mrs. Clermont is not once mentioned in notes or introduction? Certainly there is no occult reason for such reticence. There is no secret about the affair; the facts are all in Mr. Prothero's volume and are matters of common knowledge. Mr. Coleridge has simply forgotten to make the most obviously necessary of all notes. He will doubtless be as startled as any one when he learns of his delinquency.

Byron was notoriously disregardful of grammatical niceties, and his editor feels bound to call attention more than once to defects in style or syntax. But a poet may be "*super grammaticam*"—as Mr. Coleridge calls it (p. 526), meaning probably *supra*, or is this another misprint?—when the same prerogative is denied to his scholiast. Mr. Coleridge, however, accords himself the privilege in question when he says "the *Bride of Abydos*, as well as the *Giaour*, embody" (p. 150) for "embodies," and "It does not occur to him to condone . . . the loves of Hugo and Parisina, and in detailing the issue leaves the actors to their fate" (p. 500).

One turns with pleasure from Mr. Coleridge's volume, valuable as it undoubtedly is, despite its carelessness in detail, to vol. iii. of the 'Letters and Journals,' prepared by Mr. Prothero. This covers the period from January, 1814, to November, 1816, adding more than a hundred letters to Halleck's collection, hitherto the most complete. Almost all the new matter is interesting, some of it singularly so. We may specify fifteen letters, or parts of letters, from Byron to Miss Milbanke. Mr. Prothero has done his work with as near an approach to perfection as one can ever hope to see. We have nothing to modify in the admiring testimony which we have borne to his taste, skill, and good judgment on other occasions. Particular attention may be called to the Appendix to chapter xii., in which the documentary evidence bearing on the separation is presented with great fulness and in a very orderly manner. It is to be hoped that some professional alienist will scrutinize this material with a view to determining whether what is now called "persecution mania" on the part of Lady Byron may not explain much that has puzzled the biographers. Mr. Prothero, by the way, would be an excellent person to run over Mr. Coleridge's proof-sheets in the future. His inspection would insure the finish which alone is wanting to make the editing of the 'Poems' as excellent as that of the 'Letters.'

MORE NOVELS.

Voices of the Night. By Flora Annie Steele. The Macmillan Co.

An Unsocial Socialist. By G. Bernard Shaw. Brentano's.

Hilda Wade. By Grant Allen. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

The Monk and the Dancer. By Arthur Cosslett Smith. Charles Scribner's Sons.

His Lordship's Leopard. By D. D. Wells. Henry Holt & Co.

The Action and the Word. By Brander Matthews. Harper & Brothers.

The Jimmy John Boss. By Owen Wister. Harper & Brothers.

The Goodness of Saint Rocque. By Alice Dunbar. Dodd, Mead & Co.

By the Marshes of Minas. By C. G. D. Roberts. Silver, Burdett & Co.

The Autobiography of a Quack. By S. Weir Mitchell, M.D. The Century Co.

The Seafarers. By Mary Gray Morrison Doubleday, Page & Co.

Mrs. Steele's recent novel, 'Voices of the Night,' has for secondary title "A Chromatic Fantasia," and the author apologizes for attempting to play an elaborate composition on a penny whistle. The inexpensive instrument with which Mrs. Steele identifies herself, or her novel, is certainly incompetent to produce sounds in interesting combination and succession, but it has a power shrill and peremptory of compelling those who have ears to hear. This penny-whistle power is the very one in which 'Voices of the Night' is conspicuously deficient. It is a tedious, incoherent piece, without vivid moments, without a single passage to compel attention and hold the memory. The love romance is a convention wherein the author wrests from causes stated an effect impossible to reason. Equally conventional (in the novel of India) are the Englishmen of dark experiences and perfect manners, who with English ladies (not above suspicion) dance for ever in the dark on the verge of an abyss, striving thus to escape the memory of past horrors and avert a hovering dread of their repetition. For the plot, it is possible that Mrs. Steele may know what she meant to tell about stolen pearls and lost memoranda of political significance; also, why she considered these things important enough for revelation; but, unless she should publish a summary with italicized connections, no one could share her knowledge. What she may know, believe, or fear about a profound hostility cherished by Oriental subjects, of whatever race, caste, and condition, towards their Western rulers, is stated, in the veiled manner of oracles, in parables that may mean anything or nothing. Our only definite inference is, that no matter what the Government may do, it is and must always be wrong. Sacred superstitions, however revolting, must be respected; sacred households where wife-murder is a pastime must not be invaded; sacred filth must not be disturbed, because the subject races attribute the quality of sacredness to these conditions and objects so flagrantly repulsive to people of different tradition. Yet if, while a tactful and tender administration is pursuing the *laissez-faire* policy advocated, an amulet that is a message of riot should be sold by the million, or a zenana scandal agitate the missionaries, or the plague devour a certain quarter, it is clear that the Administration is slothful, irresolute, utterly incompetent to deal with the tangled problems of the Indian Empire. To discuss usefully such serious and complicated questions, it is well to have formed definite opinions and to know how to appeal to reason. It is rather unfortunate for Mrs. Steele's reputation that she did not more carefully examine her conscience before embarking on 'Voices of the Night.'

Mr. Bernard Shaw often chooses to discuss serious topics, but should not be subject to a suspicion of desiring to write usefully. 'An Unsocial Socialist' is a characteristic work, extravagant, artificial, overflowing with bad taste, and alive with an insolent personal force which commands admiration as it forbids esteem. The only dull passages are the Socialist's lectures on Socialism. His theories have long ceased to surprise, and there was probably never a time when they would have appealed to any one capable of feeling conviction. The three girls whose pranks at school, and later, make up the tale, are not like any sort of commonly known girls, nor do they approach any conceivable standard of model girl, but are inventions endowed with certain feminine qualities and caprices which the author seems to light upon by an inspired guess.

It is commonly reported that Mr. Grant Allen wrote fiction neither from choice nor for fame, but only to keep the pot boiling. Little of his fiction discredits the rumor, and, once in a while, he undoubtedly hit his mark. His last book, 'Hilda Wade,' is a series of unrelated incidents connected by the adventures and love affair of a doctor and nurse. The nurse has a phenomenal memory, which absorbs the marriage column in the newspapers, and by prompt and efficient use gets her a great reputation both for scientific observation and for the spirit of prophecy. The doctor just gasps, wonders, adores, and cheerfully abets any wild project initiated by the nurse to satiate her quite antique thirst for vengeance upon a famous surgeon, who is incidentally a perjurer and murderer. The view of a great hospital as a theatre for the exploitation of private passion and intrigue is very alarming. But Mr. Allen was not a writer of purposeful fiction, so he had not to fear the revenge of a host of doctors and nurses all secretly vowing and plotting to have his blood.

Among volumes of short stories for summer reading, that entitled 'The Monk and the Dancer' is at once the lightest and the deepest. The antithesis of the title is comprehensive. Throughout the volume, the intensity of life touches its frivolity, the mystery of death attends its commonness, the passion of love goes along with its lightness, and the things that are push aside the things that seem. If Mr. Cosslett Smith were a Frenchman, he would be labelled "Symbolist," but we are not keen about relegating our authors to schools, so he may be let off with the comment that, for such an amusing writer, he is a little odd, and certainly means more than he actually says. His incidents are not commonplace, but rather picturesque or extravagant or unusual, and he presents them completely, yet with remarkable conciseness. With an air of impulsive spontaneity, his work is really the expression of a well-comprehended art, at once strong and delicate, and distinctively a product of the last years of the nineteenth century.

The adventures narrated in 'His Lordship's Leopard' are farcical, vigorous at first, but gradually attenuating and culminating in a joke which supplies the title and is bad enough to depreciate the best of tales. Only people quite bereft of reason would have dealt with complications after the fashion of Mr. Cecil Banborough and the strolling players; but the spirit of the moment is well given and infectious, and the author never meant that any one should think about the book after it was closed.

The 'Action and the Word' might easily have been a short story; indeed, it could hardly have been made too short. The lady of fashion who, prompted by vanity, a desire for notoriety, and more money, contemplates going on the stage, is so emphatically a back number that she is not worth more than a curt notice to a society journal. Mr. Matthews's lady contemplated but didn't, which makes the many chapters devoted to her indecision even more superfluous. The joy that may be taken in the eating, drinking, and dressing of wealthy people is one that cannot be conveyed through type and shared by a reader, and no one would complain of Mr. Matthews's selfishness if he should give it up and never try again to impart to others such sensations of delight. Commonplace talk around a dining-table may seem to the talkers as brilliant as their persons and the plate, but, transferred to print, it stands for itself, alone, unprotected, appealing to the cold mind's eye of the stranger. Subjected to such a test, the assertion that a woman is or is not good-looking, oft repeated, in varying phrase, loses that extraordinary interest which accompanies its utterance by externally perfect beings eating perfect viands and drinking copiously perfect wine. Mr. Matthews has done his best with that sort of conversation, and might now stop reporting it, because the public will come to think either that he never hears any other sort, or that, if he does, he forgets it. Some may even accuse him of doing all the talking himself

Mr. Wister's new tales of the West when it was wild, take their general title from a cowboy's transformation of the word "demijohn." In the first story the characterization of the young boss and his old German employer is excellent, and the boy's management of his turbulent ranchmen quite justifies Max Vogel's belief in his own talent for selecting the fittest. The other tales are inferior to the first in form and finish, except, perhaps, the last, which has a pretty sentimental strain unusual in Mr. Wister's work. The whole book is a panorama of days that are done, days much favored of the gods in having their memory kept green by two such writers as Bret Harte and Owen Wister.

Among tales of locality there are few volumes more pleasing than 'The Goodness of Saint Rocque.' In New Orleans one need not go far to find the romantic, and the city has been an easy prey for indifferent story-tellers. Mrs. Dunbar has disregarded striking, almost importunate, material, and found her subjects in quiet corners. Her sympathetic and refined manner gives a literary value to slight incidents and simple characters.

In 'The Marshes of Minas' Mr. Roberts continues to regard with a romantic eye the patient peasants and fishermen who inhabited Arcadia when it was ceded by France to England. His imagination is not fettered by a too profound knowledge of their character and habits of life—a remark which may be extended to his illustrator's conception of their costume. As usual, the author's narrative lacks life and probability, and, as usual, too, his genuine poetical talent finds expression in many beautiful descriptive passages.

'The Autobiography of a Quack' is a very disagreeable tale. The picturesque ruffian is a traditional figure in fiction, but the blackguard who is just base and vulgarly criminal, without one engaging attribute, is only an unpleasant expression of a transient craze for realism. The second tale in the volume has no more general interest than has a surgeon's report of a famous case, which he describes accurately without sentiment or sympathy. If these be doctor's diversions, a doctor's life is indeed a distressing one.

In 'The Seafarers' there are two well-drawn characters who, indeed, dwelt by the sea, but, during the time of the story's action, at least, stayed steadily on shore. Both are old men, one a soldier, the other a shipowner; and, as the author is presumably young, she is to be complimented on her rendering of crabbed age. The plot is wild quite beyond compare, sufficient indication of a "first book" without the accompanying explanatory advertisement.

Ueber den physiologischen Schwachsinn des Weibes. Von P. J. Möbius. Halle a. S.: Carl Marhold. 1900. 8vo, pp. 26.

Antropologia pedagogica. Da C. Melzi. Arona: Tipografia Economica. 1899. Pp. vii+246.

Studies in the Psychology of Sex. By Havelock Ellis. New York: The F. A. Davis Co. 1900. 8vo, pp. xi+276.

That a German psychiatrist, an Italian teacher, and an English man of science should fail to agree in their views of woman and her ways is no great wonder. Möbius, characteristically enough, begins his essay with a protest against the use of *Frauen* as the plural designation of the creature contrasted with *Mann*. If women are ashamed of their rightful name *(Weiber)*, says the author, "that is bad enough, but no reason for doing violence to the language." With Möbius, *Schwachsinn* lies "between imbecility and normal-mindedness," for which last expression he laments the non-existence of a trite German word. The usual items concerning the "intellectual inferiority" of woman, her "anatomical bestiality," etc., are here repeated with a conciseness of speech and a tendency to epigrammatic brevity rather unusual in such writings. There is also some wit at the expense of woman's "instinctiveness," a few hits at "the modern woman" and the "feminists," and a good deal of vamping of old material of the "weaker-vessel" sort. The author has evidently not acquainted himself with the data in such books as Havelock Ellis's 'Man and Woman' and Mason's 'Woman's Share in Primitive Culture,' or some of his naïve remarks about woman past and present would be conspicuous by their absence. That all progress has proceeded from men alone, that women have never had any sword but their tongues, that invention is a thing denied woman by nature, that women have done next to nothing to advance culinary art (and sartorial art as well), that medicine has practically no use for women practitioners, that science has nothing of any value to expect from woman's activities, are statements so bald as to suggest, quite apart from national prejudices, an ignorance of the literature of the subject, or, at least, an overlooking of it. It may be satisfactory to the author to conclude that "woman not only is inferior to man intellectually, but also loses more quickly than he does her mental faculties," and that the phenomena of old age are all to the disadvantage of woman as compared with man; but such dicta need a great deal more proof than is vouchsafed us. There is, too, more sarcasm than truth in the declaration that, once she has "caught a man," woman is another being, a harmless creature, whose existence from that time forth is altogether a losing game. Möbius approves of the popular saying that woman ought to be *gesund und dumm:* for her, science should remain an untouched field, for the cultivation of which she has a natural incapacity. Views like these are still held in high places in Germany no less than among the masses of the people, but within the last few years serious breaches have been made in folk and academic belief, which promise a fairer future, even if it be afar off.

The bulk of Melzi's book is devoted to "pedagogical anthropology," as what we know as "child study" in America is often called in Italy. Here we can concern ourselves only with his discussion of the "Education of the Sexes" (pp. 189-219), which is a good antidote to Möbius. Melzi, who has been trained under Sergi, is one of the leaders in Italian school-reforms, and a teacher in the city of Arona. While admitting, and in no way seeking to minimize, the existence of noteworthy physical and psychical differences between the sexes, and liking no more than Möbius the virago and the defeminized anomaly, the Italian writer pleads for an education that shall make the best of all there is in woman. Sexual education is as just as sexual selection. The shortcomings of modern educational systems, in unholy alliance with her known failings, have long enough dictated the paths of woman's possibilities. In marked contrast to Möbius, Melzi heralds the passing of the old prejudice which has insisted upon a literary rather than a scientific training for women (p. 213). Science alone, he thinks, can save woman from her infantilism, which man has so exploited to his own advantage in times past; science can alone add the character woman so much needs. What must come to woman from the "new education" is that real, not dilettante, scientific knowledge which shall "invigorate her powers of observation, increase her volitional energies, strengthen her attention, broaden her rational field, clarify her concepts and her judgments, make her memory less automatic, restrain her fancy and her imagination," make her, in fact, what nature planned, "a perfect woman." No bastard science will serve her; the new régime must be honest and natural. Its foundation must be liberty to be all she can, in the best way she can, when best she can. And through it all she will remain woman. There is no danger of her debasement.

If ever Prof. William James's motto, "Be not afraid of life!" takes on a profounder significance than elsewhere in the world of human phenomena, it is in the presence of those facts to the elucidation of which Havelock Ellis is devoting the best years of his life. The volume under review is not exactly a book for Mrs. Grundy, but the perusal of some parts of it would sanify not a few of her most deluded victims. Nowhere else can one find a résumé of the best scientific thought about sexual life in its narrowest and in its broadest implications. Among the topics discussed are: The Evolution of Modesty; The Phenomena of Sexual Periodicity; Spontaneous Manifestations of the Sexual Impulse; Influence of Menstruation upon the Position of Women; Sexual Periodicity in Men; The Auto-erotic Factor in Religion. True, these are most of them tabooed subjects, but their fundamental importance must be confessed, and the author deserves the gratitude of every unprejudiced man and woman for the great mass of facts he has here made available. We all do not know how, from being with savage and barbarous peoples "a fundamental social law of life," modesty has become, with the progress of civilization, "a grace of life." Still less are we fully acquainted with the real significance of "spring fever" and all that rhythmic outburst stands for. We can heartily agree with the author when he says (p. 203): "The sexual impulse is not, as some have imagined, the sole root of the most massive human emotions, the most brilliant human aptitudes—of sympathy, of art, of religion. In the complex human organism, where all the parts are so many-fibred and so closely interwoven, no great manifestation can be reduced to one single source." Still, the place it fills is very large, and its ramifications are almost everywhere. Not even the male half of mankind, as is here clearly shown, are at all independent of the sexual rhythm; but the field is one for further study and speculation.

The view of woman resulting from investigations and studies like those carried on by Havelock Ellis is an eminently sane and sensible one. In a considerable portion of Christendom, however, woman has rather lost than won as compared with her position in the thought of many primitive peoples. Woman, always the witch, has ceased to be the prophetess. And modern Germany seems more inclined to agree with the mediæval preacher who termed woman *bestia bipedalis*, than with the ancient Teutons, who, as Tacitus reports, saw in her *sanctum aliquid et providum*. To judge fairly between these two extremes of the old animistic conception, so current in the world to-day, we need "a clear and full discussion of the problems that centre around sex." Not until then shall we fully understand the "angel-devil" whose sweet name is woman.

A White Woman in Central Africa. By Helen Caddick. Cassell Co. 1900. Illustrated. 8vo, pp. viii, 242.

Miss Caddick tells the story of her journey from the mouth of the Zambesi to Lake Tanganyika in a simple but entertaining way, interspersing it with many humorous touches. Though she had no startling adventures and kept to well-known routes, her descriptions of the varied aspects of African life are full of interest. She is an intelligent observer, and her great tact and kindliness in her treatment of the natives are attested by the success of her excursion. To the head of navigation on the Shiré and on Lake Nyassa she travelled by steamer, but the rest of the way she was borne in a "machila" or hammock, swung from a pole and resting on the shoulders of two natives. She was thus carried up and down mountains, through forests and across torrents, for more than a thousand miles, with such care that she had only one fall. Her "boys," who were frequently changed, were invariably good-tempered, with "any amount of patient endurance and also a keen sense of humor." Their consideration for each other was shown by an incident that was not solitary of its kind. One intensely hot day,

> "when my boys were getting tired, we passed six or eight natives walking along without any loads. They began to chaff my boys and jeer and laugh at them. Suddenly, two of them made a rush at the machila pole, pushed my boys away, and ran off with me as fast as they could, up and down steep 'dongas,' so steep that I should have had to walk down them with the greatest care. The rest of them came alongside, shouted and sang all the time, and, without stopping, a fresh pair took the machila pole, changing as they ran. They kept up this pace for more than an hour, until we came to a stream where there was shelter from the sun. Then they popped me down. . . . Of course, this helped us over the ground splendidly, and after a rest we went on more calmly, leaving our lively crew behind."

Even the children were unselfish. At every morning halt they gathered around Miss Caddick, and she was accustomed to amuse them by teaching them to catch bits of biscuit she threw to them. "Those who were successful," she always noticed, "saved their biscuits, and at the end divided them with those who had been less fortunate." Altogether, she leaves upon her readers a far more favorable impression of the natives for their industry, honesty, good humor, and cleanliness than do most African travellers. In the region between the two lakes she says that "in all the villages the people seemed busily occupied with their work; the ground was kept swept round the huts, and they were cleaner and less malodorous than our courts and alleys at home." Here "the men do all the sewing and mending of what little clothing they have," and one of the reasons for divorce is "if the husband neglects to mend anything belonging to his wife"; and "if either speak disrespectfully of the other's friends . . . the marriage can be dissolved." Among their industries is the making of bangles out of the finest copper wire twisted on hair.

> "The drawing of the wire is cleverly done. The men cut a hole through a tree, into which they put a piece of iron with a small hole in it. The strip of copper is tapered to a point and put through the hole in the iron. The natives catch hold of the end with a kind of pincers, then a good number of them hang on to it and pull it through. This process is repeated through smaller holes in the iron again and again till the wire is fine enough."

Though Miss Caddick makes but brief references to the life of Europeans or missionary work in the Central Africa Protectorate, her journey alone furnishes remarkable evidence of the progress of the country under British rule. Not in the roads, the coffee plantations, the stations, churches, and schools is this to be found, but in the simple fact that a woman, with no companions but natives picked up almost at random and frequently changed, could travel a thousand miles in perfect security. For days together she saw no white persons, and she carried with her riches of untold value to her boys. At every camp, calico was unrolled, beads and salt were brought out to barter for food and ornaments, and not a yard of cloth or a bead was stolen. Yet this was a country where, a few years before, the people lived in caves and kraals in the sides of ravines or on the top of almost inaccessible hills to escape the slave-raider, and fled in terror at the sight of a stranger. Then, every tribe and nearly every village was the enemy of every other. The favorite amusement of Miss Caddick's carriers shows the condition from which they had just emerged. They lay in wait at the side of the path, and rushed out at her approach with fierce yells, brandishing their spears and axes as if about to attack the traveller. Then, Yaos and Angoni were deadly foes; now, they help to bear each other's burdens. The chief value, in fact, of Miss Caddick's story is that it is another chapter in the history of the regeneration of Africa.

The illustrations are excellent and the general appearance of the book is very attractive, but a map was due to those unfamiliar with the geography of this part of the continent.

Pottery and Porcelain: A Guide to Collectors. By Frederick Litchfield. Containing 150 illustrations of specimens of various factories, seven colored plates, and marks and monograms of all the important makers. New York: Truslove & Comba. 1900. Pp. xv, 362.

From 1870 to 1885, or thereabouts, there were published many handbooks and histories intended for the edification of the collector, or would-be collector, of ceramic wares. Of late there has been a pause in this industry, and perhaps it was as well for the compilers to wait a while and see what the research of investigators in special departments might develop. So much has been brought to light and so much made apparent by comparison and discussion, that books of to-day have every chance to be more useful than those of even fifteen years ago; and therefore it is well to have books of to-day. Mr. Litchfield, the author of a useful account of European furniture, has gathered together and arranged with a great deal of skill the material which this volume contains, and has prepared photographic illustrations for it, both colored and simply printed in black (in half-tone); and with these a very considerable number of little cuts in the text, most of which are "marks and monograms."

The practised student knows in advance what such a volume, of moderate size but proposing to include all the history of decorative ceramic ware, is pretty sure to be. If it should contain any remarkable achievement in the way of solving a problem, correcting an important date, dividing into schools what has been too hastily assumed to be of one group, or any achievement of that character—if any such success were to be scored in behalf of the author, it would be indeed remarkable. The present work hardly pretends to such a marked success as that would be. The preface declares that the book is a practical guide, and it goes safely along the beaten track, thereby serving its readers well; for who are they who, wishing to be better informed concerning the decorative objects in the dealer's shop or the auction room, would desire other than the accepted beliefs? With great frankness the opinions and statements of many different writers are quoted or cited, and their authors credited with what they have contributed to the common stock of knowledge. With a certain uniformity of even appreciation, the wares of the East and the West, of old and of modern times, of England and the Continent, are described, and, if not criticised, at least so far appraised that the student may form a tolerable idea of what is best worth his examination. It would be impracticable to avoid serious errors, both of statement and of comparative description, and accordingly it is rather amusing to read the brief account of the porcelain of Japan, which it appears was kept locked up "until about 1859, when the famous visit to the country of Lord Elgin and Commander Perry resulted in certain ports being thrown open to foreign trade." Faulty chronology for an act of doubtful morality and of wide-reaching consequences. And so it is odd to see that recent investigation into Japanese records makes no figure at all in the author's notes, and that the village potteries discovered and sampled so judiciously by Morse remained unnoticed. On the other hand, the artistic appreciation, if it may be so called, which is bestowed upon the ancient and the modern wares, is judicious and appropriate to the small space which could be allowed for it. The conclusion would seem to be that the author has worked mainly in London shops full of a constantly changing assemblage of specimens and with all the best books at his command, but with little information except that which is easily drawn from those two sources. The reviewer hastens to state that nearly all the information there is may be obtained in that way; the vital difference being that that which is not so obtainable is by far the most interesting and on the whole the most important.

The pages devoted to Greek vases are very few, and Egyptian pottery can hardly be said to be noticed at all. Ancient British pottery receives a page of comment, while Mexican and Peruvian pottery does not appear to have interested the author at all. All this is entirely characteristic and in place; for the student of ceramics, or would-be collector, the person who buys, or would buy if he could, decorative pieces for his enjoyment and to show to his fellow-collectors, is to be separated decidedly from the student of those ancient or little known wares. It may be said that the buyer of Greek vases is to be classed among a different order of students and of readers from the buyer of Oriental ware or of the faïence of the eighteenth century. Even as the book devoted to Greek or Greco-Roman archæology says nothing about other potteries than that which may be included under that head, so does the writer on "pottery and porcelain" in a general way ignore almost altogether the potteries of classical antiquity. This custom has become recognized, and one would hardly expect to find in a book like this anything profound or complete devoted to Greece, Etruria, Egypt, the Phœnician peoples, or the Roman Empire. In like manner the reader will not expect to find anything detailed or of value concerning the out-of-the-way and little studied potteries of Europe or of the near East. One district is named and another is not, but the name is about all that is vouchsafed to the wares of Anatolia or of the Italian mountain villages, or again of the more nearly civilized tribes of Africa, while, as has been said, South America and Mexico are ignored. It is, therefore, for the collector of modern European wares primarily, and in a secondary degree for the lover of Oriental pieces, to buy this book and to use its full index and its systematic arrangement for all it may be worth.

A Memoir of Henry Jacob Bigelow, A.M., M.D., LL.D., etc., etc. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1900. 4 volumes.

The first of these four interesting volumes is devoted to a substantial memoir of Dr. Bigelow, the authorship of which is not stated, and to various shorter memorial addresses and tributes from his colleagues and from the medical press; the other three to publications and addresses mainly on medical subjects. The first is, perhaps, the only one that will appeal greatly to the layman, but few persons will take this up without reading it with sustained pleasure to the end, so clearly do the attractively written pages give proof of the brilliancy and genius of the well-known surgeon whom they commemorate.

The memoir opens with a brief sketch of Dr. Jacob Bigelow, the father, a man as remarkable as his son, with rare intellectual gifts, and a temperament of wonderful elasticity and freshness. Then follows a sketch of Henry Bigelow's youth, bearing witness to a spirit, an energy, a versatility which stamped him as a man sure to grow and to lead, though a discerning prophet might early have suspected that the "drudgery of practice" would prove "distasteful to him." Although threatened with serious pulmonary disease, his fresh, ambitious, and hopeful spirit contributed largely to the success of the care by means of which he was enabled to endure the fatigues of a long and busy life. Boy or man, the paths he elected to tread were often new, his methods always original; and his early life was in piquant contrast with his staid surroundings. Had he not been a distinguished surgeon, he might easily have been a distinguished naturalist, inventor, horticulturist, even art critic. One is inclined to ask whether, if his interests had been more concentrated, his achievements in surgery might not have been still greater; but people must be taken as they are, and his genius was of the kind that impelled and enabled him to follow one line with intensity and extreme thoroughness for a time, but for a time only.

> "In 1849, though hardly more than established as a practitioner and hospital surgeon, Dr. Bigelow received his appointment as professor of surgery in Harvard University. . . . It might be said that he was without competitors for the high and honorable position to which he was chosen at the early age of thirty-one years."

As a teacher he had an unusual instinct for divining the essentials among the vast number of facts which confronted the student, and for presenting them with such terseness and clearness that they made an indelible impression upon his hearers' minds, and this same clearness of insight enabled him, throughout his career, to select the vital elements in all the subjects of his investigation.

His public services were, naturally, not numerous; but in 1861, at the outbreak of the war of the rebellion, he "delivered by invitation a gratuitous course of lectures, chiefly on operative surgery, for the benefit of medical men whose services seemed likely to be demanded by the exigencies of the time," and in 1862 he was sent to the front on a private and responsible mission of inspection by Secretary Stanton. He also delivered a public address at the unveiling of the Ether Monument in the Public Garden. For many years before his death Dr. Bigelow withdrew from active practice, and spent much of his time at his beautiful retreat of Tuckernuc and on his hillside in Newton, his tireless energy always providing him with new pursuits of an original sort.

This is not the place to speak at length of Dr. Bigelow's position in the scientific world, although the three generous volumes which follow the memoir, and are respectively entitled 'Surgical Anæsthesia: Addresses and Other Papers'; 'Dislocations and Fractures of the Hip: Litholapaxy'; 'Orthopedic Surgery: Medical Papers,' give ample testimony that he was a clear and forcible writer as well as a great surgeon, and that his principal contributions, if not many, were of lasting value. It is quite in keeping with more than one side of his nature that he should have been prominent among those who welcomed the birth of surgical anæsthesia through sulphuric ether, and supported the claims of the man whom, with his practical insight, he saw to be the one that deserved the credit of the discovery. For, besides his clearsightedness, it was an eminent characteristic of Dr. Bigelow—a strange one, some might think, in a surgeon of that day—that he shrank with over-sensitiveness from inflicting or witnessing pain. But it is by the positive side of his nature, by what he accomplished, and by the bright picture of genius which he presented, that he will be remembered; and to these aspects of his life and character this memoir will serve as a fitting and fascinating tribute.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bliss, W. R. Colonial Times on Buzzard's Bay. New ed. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Collier, W. M. The Trusts; What Can We Do with Them? What Can They Do for Us? The Baker & Taylor Co.
Crane, S. Whilomville Stories. Harpers. $1.50.
Discours aux Etudiants prononcés devant l'Association générale des Etudiants de Paris. Paris: Armand Colin. 3 fr. 50.
Flournoy, Prof. Th. From India to the Planet Mars: A Study of a Case of Somnambulism, with Glossolalia. Harpers. $1.50.
Greene, J. L. Gen. William B. Franklin and the Operations of the Left Wing at the Battle of Fredericksburg, December 13, 1862. Hartford, Conn.: Belknap & Warfield.
Hart, H. Notes on a Century of Typography at the University Press, Oxford, 1693-1794. Oxford: The University Press; New York: Henry Frowde.
Judson, H. P., and Bender, Ida C. Graded Literature Readers: Fourth Book. Maynard, Merrill & Co. 50c.
Liberalism and the Empire: Three Essays by F. W. Hirst, G. Murray, and J. L. Hammond. London: R. Brinley Johnson. 3s. 6d.
Mason, J. The Principles of Chess in Theory and Practice. Third ed. London: Horace Cox.
Myers, P. Van Ness. Rome: Its Rise and Fall: A Text-Book for High Schools and Colleges. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Nathan, P. How to Make Money in the Printing Business. New York: The Lotus Press.
Norris, W. E. The Flower of the Flock. Appletons. $1.
Odell, G. C. D. Shakspere's Julius Cæsar. Longmans, Green & Co.
Paston, George. Mrs. Delany (Mary Granville): A Memoir; 1700-1788. London: Grant Richards; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $3.
Perkins, J. B. Richelieu and the Growth of the French Power. [Heroes of the Nations Series.] Putnams. $1.50.
Plutarch's Alexander the Great. Done into English by Sir Thomas North. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 15c.
Poole, R. L. Historical Atlas of Modern Europe from the Decline of the Roman Empire. Henry Frowde. Part XXVI. 3s. 6d.
Powell, F. Y. XXIV Quatrains from Omar. New York: M. F. Mansfield.
Rodkinson, M. L. New Edition of the Babylonian Talmud. New York: New Talmud Publishing Co. Vol. ii.
Sloane, J. The Quest of Mr. East. London: Archibald Constable & Co. 6s.
Spofford, A. R. A Book for All Readers: Designed as an Aid to the Collection, Use, and Preservation of Books. Putnams. $2.
Stockton, Frank R. Novels and Stories. Vols. XVI. and XVII. Scribners.
The Crisis in China. Reprinted from the North American Review. Harpers. $1.
The Land of Sunshine: The Magazine of California and the West. Edited by C. F. Lummis. December, 1899, to May, 1900. Los Angeles, Cal.: Land of Sunshine Publishing Co.
Townshend, R. B. Lone Pine: The Story of a Lost Mine. Putnams. 50c.
United States "History" as the Yankee Makes and Takes It. By a Confederate Soldier. Third ed. Glen Allen, Va.: Cussons, May & Co. 25c.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 30, 1900.

The Week.

The situation of the allies in Pekin recalls Napoleon's at Moscow, except that occupation was not had without fighting. The Imperial Government has fled to parts unknown, and no one has come forward to do homage to the victors or to negotiate for submission and indemnity. The continued presence of the legations has, therefore, a superfluous air, and that of the allied forces itself tends to become somewhat absurd, so long as China is content to get along without control of the imperial city. Our own part in the tragi-comedy is coming home to us forcibly, and all that can be said is, that we are trying to get out by not going deeper in. The diversion of troops from Taku to Manila points partly to this resolve of the Administration, but also to the essential weakness of our situation caused by the need of all the troops that can be spared to maintain our fighting strength in the Philippines.

As is to be expected, newspaper opinion on this subject, while generally agreeing that the policy of this country in the Chinese complication has been wise, shows considerable divergence as to the course which should now be pursued. The Washington *Post* and the Philadelphia *Times*, for example, insist that the troops should be recalled at once, as soon as the rescue of the legations has been accomplished, while the Philadelphia *Ledger* declares that the President "should use as much diligence in getting all Americans, civil and military, out of China, as he exhibited in providing for the relief of Pekin." On the other hand, the Boston *Journal* bluntly affirms that "American soldiers are in China for more than the mere march to Pekin," and the Cleveland *Leader* insists that the troops "must be left where they are until a satisfactory settlement has been arrived at." It is generally assumed that the United States cannot stay its hand until it has obtained satisfactory guarantees of indemnity and future peace, but there is practical accord in wishing to see this result accomplished with as little international complication as possible, and with scrupulous regard for our own declarations. We are glad to see that the notion of a permanent military occupation of China, or the acquisition of territory in that part of the world, meets with no favor in the press of either party.

The race riot at Akron, O., last week was in some respects the most significant and disquieting of the many such occurrences in various parts of the country during the last few years. Akron is neither a town in a "black belt" of the South, nor a great city in the North. It is situated in the northeastern part of Ohio, is the county seat of Summit County, and so recently as 1890 had less than 28,000 inhabitants. It is in that Western Reserve region which was largely settled from New England, and, until the rise of manufacturing industries, was the old-fashioned shire town of a rural county. Even despite the modification which its population has undergone during the past quarter of a century, in which it has grown from about 10,000 to about 40,000 people, it must still have a strong leaven of the old spirit which gave to the district a distinctive and elevated tone. The negro element in the population is very small. In 1890 there were only 451 blacks in a total of 27,601 (the 27,601st being a Chinaman). In other words, the colored contingent was only 2 per cent. as large as the white ten years ago, and there is no reason to suppose that it has gained materially since 1890. The crime which provoked the riot was one which often arouses a community to a high pitch of excitement when the criminal is a white man, but the fury of the Akron mob was plainly aggravated by the fact that the offender was a black man and his victim a white girl. When it was at last proved that the particular black man sought had been spirited away by the officers beforehand, cries arose, "Lynch any nigger," "Get a nigger outside," and the only safety for any colored person was to keep indoors. The destruction of the City Hall by dynamite followed. The police did not strike hands with the mob, as in this city the other day, but were miserably impotent. A Texan town meeting has passed a satirical resolution on the barbarism of this outbreak, but it is clear to any candid observer that wherever such crimes are perpetrated and tolerated by the community, the publicity now given to them makes them contagious over all the land. The South must share the shame with Akron.

The melancholy condition of apathy which causes so much concern to Senator Hanna is likely to be ended if Mr. Bryan keeps on talking as plainly as he did on August 16. He took hold of one of the most cherished of the Republican scarecrows—the awful sacrilege of hauling down "Old Glory"—and showed up its composition very happily. He pointed out that the Administration is now engaged in hauling down the flag in Alaska, for the very good reason that it was flying over territory that did not belong to us. He asked whether the fact that the flag had been raised over Pekin compelled us to maintain an army permanently there to keep it from being hauled down. And he inquired particularly as to the matter of hauling down the flag in Cuba. Is President McKinley going to haul down our flag when the Cubans set up a government, or not? If he is not going to haul it down, what is the meaning of our talk of Cuban freedom and independence? If he is going to haul it down, what does he mean by talking as if the act were sacrilege? On this subject Mr. Bryan has scored a distinct advantage. He has offered the Republican orators a dilemma, from which they can escape only after the manner of the cuttlefish. They have formed the habit of uttering a large quantity of cant and bombast and platitude, and passing it off on patient audiences with the idea that it would be received as profound wisdom. Now they have to deal with an orator who is not afraid to expose their sham patriotism, and who makes their most exalted and impressive appeals ridiculous. Mr. Bryan is vulnerable enough himself, but his adversaries are vulnerable on the subjects which most interest the public, and, in spite of their protests and evasions, he seems likely to keep them on the defensive.

Mr. Bryan did not confine himself to ridiculing the Republicans, but laid down some sound and true doctrine concerning Imperialism in general, and its results in the Philippines in particular. Imperialism, he declared, is the doctrine of the bully and the coward. The spirit that carried us into the Philippine Islands will lead us wherever we can find a people weak enough to be conquered. He took the position, clearly and definitely, that we have no title to the Philippine Islands, according to the Declaration of Independence. We cannot buy people. It is better to have two flags, representing two republics, than one republic representing an empire; and when the American flag comes down in the Philippine Islands, it will be replaced by the flag of a republic established by their inhabitants. This bold and aggressive attitude will be likely to win over many doubtful voters to Mr. Bryan's support. It appeals to the sentiments of justice and generosity in mankind, and such sentiments are very powerful political forces when they can be aroused. To meet these appeals the Republicans are miserably equipped. So far as justice is concerned, all that they can plead is that we paid Spain twenty millions of dollars for her title to the Philippines, at the end of a war waged on the ground that her colonial government was so bad as to annul her title to Cuba. On the score of generosity, the best that the Republicans can say is that our Government has killed a large number of Filipinos in order to impart civilization to the survivors.

The Republican State Convention in Washington week before last showed how little foundation there is for the confidence which Bryan expressed in a Nebraska speech, the other day, that nobody who voted for him on the issues of 1896 has changed his mind on those issues. Four years ago the silver sentiment was so strong in Washington that 112 out of 402 delegates favored putting a free-coinage plank in the platform, and, when election day came, Bryan swept the State for "16 to 1" by a plurality of 12,500. In the late convention not a voice was raised in favor of free coinage; satisfaction was expressed that "the Democratic heresy of free silver has been put to sleep by a Republican Congress," and the party pointed with pride to the fact that "the gold standard has been reaffirmed in the most positive and satisfactory manner." Washington is thus in line with its neighbor, Oregon, where in 1896 a majority of the Republican State Convention voted against putting a declaration opposing free coinage in the platform, and adopted instead a "straddle," while this year it was declared that "the maintenance of the gold standard is the most important political issue." Such proofs of returning sanity are most welcome.

Secretary Gage's interview, published on Monday, telling what a Secretary of the Treasury could do if he desired to put the country off the gold standard, will command the attention of the country. It ought to bring out a reply from Mr. Bryan, but he happens to be sitting between two stools. If he should say that a Secretary appointed by himself could not, or would not, upset the gold standard, then he would place himself in opposition to the bulk of his own party and to the logic of his own platform. If he should say that his Secretary of the Treasury could and would use all the means at his command to promote bimetallism at the ratio of 16 to 1, "without waiting for the aid or consent of any other nation," then he would repel many votes which he might otherwise receive from the Gold Democrats and Independents. It is probable, therefore, that he will continue to say nothing on the subject, and that Secretary Gage will be without an opponent.

Mr. Gage's first contention is that Mr. Bryan could order his Secretary to make payments in silver of all the public debt *that is payable in "coin" and for all current disbursements of the Government*. He points out, however, that a practical difficulty would be found in the fact that the Government has only $16,000,000 of silver dollars of its own on hand, all the rest of them belonging to the holders of silver certificates now in circulation. The paying out of $16,000,000 in silver would be an inconvenience both to the Government officers who should handle them, and to the persons required to accept them, but the latter would find ways to use them, as Mr. Gage observes, at the custom-houses and the internal-revenue offices. One of the practical consequences which should not be overlooked would be the establishment of a premium on gold equal to the cost of handling the silver dollars. Sixteen million cart-wheel dollars will not cart themselves. Force must be applied and cost incurred, and the freight bill must be paid out of the freight. Sixteen million silver dollars weigh upwards of five hundred tons. We do not see how a premium on gold could be avoided under such circumstances. But a premium on gold, however slight or however incurred, would have a very disturbing effect on the public imagination. Very few persons would understand the causes of it. Most people would interpret it by their fears, and the consequences might be disastrous. The probability is that if Mr. Bryan should give the kind of order that Mr. Gage prefigures, he would be compelled by public opinion to rescind it the next day.

Gov. Roosevelt has given another characteristic illustration of the ease with which he can surrender his convictions upon the demand of "the organization." He knows that Odell has been, throughout his Governorship, the representative at Albany of the Platt machine, and as such the chief foe of the measures which he had most at heart; he knows that it was because the machine wanted its own representative in the Executive Chamber that it insisted upon pushing Roosevelt out of the Governorship by nominating him for Vice-President, and that Odell was an active agent in this scheme; he knows that a recognized machine man is most offensive to the independent voters of the State, and consequently that the nomination of Odell involves a risk of defeat which there is no excuse for running. For these reasons the Governor must have been at heart opposed to the nomination of Odell, and for a while he gave the impression that he was doing his duty in trying to prevent it. But the organization having triumphed, Roosevelt now comes out with a glowing eulogy of Odell and a declaration that he is "heartily for him," as a man who "will make an excellent Governor." Platt must take an infinite deal of satisfaction in the ease with which he converts the Rough Rider into a steady-going hack whenever the occasion arises.

It is not without interest, in connection with the proposed extradition of Neely to the Cuban authorities, to recall the views of Gen. Wood, now Military Governor of Cuba, concerning the expediency of subjecting American citizens to the jurisdiction of his "civil courts." They were expressed in a special report made last October, and are as follows:

> "Under the existing condition of things in Cuba no means are provided for the trial of . . . civilian employees of the military establishment, for offences not cognizable under the articles of war, *except the Cuban courts*. . . . I do not believe that it is wise or prudent or in any way desirable to subject American citizens, who are in the service of their own Government, to the jurisdiction and capricious decisions of tribunals composed of persons *alien in race and sentiment, administering a system of laws with which Americans are entirely unfamiliar, and which would not be tolerated in any American community.*"

It is worth while to remember, also, that when the extradition act was passed in order to subject American citizens to the jurisdiction described by Gen. Wood, the Judiciary Committee of the Senate proposed an amendment providing that before the Judge of a court of the United States should order the extradition of any one, he must be satisfied "that proper provision exists for securing to the accused a speedy and fair trial for such offence, where he will be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation, and be confronted with the witnesses against him, and have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favor, and have the assistance of counsel for his defence." Congress rejected this amendment, and provided merely that the Cuban authorities should "guarantee" to the accused person a fair and impartial trial. These circumstances show how easy it is to lose Constitutional rights which have been gained by long and painful struggles.

A correspondent asks us to explain what is the present government of Porto Rico. It consists of a Governor appointed by the President of the United States, an Executive Council of eleven members, six of whom are appointed by the President of the United States and five elected by the people of Porto Rico, and a House of Delegates of thirty-five members elected by the people. All administrative offices are held by the members of the Executive Council, and all franchises, charters, and privileges are granted by the Council, with the approval of the Governor, but may be disapproved by the Congress of the United States. It appears, therefore, that the government of Porto Rico is really in the hands of the President of the United States, who appoints the Governor and a majority of the Executive Council. The persons composing the present Government of the island are both honest and capable. They would be better fitted for their task, indeed, if they could speak the language of the country they govern, but, aside from this, they are undoubtedly fit for their places. The only objection to them is that they do not represent the principles of self-government. When they were appointed, the President was under strong compulsion to make good selections.

The eyes of all Americans were then fixed upon Porto Rico as an orphan suffering bad treatment. Who is to answer for the next appointees? In whose hands will the appointing power be when the time comes for a change? In proportion as the public mind is turned away from Porto Rico and fixed on other things, so will politicians of the Rathbone and Neely type see their opportunity. The spur to good government will be withdrawn, and the danger of bad appointments increase. Who is to guarantee the application of civil-service reform to Porto Rico or the Philippines when political parties are clamoring for its abolishment at home? The more we contemplate Uncle Sam in the light of a guardian angel to foreigners, the more incongruous is the spectacle he presents and the more melancholy the prospect of his wards. The intentions of the people of the United States have nothing to do with the question. Government is not carried on by intentions, but by instruments. The question is not what your intentions are towards Porto Rico or any other colony, but who and what your instruments are and by what rule you select them.

It now appears certain that Sir Wilfrid Laurier's Liberal Ministry will go before the Canadian electors in October. The dissolution of the Liberal House of Commons nearly a year in advance of the natural term is virtually an appeal to the country for a vote of confidence. Already it is possible to trace the main issues of the impending campaign. The Liberals in Canada would be Conservatives in England, and so, conversely, the Canadian Conservatives would be Liberals in England. So far as any principle is at stake, it is conflict between the Imperial policy of Sir Wilfrid Laurier, the Liberal leader, and the Canadian policy of Sir Charles Tupper, the Conservative leader. The issue is, however, by no means sharply drawn, for the Liberals must keep Imperialism in the background in French Canada, while the Conservatives must manage to be pro-Canadian without incurring the reproach of being Anti-Imperial. The Laurier Administration has been so essentially Opportunist—this quite naturally, when the complication of race and party interests in Canada is considered—that it is as difficult for the Opposition to deliver a decent frontal attack as it is for Mr. Campbell-Bannerman's forces to engage Lord Salisbury's at Westminster.

Accordingly we find the opposition conducted along many lines. The Conservatives charge Sir Wilfrid with giving Great Britain a substantial preferential in the customs without the *quid pro quo* which Canadians might and should have had at the English customs. Generally, they assert, in the past four years Canadian interests have been sacrificed to Imperial. Similarly, they allege that the Liberals have made valuable concessions to the United States, in admitting corn free particularly, without a return in kind. Other charges of maladministration abound. The Minister of the Interior is taxed with having administered the immigration laws with reprehensible laxness, and the Minister of Public Works with making shady contracts and carrying his anti-English utterances almost to disloyalty. Scandals in the building of highways and subsidizing of railroads are also alleged. The parties meet squarely at one point—the administration of Dominion finances. The Conservatives point to an increasing expenditure, from the $41,702,383 of the last Conservative Government to an estimated $53,050,000 for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1900, and insist that this neither represents work done of a permanent character, nor the normal growth of Dominion needs, but the reckless extravagance of the Laurier Administration. This, it appears, is the immediate issue of the coming electoral campaign.

The attempt of Mr. Chamberlain to make a grave matter of some letters written by an Englishman to Boer correspondents and recently captured at Pretoria, seems to be a dismal failure. It is similar to the attempt made in this country to prove Senator Hoar and Mr. Atkinson guilty of treason because they opposed killing the Filipinos in the name of civilization and Christianity. Mr. Chamberlain injudiciously asked Mr. Labouchere if he had any explanation to offer of his letters, which were among those captured, to which that vivacious gentleman replied that he was responsible for his acts to the House of Commons, to his constituents, and to the law; and that to Mr. Chamberlain he owed no sort of explanation. He added that if explanations were to be offered, Mr. Chamberlain had an excellent opportunity to make some concerning his action in South Africa, which would receive due consideration. He ended by printing his own letter and forcing the Government to print the rest.

The renewed collapse of prices on the German stock markets this week is perhaps partly due to the apprehension of complications in China, but is probably caused in a great measure by the law against "time contracts." This law is essentially the same as the "anti-option" law proposed in this country by the Populists, which shows that Populism and despotism are very similar. During the civil war, when our Government had ruined its credit by emitting vast quantities of notes which it did not pay, gold became a speculative commodity, and often commanded a high premium in greenbacks. In order to repress the speculators, who were accused of making money out of the distress of their country, Congress passed an act prohibiting dealings in gold. The immediate result was that gold shot up to such a figure that Congress was compelled to repeal the act with precipitate haste. The German act was meant to prevent speculating in stocks on margins, and dealings in futures; and in order to accomplish that result, it put a premium on fraud and dishonesty. No one who bought "futures" was obliged to pay for them, and bankers who trusted to the honor of their clients were in some cases very heavy losers. Under such circumstances prices cannot be supported. If any one wishes to sell a quantity of stock, he may find that no one happens to have the cash to buy, and sales may have to be made for prices far below actual values. When speculation, as it is called, is not meddled with by Government, there are always many people on the lookout for bargains, and their competition keeps prices somewhere near their normal level. There seems to be no lack of productive and commercial activity in Germany, and the paternal benevolence of the Government is apparently the chief cause of the financial disturbances which it undertook to prevent by its meddlesome legislation.

Shortly after the death of Humbert, Queen Margherita composed a rosary, with prayers for her husband's soul, and presented it to the Bishop of Cremona for official sanction. This was kindly granted for the diocese in which the King died, and it is probable that thousands of pious Catholics prayed, in the Queen's words, that God would be gracious to the soul of the dead King. But the Pope intervened, and forbade the use of the prayer either in private devotions or in churches. Technically the Pope was right. Humbert, in the Church's eyes, was a usurper, who died in contumacy against the Pope's authority. It was unseemly, to ecclesiastical thinking, that his virtues or his memory should be celebrated in Roman Catholic churches, or even that his soul should receive any comfort from the mediatory offices of the Church. This may have been good religion; it was very bad politics. The discourtesy of the act has rallied public sentiment in Italy to the side of the widowed Queen and her son, and for the moment, in the long sullen fight between the Vatican and the Quirinal, the Vatican loses.

MR. BRYAN AT TOPEKA.

Being forced to accept the nomination of the Populists, Mr. Bryan has been compelled to show that he agrees with them generally, that he stands on their platform, and that he is one of them in all respects except in name. This service he rendered in Topeka on Thursday, but he did so in very cautious terms. It was the first occasion on which he has been compelled to advocate any principles other than that of opposition to the Imperialist policy of Mr. McKinley, and it is evident that he would have been glad to be excused, since he gave one-half of his time to the discussion of Imperialism, and declared that he considered it the most important question now before the people.

The Populists have been known to us heretofore as the party which believes that the Government can make money out of nothing by merely putting its stamp on a piece of paper, and that its volume should be increased "to an amount sufficient to meet the demands of the business and population, and to restore the just level of prices of labor and production." As an incident and adjunct to that monetary system, the Populists demand the free coinage of silver at the ratio of 16 to 1, but they do not consider the redemption of the Government's paper money in either silver or gold necessary or desirable. They think that the Government ought to own and operate all the railroad and telegraph lines, and that laws should be made by direct vote of the people, and that all public salaries should be made to correspond to the price of labor and its products. These are only a part of the vagaries which they hold, and which they expect Mr. Bryan to help them put in force if he is elected President of the United States.

Mr. Bryan does not say explicitly whether he concurs in the Populist doctrine that redemption of paper money in any kind of coin is necessary, or not, but he says that the Democratic party does not agree with that view, from which the inference must be drawn that he does not agree with it. What he says on this important point is embraced in the following paragraphs:

> "In 1896 the reform forces charged the Republican party with intending to retire the greenbacks. This charge, denied at the time, has been confessed by the Financial Bill, which converts greenbacks, when once redeemed, into gold certificates, and extends new privileges to banks of issue. If a Populist opposed the Republican party when its hostility to greenbacks was only suspected, that opposition should be greater now, since no one can longer doubt the purpose of the Republican party to substitute banknotes for greenbacks
>
> "It is true that the Populists believe in an irredeemable greenback, while the Democrats believe in a greenback redeemable in coin, but the vital question at this time, so far as paper money is concerned, is whether the Government or banks shall issue it. There will be time enough to discuss the redeemability of the greenback when the greenback itself is saved from the annihilation which now threatens it."

The charge here made against the Republican party of an intention to retire the greenbacks and to substitute banknotes for them is not true. We are among those who wish that it were true. The greenback is the one thing at the present time that blocks the road to a sound monetary system. It is the one thing that keeps the Government in the banking business, where it ought never to have been, and where it ought not to remain a day longer than necessary. That the Republicans are far from any thought of retiring and abolishing the greenbacks is proved by the fact that no such proposition was brought forward in either the House or the Senate at the last session, nor was that policy advocated by any Republican on either floor of Congress. Mr. Bryan did, however, make a point when he charged that "the Republican party is now committed to a currency system which necessitates a perpetual debt." This refers to the debt-refunding clause of the Currency Act, which substitutes bonds running thirty years in exchange for those which mature within eight years, and which might be paid off if the Government were so disposed.

Now let us see upon what points Mr. Bryan does agree with the Populists. In the first place, he agrees with them as to the free coinage of silver, although he buries this issue under as many words as possible. He says that

> "If an increase in the volume of the currency since 1896, although unpromised by the Republicans and unexpected, has brought improvement in industrial conditions, this improvement, instead of answering the arguments put forth in favor of bimetallism, only confirms the contention of those who insisted that more money would make better times."

And again:

> "If the Populists felt justified in opposing the Republican party when it sought to conceal its gold-standard tendencies under the mask of international bimetallism, the opposition should be more pronounced in proportion as the Republican party more openly espouses gold monometallism."

These oracular sayings must have puzzled his Populist hearers when they recalled the "cross of gold and crown of thorns," and the other stunning phrases of 1896. It is very plain that Mr. Bryan at Topeka sought to say just enough on this subject to hold the Populist vote, but not enough to offend the Gold Democrats.

On the other points of Populist doctrine, such as "government by injunction," direct legislation, the control of railroads and of Trusts, Mr. Bryan declared himself in general accord with the Populist platform; but in each case his language was guarded and qualified so as to give the least offence to conservative citizens. The speech was carefully prepared, and in a literary point of view was unexceptionable. The concluding portion, on the cost and meaning of standing armies, is very strong, and it is to be hoped that it made an impression on the Populist hearers, who have not hitherto given signs of much interest in Imperialism or much objection to war in the Philippines or elsewhere.

SENATOR HANNA ON PROSPERITY.

Senator Hanna's speech at Asbury Park on Tuesday evening of last week was delivered four or five years too late to have any important effect on national politics. At the time when Mr. Cleveland and Secretary Carlisle were struggling to ward off the consequences of the Republican legislation of 1890, and to preserve the gold standard, people were ready to believe that the financial disasters of the period were due to the Administration then in power. Since that time, however, the public have had leisure to examine the facts without passion or prejudice. The light of history has been thrown upon the financial crisis of 1893 and the subsequent years. The genesis of those troubles is now pretty well understood, and the facts are quite different from the picture drawn by Mr. Hanna in the following words:

> "I want to point out to you an object-lesson. Go back to the midst of the prosperity and happiness that prevailed in 1892. Then furnaces were blazing, spindles were spinning, business was hurrying us back and forth. You wanted a change and you got it. Well, what was it? I need not picture how fires went out in the furnaces, how spindles failed to spin, how unemployed men went hungry, how happiness disappeared, how bad went to worse. It was deplorable. Well, you wanted another change, and you got it. What a change! Furnaces are glowing, spindles are singing their song. Happiness came to us all with prosperity. Do you want another change to get back to '93-97? Of course you don't. Well, you must work to prevent it."

To understand the business situation in 1892 we must glance at that of the first Cleveland Administration, which began in 1885 and ended in 1889. It will be remembered as a period of good times—not a boom, but not hard, dragging times such as we have frequently seen since. One fact stands out with great clearness, and that is the surplus in the Treasury. Mr. Fairchild was then the Secretary, and he was all the time at his wit's end to dispose of the money coming in, so that the loan market might not be cramped by the intake of the Treasury. The purchase of bonds had been so rapid that the price of the 4s had been run up to nearly 130, which was quite unprecedented at that time. The Secretary had deposited about $80,000,000 in national banks, and this fact was made use of by Mr. Blaine as the basis of a charge of favoritism to particular banks, which was as groundless as the similar charge preferred against Secretary Gage a few months ago.

The central fact of the financial situation during the past twenty years has been the redeemability of the Government's legal-tender notes in gold. Everything has depended upon this. Private solvency has hinged upon Government solvency, as it does to-day. The prosperity of every man's business has been conditioned on the Government's ability to meet the daily drafts upon it, of which the redemption of its demand notes was the most important of all. The surplus for the single year 1888 reached the enormous sum of $119,000,000, and the redemptions of the public debt during the four years of Mr. Cleveland's first term were $235,000,000 in excess of the annual sinking fund, which was nearly as much more.

The Republicans came into power in 1889, and soon made havoc of the surplus. Two bills were immediately introduced having this object in view, and a third was brought forward later. One of these was the McKinley Tariff. It contained a clause repealing the duties on sugar, which struck out $55,900,000 of revenue at one blow—that is, about one-half of the annual surplus. The second was a new pension bill, which eventually added $50,000,000 to the expenditures, and which led Corporal Tanner, who was then Commissioner of Pensions, to exclaim, "God help the surplus." The third bill, which came later, was the Sherman Silver Act, the worst of the three in its effects upon private business and upon the Treasury as well.

The Bland-Allison Silver Bill had been in operation since February, 1878, calling for an expenditure of about $25,000,000 per year for silver bullion to be coined into silver dollars—a species of fiat money which was kept at par by a roundabout process of redemption. The Government which paid them out took them back at the custom-house and the tax office, so that anybody could realize par for them by paying them to the Government. Obviously this condition could last only as long as the amount outstanding was no larger than the Government could take in for taxes. The public understood the situation perfectly.

The Sherman Silver Act proposed to increase the purchases of silver bullion from $2,000,000 worth per month to 4,500,000 ounces per month, and to issue a new kind of fiat money on it—a kind that did not need to be coined, and could, therefore, be put out faster than silver dollars. This law was passed in July, 1890. It added to the public expenses about $50,000,000 per year, and not only ran the Treasury in debt for current expenses, but created an apprehension in the public mind that we were within measurable distance of a suspension of gold payments.

The Treasury surplus began to grow less until it disappeared altogether. The gold reserve began to shrink. Secretary Foster, in the latter part of 1892, began to talk about issuing bonds to replenish the reserve, and actually gave an order for the preparation of plates for printing the bonds. Mr. Dolliver of Iowa, the same who has just been appointed Senator from Iowa, was interviewed on the financial situation about the middle of January, 1893, to the following purport:

> "The Treasury is in no *present* danger. It will pay gold on demand for every piece of silver or paper outstanding as long as we [the Republicans] are in power. To be sure, the percentage of gold on hand is not as great as it has been, but it is sufficient. The people won't call for it; the paper currency is good enough for them. *What may happen after the 4th of March is not our affair.* There is no reason why we should go out of our way to help the Democrats. Let each party look out for its own troubles. That is my present view. However, I reserve the right to change it later."

Mr. Dolliver's diagnosis of the situation, both political and financial, in the middle of January, 1893, was correct. It was also frank. It was an acknowledgment that if a panic was approaching, it would not be the work of the incoming Administration, although the latter would have to bear the burden of it. The panic came a few months later. It was caused by the three profligate and disastrous measures enacted by a Republican Congress here enumerated; and now Senator Hanna has the effrontery to point back to the hard times of 1893-97 as though they had been caused by the Administration which suffered from them.

THE NEELY CASE.

Charles F. W. Neely was, until recently, an American citizen enjoying an apparently deserved obscurity. Such reputation as he had was none of the best, and his achievements in Cuba have not been of a description to bring honor either to himself or to his country. So far as he is personally concerned, his countrymen would regard his departure to Cuba, or to any country outside the United States, and his incarceration there, with great complacency. Mr. Neely, however, is likely to find himself in the category of those who have greatness thrust upon them. Judge Wallace ruefully observes that he has had to travel 300 miles, at considerable inconvenience, in order to accord him his rights. His case will occupy a prominent place hereafter in the annals of our jurisprudence, and his name will be often on the lips of lawyers, of judges, and of statesmen. The reasons for this are perhaps not clearly understood by the public; but they are obviously of sufficient importance to make it desirable that they should be known. This is abundantly established by the fact that in Neely's petition for a writ of habeas corpus his attorney has sworn that he is informed (and believes) that the United States Government authorities have made arrangements for the placing of the petitioner on board a vessel for immediate transportation to Cuba as soon as possible after an order for extradition has been made, under such circumstances as will prevent, and are intended to prevent, the petitioner from applying then for a writ of habeas corpus. If this allegation is established, the guilt or the punishment of Neely becomes insignificant; the rights of every American citizen are the real matter at issue.

Stated as concisely as possible, the facts in the case are as follows: Neely, who stands accused of stealing from one of the departments of the anomalous government now existing in Cuba in which he was employed, came to the United States. He was arrested and imprisoned in the Ludlow Street jail in New York, in an action which could probably not be sustained. In order to insure his punishment, Congress on June 6, 1900, passed an act providing for his extradition to the Cuban authorities. On June 27, on two complaints of the United States Attorney under this statute, Circuit Judge Lacombe issued two warrants for Neely's arrest. The United States Marshal took him into custody, exhibiting the warrants as his authority, and on June 29 brought him before Judge Lacombe, when the United States Attorney demanded his extradition under the complaints. The proceedings were adjourned, and on July 24 Judge Lacombe endorsed on the warrants the words "Remanded till decision," under his signature and official title.

Thereafter Judge Lacombe filed an opinion to the effect that Neely should be held for extradition, and stating that he would sign an order so soon as the other proceedings were discontinued. Neely's petition for habeas corpus recited these facts, and by no other proceeding could he have obtained a review of Judge Lacombe's decision. Judge Lacombe suggested that the petition be presented to some other judge than himself, and it was presented to Judge Wallace on August 9. He denied the petition, but allowed an appeal, and made an order directing the marshal to hold Neely in custody pending the appeal. He has now denied a motion to vacate this order, based on the theory that Neely was not in the custody of the marshal when the writ of habeas corpus was applied for. In support of this theory, the marshal made what can hardly be characterized otherwise than as an incorrect return, by endorsing on the warrants, on August 13, a certificate that he had not detained Neely by virtue of the warrants. Judge Lacombe says that he made no order committing Neely under the statute; but he endorsed the warrants as above set forth. As Judge Wallace says, unless Neely was actually or constructively in custody under those warrants, Judge Lacombe had no authority to entertain the proceedings. "Until the warrants were issued and served, the whole proceeding was in the air, and notwithstanding the prisoner may have been held and the witnesses were examined, all that took place was a solemn farce." If he was present merely because the marshal brought him there under process in some other proceedings, Judge Wallace continues, Judge Lacombe "was merely holding a moot court, and his pronouncement would have had no more effect as a legal decision than if it had been made by the United States Attorney, or even by a bootblack upon the corner of the street." Neely must have been in custody in the extradition proceeding, because that was the very foundation of the jurisdiction of the judge to hear and determine the case. The theory that a person may be tried on a criminal charge without being arrested may prevail in France, but it has no place in our jurisprudence.

Judge Wallace, it is to be observed, holds the extradition statute Constitutional; but that question remains to be decided. The rights involved are of transcendent importance, and are similar to those defended by the Supreme Court in the Milligan case in 1865. Milligan was a more odious person than Neely, and was very likely guilty of treason; but the court did not allow its detestation of his character or his offence to affect its judgment. Milligan was tried by a military commission in Indiana, a State where the civil government was in undisturbed operation, and was sentenced to be hanged. He was not in the military or naval service of the United States, and had not resided in any of the States in rebellion, but had been a citizen of Indiana for twenty years. The Supreme Court granted a writ of habeas corpus, saying that it was the birthright of every American citizen, when charged with crime, to be tried and punished according to law. He can be held to answer for an infamous crime only on presentment by a grand jury; he can be tried only by jury; he must be informed of the accusation and be confronted by the witnesses against him; he must have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favor, and have the aid of counsel for his defence. The Supreme Court held, in an opinion which might well be studied in these days of peril to the Constitution, that an American citizen could not be tried by a military commission, deriving its authority from the President as Commander-in-Chief of the army, and sitting in a peaceful community on the assumption that it is the theatre of active military operations.

Neely is not in the military or naval service of the United States. Peace prevails in Cuba. Yet the whole government of Cuba is military, and its Military Governor is its supreme executive, legislative, and judicial authority. He has ordained a code of laws, and he can repeal it to-morrow. He has set up what are called "civil" courts, and by his fiat he can terminate their existence to-day. These courts are not constituted by the people of Cuba—that "free and independent" people recognized by Congress more than two years ago. They do not *derive their authority from Spain or from our Congress.* They are military courts, no matter what they are called.

A subordinate officer in our army in Cuba is now authorized to call upon his Commander-in-Chief to seize American citizens and send them to be tried and punished in Cuba by this subordinate officer at his discretion. Our army is occupying a friendly foreign country, whose freedom and independence we have recognized, where profound peace prevails, but where no civil government exists because the assertion of our military power forbids. This power is usurping the sovereignty of the Cuban people; it has no justification under the Constitution of the United States; it makes no pretence of respecting the Constitutional provisions for the rights of American citizens; and yet it is proposed to send American citizens to Cuba to be disposed of according to the arbitrary direction of an officer of the army who exercises this despotic and anomalous jurisdiction. We can imagine no better illustration than this of the real tendencies of Imperialism; and when the evidence is presented showing the arrangements planned by our military authorities for hurrying Neely off to Cuba the moment that an order for his extradition was signed, the American people may begin to feel that the danger to which they are exposed is not exaggerated.

THE HUNTING OF THE TRUST.

The intense hostility to Trusts manifested in all our party platforms, and displayed by all our politicians, has not yet put an end to these monsters. On the contrary, they appear to flourish like the green bay tree, and to multiply like the seed of Abraham. In this part of the country, and perhaps in some others, the wiles of these insidious "combines" have been too much even for some of the guardians of the public. A French Deputy was once describing to his constituents the demoralizing influences which affected the Chamber, and exclaimed: "In fact, so intense and all-pervading was the corruption which prevailed that even I, who address you, did not altogether escape contamination." Such appears to be the plight of a number of our leading local statesmen. Any ordinary temptation to dishonesty, any moderate inducement to blackmail, any small bribe, their virtue might be sufficient to resist. But when our vast modern aggregations of capital descend on our legislators like Zeus upon Danaë, they are irresistible. The average politician does not lay claim to superhuman integrity; but, to do him justice, in the very moment of yielding he cries out against the wickedness of the tempter. Satan may get him; but as he is carried off, he will kick, and denounce the methods of the evil one.

There is some reason to believe that the condition of affairs in the State of Texas is somewhat better than this. The hostility to Trusts there appears to be unusually stern and uncompromising. At all events the Texas Legislature passed a law against Trusts which has actually proved to be Constitutional, and which looks extremely drastic. In fact, it is difficult to see how any business can be transacted without violating this statute, and of course the Trusts are comprehended under these broad provisions against agreements of sale of all kinds. At all events, an oil company, said to be controlled by the arch-demon, the Standard Oil Trust, was caught red-handed, selling oil in Texas, and, in spite of its protests and denials and squirmings, the penalty of the statute was applied. The criminal corporation, which drew its guilty life from the State of Missouri, and was doing business in Texas under a license, had its license revoked, and was perpetually enjoined from continuing its nefarious transactions in that State. The struggles of the octopus were desperate. Every court in Texas was resorted to, and at last the Supreme Court of the United States was reached. It was all in vain. A Texas ex-Judge, named McFall, says that the wicked corporation laughed a laugh of defiance at Texas when it reached that haven of foreign corporations, the Federal Court; but it did not laugh long, for the Supreme Court decided against its appeal. The majesty of the law was sustained; the triumph of the State of Texas was complete.

Alas, that triumph was of short duration. The fair fruits of victory turned to ashes in the mouths of the representatives of the State. About five minutes after the license of the criminal corporation had been revoked, and it had been thrust from the State with the mark of Cain branded on its brow, another corporation, having the same name, hailing from the same jurisdiction, having some of the same members, and having purchased all the property of the ejected corporation, applied for a license to do business in the State of Texas, and got it. We need not say that this outrageous and entirely legal proceeding aroused the most furious indignation among the Anti-Trust politicians. Judge McFall voices their wrath. His sincerity cannot be doubted, since he has tendered his services to the Governor, free of charge, in the work of vindicating the law. He intimates that some of the officials of the State had "negotiated" with the attorney of the oil company, and there are suggestions of the use of champagne and cigars on a private car. Impartial justice compels us to say that the said attorney denies the champagne and private-car charge, and pleads that if any cigars were employed, they were of the three-for-a-quarter kind. In this jurisdiction such a plea would of course establish a complete defence. Our courts would take judicial cognizance of the results of offering any politician of influence cigars of that description, and would at once give judgment for the defendant. Whatever opinion they might entertain of the wisdom of an attorney against whom such charges were brought, they would instantly acquit him of all suspicion of the guilt of embracery. But it is quite possible that different standards prevail in Texas, and Judge McFall is no doubt justified in inquiring into the cigar episode with the utmost thoroughness.

Leaving that matter aside, Judge McFall tackles the main problem with vigor. He impressively observes that laws are enacted with the expectation that they are to be enforced, and that those who break them will be punished, "otherwise it were mere mockery and waste of time to enact them," and very justly adds that in this case the Anti-Trust Law does not appear to have been vindicated in the slightest degree. With equal propriety he remarks that "we, as Democrats," have no right to accuse the Republicans of insincerity in their attitude towards Trusts, when the most drastic laws that Texas can frame prove a delusion and a snare. The conclusions appear to us irresistible, and are so eloquently urged as to deserve to be given in Judge McFall's own words: "What standing has the Democracy before the people when her greatest statesmen condemn in matchless oratory on stump and in forum the doings of the Trust, and appear, as soon as one is caught and convicted, as special champions to stay the just judgment of the courts?" We fear that unscrupulous Republicans may pervert this utterance for campaign purposes; but we cannot help it. The truth must be told. *Fiat justitia, ruat cœlum.*

The attorney for the oil company shows the cold callousness to be expected in one occupying his position. Instead of eloquence, he confines himself to law, and resorts to common sense instead of political appeals. He asks some pertinent questions, which may well be considered by all sincere Trust-hunters. Does a judgment of forfeiture against a foreign corporation prevent its stockholders from abandoning it and organizing a new one? Does it prevent some of them from purchasing the shares of the others, and from purchasing the property of the defunct corporation? Does it prevent entire strangers from organizing a corporation to transact the same business as the defunct company? Does it destroy the property of the old corporation? Cannot this property be sold? If sold, must not some one buy it? If these transactions are legitimate, "why insist that the devil shall be whipped around the stump, unless our purpose is to deceive the unthinking and the ignorant?" The answer to the last question is given by the propounder of it—"We must not begrudge our politicians the privilege of utilizing to the fullest extent the advantages to be derived from stentorian denunciation."

ON TRANSLATING THE 'ARABIAN NIGHTS.'—I.

The first Englishing of 'The Nights' was at the hands of unknown denizens of Grub Street early in the eighteenth century. They pitchforked into Gallic English the French paraphrase of Galland (1704-1717), a *grand traducteur* of the school of Chaucer. The first appearance in English literature, properly so called, was made when Addison retold the story of Alnashar in the *Spectator* (November 13, 1712). Yet the vitality of the Grub Street version, due to the good blood from which it sprang, has been great. It is the parent of the numberless "new and complete editions," "new translations from the Arabic," "careful revisions after the original," which form the stock 'Arabian Nights' to our own day, and which should make up a weighty chapter in the history of the great publishing humbug. The next essays were made, at Simla and at Cairo, direct from Arabic texts. Henry Torrens, Irishman, novelist, poet, the most brilliant figure in a brilliant Indian circle, had felt the glamour and recognized the problem. The single volume which he published in 1838 falls nearer the mark than any other English attempt. It is often inaccurate; it is often free in its turning of the verses; it is not complete. But it is full of the atmosphere of the East; the meadows that shore its seas are bathed in magic light; its figures wander in gardens of enchantment, by the spray of fountains of mystery; the casements of its palaces open

"o'er the foam
Of perilous seas, in faery lands forlorn."

Torrens's prose is almost word for word, and in that is its charm; the simple style of the prose of 'The Nights,' flexible in its simplicity, renders itself; attempts to enrich its vocabulary, to correct its dishevelled order, to bring picturesqueness into its monotonous syntax, and to find epigrams under its common words, only result in imitations of the 'Decameron' or the 'Mabinogion' in a style bewitched with preciousness and conceits. And the quality of its verse, too, has been rightly recognized. All Arab poetry is lyric; dramatic lyric, it may be, of Browning's fashion, but always sung or chanted. It is unthinkable without the living voice to render it, and the living situation from which it springs or which brings it again to mind. An occasion is demanded for it, and it amply fulfils Goethe's canon that the only true poem is the *Gelegenheitsgedicht*. And, further, the poetry of 'The Nights' is, in great part, current coin, running easily from the tongue, held in the memories of all; the same scraps recur again and again, and show their common use. All besides is improvisation, marked with the fluent shallows and fiery nothings of its kind. Between the two we move from classical lines with the dignity of the finest Shaksperian blank verse to rattling drinking-songs struck out with the flash of the moment; from wishywashy love poetry, sung with a die-away grace, to expressions of the noblest religious resignation and trust outside of the Psalms. But all is sung and singable; it swings and rolls in lyric lines of unfailing rhythm. And so, too, it is rendered by Torrens. He did not attempt an exact reproduction of either the thought or the form. That *ignis fatuus* of learned translators, the attempt to naturalize in English essentially foreign metres and rhyme movements, did not lead him its weary dance over the quaking bogs of verbal artifice and jolting rhythms which it haunts. He simply cast his verses in that English form which suited their content, and was justified by the result. His songs sing themselves; his quotations cling. We do not wonder at the memories of their users; we see how the tags of verse must have been light upon the lips. Here and there Burton has used Torrens's translations when a piece of verse was repeated, and the weary journeyers through his version will remember such scraps as veritable oases in the desert. In both these points, then—the verbatim prose, the free verse—Torrens showed that literary instinct and feeling which is more necessary even than scholarship to the successful translator.

If this version had been completed, Mr. Payne has confessed that he would not have attempted his own. But the strange fate that has pursued the original text of 'The Nights' clings fast to its translations and translators. No one can read it through without dying, is the story. It brings bad luck, and this is by some mystery, not by length or folly; for there are tales in Arabic far longer and yet more foolish to the Muslim mind. Yet of all the unluckinesses the worst has been that the appearance of part of Lane's translation (1839-1842) stopped Torrens at the close of the first fifty Nights. Lane, even at that time, was a far better Arabist than Torrens. *He* had been only a very clever man with a linguistic talent; he had picked up some Arabic as he had picked up a dozen other languages. Lane was a scholar and a student. He found the stories of 'The Nights' delightful, but no mere delight in the stories would have moved him to pass them on to others. The value which he set on his translation was the light which it, joined to the elaborate commentary with which he equipped it, shed on the life, the manners and the customs of the mediæval Arabs. In this he was undoubtedly right. No student of the Muslim East can afford to be without it, and a student may read it again and again and learn from it every time. But that is all. It never can be a treasure-house of pleasant things, a great three-decker "to carry tired people to the Islands of the Blest." And the ground is not far to seek. Lane's forte was description; what he saw he could describe so that any one else could see it. But he had no trace of imagination; allusion that produces illusion he knew nothing of. And, further, he had worked out for himself a solid semi-Biblical style that had many points of advantage. It carries with it a certain weight of Eastern truth, but it makes the figures move too like Old Testament patriarchs and prophets, and too little like the lively and often most graceless set that they were. There are men in 'The Nights,' it is true, that might have stalked through Genesis or Samuel, but the prevailing dignity of Lane's prose ill consorts with the out-at-elbows, slouching fashion of most of his original. It is written in no classical forms—except in scraps here and there, where the story-teller very consciously strives to climb the hoights of foine language; it is only a fixing in letter and line of the current *lingua franca* of mediæval Arabic. Lane's failing to see and render this makes him, as Leigh Hunt said, "resemble an Arab full dressed, compared with the lighter half-apparel of Mr. Torrens." And the Arab of 'The Nights' is in "half-apparel" throughout. But it is still worse with the rendering of the verse. That is in prose, too, and it of the flattest; accurate in a verbal way, but infinitely misleading as to use and spirit. Put a song of Béranger or Burns into English or French prose of the market-place, and even then the parallel is not complete. For Béranger and Burns are often read, and those verses were always sung to lute or viol.

The next to enter the lists was Mr. John Payne. His version (1882-1884) is absolutely complete, and is thus in a different class from any that preceded. He served himself heir on Torrens; his object was to do what Torrens had left only begun, and to do it, if more completely, yet with Torrens's aims. At his hands 'The Nights' again became a story-book after their perversion to sociology at the hands of Lane. But the pity is that it is a story-book of mediæval Europe, and not of the mediæval East. It may be that Western chivalry sprang from Antar and his fellow-knights of the desert, but there is a great gulf fixed between the 'Morte d'Arthur' and any Eastern romance. It may be, too, that the Italian novelists, from Straparola down, drew upon Arab tales that came in the wake of the Saracen army of Frederick II., the great Hohenstaufen; even that Ariosto and Boccaccio knew 'The Nights' with their plan. But there is little in 'The Nights' that would not need much change to stand without jar in the 'Decameron,' and almost nothing that could be taken over straight into the 'Orlando.' Mr. Payne deserves all credit for the return which he made to the literary starting-point. But a student of early French poetry and a translator of Villon is sorely handicapped in approaching 'The Nights.' Perhaps a longer acquaintance with Arabic and the Muslim East would have brought riper appreciation of the atmosphere and style of his original, but the fact remains that it is rendered much as he later rendered Boccaccio, that his three Ladies of Bagdad sing to the Rabelaisian Porter much as Fiametta and Filomena sang to their languid company in the Italian garden. Mr. Payne's 'Nights' "suffer a sea-change into something rich and strange," but the richness and strangeness of Wardour Street furniture and of mediæval tapestries go ill with the simplicity and directness of popular Arab speech. Even the pure love-tale of 'The Nights' is not told in the cumbrous style of Boccaccio. The pathos touches more directly; the sentiment is truer and less involved; Chaucer could have rendered it better than any Italian. And when all is made over in similar picturesque fashion—the crudest folk-tales, told without art in a chimney-corner, as homely as in Grimm and to be retold only in Grimm's language, beast-fables that none could retell aright except him who has already retold the stories of Brer Rabbit, other folk-tales, again, which have been wrought with the deftest skill into long creations of genius—all we can say is that it is a very pretty story-book, but it is not 'The Arabian Nights.'

The next adventurer, and in quick succession, was Sir Richard Burton. He knew 'The Nights,' after his erratic fashion, as no other European ever did. Oriental life, above and below the surface—a distinction which does not exist for the East—he knew throughout. He recognized, too, the precise nature of the charm which went with Galland's version and the Englishings which followed him, and how that differed from the tone of the original.

> "The immortal fragment," he says, "will never be superseded in the infallible judgment of childhood." "Those who look only at Galland's picture, his effort to 'transplant into European gardens the magic flowers of Eastern fancy,' still compare his tales with the sudden prospect of magnificent mountains seen after a long desert march; they arouse strange longings and indescribable desires; their marvellous imaginativeness produces an insensible brightening of mind and an increase of fancy-power, making one dream that behind them lies the new and unseen, the strange and unexpected—in fact, all the glamour of the unknown."

The thing could hardly be better put. That he recognized, too, the weakness of Mr. Payne is evident to every one who can read between the lines of his references to his immediate predecessor. The style of 'The Nights,' the prose and the verse in all their phases, he understood. The whole problem of the translator lay bare to him. Perhaps he regarded it as insoluble; perhaps he thought that Mr. Payne had made the nearest approach possible to a solution. At any rate, he turned with all deliberation and gave himself to anthropology as Lane had done to manners and customs. His great work (1886-1888)—for it is truly great—is a clue to 'The Nights' and to the life therein for the Arabist who can weigh Burton's judgments and reject his eccentricities. To the English reader it gives no true idea of the original, and nothing could be further from being an English classic. No one will ever delight in it; many will study it. Perversities of style make it unreadable for its own sake. Such phrases as "a red cent," "belle and beldame," "a veritable beauty of a man," "O, my cuss," "thy hubby," "a Charley," may possibly have Arabic equivalents, but certainly cannot render those for us. No illusion can survive such barbarisms. The long, lumbering lope of its verses, too, is only a degree better than Lane's prose. Its futilities of annotation are a perpetual menace. The fate of the Household Edition brings all to a point: when deprived of unpublishable matter and relying solely on its English value, the book was a flat failure.

THE PARIS EXPOSITION.—VIII.

IN GENERAL.

PARIS, August, 1900.

The Paris Exposition is now, but only now, fairly complete, and one can take stock of the items of success and failure. To an American the only standard by which comparison can be made is, of course, Chicago, and I think the universal verdict is that the effect produced by the nondescript, bizarre style of the Paris buildings, though it is most artistically aided by the use of color, kept well under control, and not allowed to run riot as in the Transportation building at Chicago, is far less imposing and even pleasing than the strictly classical models followed in the group of buildings which surrounded the Court of Honor. The two permanent buildings (to be used, as was the old Palais d'Industrie, which they replace, for the annual Salon and such purposes), are imposing structures, and the court between them forms an appropriate vestibule to the magnificent view of the superb new Pont Alexandre III., and the Avenue des Invalides beyond. But nothing more hideous in color and design than the trumpery temporary Porte Monumentale, which introduces the visitor to the grounds from the Place de la Concorde, was ever conceived. The most pleasing view is that obtained by looking from the Pont Alexandre III. down the Seine, whose left bank is lined for half a mile by the national buildings, rising from a noble and spacious platform, and whose right bank supports the picturesque houses of Old Paris, which so rivet the attention that the eye passes heedlessly over the large, almost too severely plain, building which contains the interesting exhibit of the municipality of New Paris, and the greenhouses for the horticultural display.

Another feature which mars the architectural effect of the more imposing buildings is the confusion created by the intermingling of side-shows with the serious Exposition. The most glaring instance is an ugly yellow shed erected just as you cross the Pont Alexandre III., and which blocks the entrance to the Faïence department of the great Industrial building. Its walls are plastered over with invitations to enter and see within the posturing of Oriental dancing girls. The great space accorded to accessories of this kind was probably determined by financial considerations; but the Exposition proper is so large, and covers necessarily a space so much greater than human strength can possibly compass during the short stay of an average visitor, that it seems to be unwise to distract his attention and use up his energies by forcing him to wander through a labyrinth of side-shows. Some of these are, however, as worthy of visiting as anything within the exhibit walls of the Exposition buildings. Félix's groups of historical figures in contemporary costumes, representative of every period of French history, each group dressed as correctly as the most accurate research enabled eminent students to design, is worthy of being perpetuated. The extraordinary illusion produced by the fleeting scenery of the Trans-Siberian Railroad, as you sit in one of the sumptuous cars of that world-encircling road, is a novelty in panoramic effects. The gorgeous reproduction of one of the rock-hewn temples of Cambodia is a monument that ought to be made of something more durable than plaster. These and others of the accessories really add greatly and appropriately to the educational interest of the Exposition; but they are so buried in a multitude of worthless, money-making, and sometimes highly objectionable concessions that the weary sightseer is likely to overlook them.

As to the Exposition itself, in some departments it is beyond comparison the best ever got together. The industries of neither this country nor England are, in any group, adequately represented, unless it be in the Department of Electricity, where our large companies make a conspicuous demonstration, not only of their machinery, but of its adaptability. The electric railroad and the moving platform—one of the most blessed novelties to the weary pedestrian—are from the workshop of the Westinghouse Company. But France preëminently, then Russia and Germany, and in fact all the nations of northern and central Europe except England, make splendid and most costly demonstrations of what they are achieving in the field of metallurgy, mechanics, the manufacture of textile fabrics, ceramics, and jewelry. The Exposition is built primarily for the glory of France as unmistakably as Chicago's Fair was conceived and executed for the glory of the United States, and therefore, as might be expected, the French exhibits are, in almost every department, the largest and the best. The display of silks and delicate tissues, whether in the piece or made into artistic ladies' clothing, is one which the most uninitiated layman can but look at with awe and admiration. The French metallurgists have also exhibited in their stupendous trophies not only the wonderful feats they can perform out of metal, but the art with which they can exhibit their handiwork, though in this last respect the Swedish exhibitors perhaps rival them. In ceramics Europe shows no advance. Perhaps the most noteworthy exhibit in the whole show is that of our Rookwood potteries. War is painfully *en évidence*. The Krupp Works make no important display of their metal work, intended for peace or war; but Maxim has a pavilion to himself, and the great Schneider Works justify the fame their guns have brought them through the Boer War, by the display they make of weapons of destruction under the huge iron turret which towers above all neighboring buildings.

Nothing can be more attractively displayed than the exhibits in the Agricultural Department, where a prominent and novel feature of the Exposition is beautifully carried out, though necessarily on too large a scale for permanent preservation; namely, the Historical Museum of the past century's progress in agriculture. In each and every section there is a similar collection, intended to illustrate the development of each branch of science and art during the century just closed. These collections of the century's workmanship in metals, furniture, embroidery, etc., do not always show improvement and progress in the resulting products, however much advance the last-made articles may exhibit in cheapness and rapidity of manufacture over the first; but as fields for study they are so important that it is to be hoped they will be, as far as possible, assembled into a permanent collection, when the Exhibition closes. There is room for most of these in the sumptuous building opposite the French Art Gallery, the Petit Palais, where are now shown the finest examples obtainable of the masterpieces of ornamental art work, as expressed above all in Church ornaments and vestments from the earliest times of Gallic civilization till today. One difficulty, and perhaps an insuperable one, in the way of securing and combining these scattered groups of historical objects, lies in the fact that they are composed in great measure of treasured articles lent by private collectors. But the same generosity which impelled the owners to lend them for a season might, seeing how their liberality has been appreciated, tempt them to extend the benefit. In truth, some such memorial and perpetual residuum of these immense agglomerations of beautiful and instructive objects is the only way of obtaining any adequate compensation for the enormous thought and energy expended on their collection and arrangement. Very few of the millions of footsore and exhausted wretches who, in a mental state of semi-consciousness, drag their weary limbs through miles and miles of galleries, in which such a variety of objects are passed in such rapid succession that each succeeding effort of mind obliterates the memory of the preceding observation, carry away anything but the vaguest impression of what they have seen.

But if from these stupendous piles of material there could be selected a typical collection of the objects which would illustrate the perfection reached by each art, and the steps by which it was attained, or the retrogressive stages which mark its decay, and these objects were preserved for study in quietness and ease for all time, the intrinsic value of these overgrown expositions would be enormously enhanced. Had such collections been made from all the great world's fairs since that of 1851, there would be available for the student and manufacturer a series of standards of comparison which would be of inestimable value. We attempted to do it in the Armour Museum after the Chicago Fair, but in an unsystematic fashion and with somewhat incongruous results.

Turning from the Exhibition to the greater exhibition in which it is set, Paris itself, the city never looked more beautiful, and never succeeded better in courteously treating its guests—at least, that was my experience, and the experience of almost all whom we met. Englishmen and Americans who were delegates to the several Congresses were accorded fully, if not more than, their share of honor, and every class of the people, from railroad porters to cab drivers, seemed to vie with each other in civility. Of course, as is right and to be expected, every one is endeavoring to make all he can legitimately, and some are probably trespassing beyond the bounds of reason and propriety in taking advantage of this rare opportunity of filling their pockets; but the charge of universal extortion is as unjust as that of universal incivility. The more popular hotels have raised their rates for rooms about 50 per cent., but the restaurant rates are not much above normal. The cab drivers are grateful for a *pourboire* of 10 sous instead of 5 sous—not a serious tax on any one's resources; and gratuities generally should be increased if a kindly farewell is to be expected on parting; but all who yield to these legitimate excesses, and who invite civility by according civility, will have no grounds for complaint. Moreover, any slight overcharge outside the Exposition grounds is compensated for by the low rate of admission. No money is taken at the gates, but tickets are sold by hawkers on the streets, in stores, and everywhere. And day by day the syndicate which controls the sale fixes the price of a one-franc admission ticket. It sold down occasionally to 20 centimes or 4 cents, but some days rose to 45 centimes (9 cents). Even if, therefore, there are 150,000 admissions, the gate money does not amount to a very large sum. On fête nights, and to visit the Friday illuminations, those who enter after six o'clock are usually charged four admission tickets. The Exposition 20-franc bonds, which cover not only the vague chances of profits, but twenty admission tickets, a share in a lottery, and a right to a discount of 25 per cent. in the price of admission to many of the side-shows, are selling at from 10 to 15 francs. The Exposition is therefore not likely to be a financial success, and consequently the universal good humor is the more to be commended.

JAMES DOUGLAS.

Correspondence.

THE MUSIC HALL AND THE BOER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The burghers of the South African Republics have been treated throughout the war as regular belligerents, a character to which they had an unquestionable claim, the Transvaal having been designated in the indictment of the Jameson Raiders as a foreign state, and they having observed the laws and humanities of war. But now, because they hold out as guerrillas when they have been overwhelmed rather than conquered in the field, the edict goes forth from the Imperial Music Halls that they shall be treated not as belligerents, but as rebels, and shot when they are taken; while their farms are to be burned and the women and children turned out to perish. This is exactly what Maximilian, or rather Bazaine, did in Mexico. In that case American opinion was not doubtful.

It is manifest that the Boers would have laid down their arms before this had they been treated as honorable enemies. But Mr. Chamberlain would have nothing but abject and unconditional submission. It is a pity that there cannot be infused into the statesmanship of the man who has the character of the country in his hands, something of the sentiment of an English gentleman.

EQUITY.

August 22, 1900.

THE STATE OF ITALY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The death of King Humbert is too freshly in our minds for one to say what historical truth demands, and he was such a sympathetic figure personally, so sincerely devoted to his people and in many ways so noble an example to the rulers of Europe, that it is difficult for me, who lived in Italy most of the time of his reign, knew him personally, and always received such courteous recognition as an honest friend of Italy, to express my honest convictions concerning him. But I cannot allow the *Nation* to commit itself (No. 1831) to the prevalent error, that his death is, politically, "loss to Italy." When my hands are freer from the pressing engagements now holding me, and the period of mourning for the man has passed, I shall, I hope, be able to do justice at once to him and to Italy; but I must now say that, in his mistaken conception of his duty to the Crown and his people at large, he has done more than any other man or combination of men in Italy to open the way to the legislative anarchy which exists and the social anarchy which is preparing.

One of the wisest and most patriotic Italian statesmen I know, whose participation in public affairs began before the kingdom of Italy, said to me in the last year of my residence in Rome, that the only hope of the endurance of the monarchy was in the abdication of the King; and this was true. To make it clear and to do justice to Italy without injustice to the late King as man, citizen, and gentleman, would be impossible for me at the moment; but the fact is that the progress of political demoralization in Italy has been largely due to the fact that Humbert never insisted on maintaining the conservative prerogatives of the Crown, but paid the same deference to a disorderly demonstration of the subversive minority that he did to the deliberately expressed will of the constitutional majority of the nation. I do not believe that the kingdom of Italy, as now constituted, could have resisted ten years more of his reign, which was in every sense the antithesis of that of his father.

But in more than this you are mistaken. "The oppressive burthen of the Triple Alliance" is a phrase absolutely without sense. The Triple Alliance saves the country fifty million francs a year, and has permitted a reduction of the standing army by a hundred thousand men, directly and indirectly, and allowed a still larger reduction if the King could have been induced to consent to it. Every attempt at reform of the army involving reduction of the *cadres*, in Crispi's time and in the succeeding Ministry of Gen. Ricotti, however, broke down before the opposition of the King. In the beginning of the Triple Alliance, the German Government advised the reduction of the army by 100,000 men, which the King consented to only after financial disasters had made it imperative.

The "humiliation of the Abyssinian campaign" was directly and solely due to the King's refusal to permit the recall of Baratieri, who refused to obey the order of the Ministry.

The "crushing weight of ever-increasing taxation" is another fable. The fact is that Italy is rapidly growing rich, faster in proportion than France; and this great prosperity is the momentary salvation of the existing order of things, which politically is being continually undermined, and in the day of real national depression it will go down like a house of cards. The "growth of socialism and anarchy" is most rapid in the most prosperous portion of Italy, especially in Milan, where the wealth and commercial and industrial activity are greatest and the working classes are well to do.

From what I know of the new King, Victor Emanuel III., I believe he will be a sterner guardian of the prerogatives of the crown than his father was, and that his ideal of a sovereign is rather his grandfather. And he will do what his father never did, viz., listen to the counsels of Queen Margherita, who had always a higher standard of royal conduct than Humbert. But that any wisdom on the part of the sovereign can stop the decline, I do not believe. Italian politics are rotten, and the Parliament is the derision of the whole country. The Legislature, the bench, and the bar are to such a degree corrupt that no instrument of reform remains. The people would rejoice at the abolition of the elective chamber; it has no faith in the justice of the courts or the honesty of the *avvocati*—a hungry swarm, who, as my personal experience proves, are more ready to sell the case to the other side than to fight it out honestly. And the late King never moved a hand to further any reform.

Yours truly, W. J. STILLMAN.

FRIMLEY GREEN, SURREY, ENGLAND,
August 14, 1900.

THE MUSLIM LEGALITY OF CHESS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you permit one whose knowledge of the problem of the origin of chess is derived mainly from the excellent article by "W. F." in your issue of the 16th, to offer one or two comments from the point of view of a student of Muslim jurisprudence?

In that article Professor Macdonell of Oxford is quoted as asserting that chess "may have become known in Spain under the Saracen ruler Hakem II. (961-976)," and that assertion is criticised as a mere inference and as based upon surmise.

I do not know why this especial "Saracen" is drawn into the controversy, but it is safe to say that chess must have been known in Spain under Hakam II. (I presume it is al-Mustansir, the Umayyad Khalifa of Cordova), and that he must have had in his library books dealing with chess. The reason is, that the legality of chess is one of the most vexed questions in Muslim law, and has been debated by the Muslim lawyers since the earliest times. Sections on it form part of every law book. The point not only is an ethical one, but has a direct bearing on legal praxis. Can one who plays chess for a stake or for nothing, often or occasionally, be admitted as a legal witness? Does such playing do away with his legal integrity and reduce him to be "a person of light understanding," whose testimony must be rejected? Over that the lawyers have fought since there was law in Islam; and it is evident that it was a question of a common practice of which law had to take account.

As I have few Arabic books here, I cannot quote much immediate evidence, but no student of Muslim law would ever dream of disputing what is said above. I give now what immediate evidence I can. In the time of the second Umayyad Khalifa, Yazid I. (A. H. 60-64; A. D. 680-683), chess (*shatranj*) was played at his court: see Von Kremer, 'Culturgeschichte,' i., p. 142, who refers to De Goeje, 'Fragm. Hist. Arab.,' p. 102, inaccessible to me here). Even then the legality was in doubt. The believer, according to a tradition from the Prophet, should amuse himself with three things only—his horse, his bow, and his wife or wives. These are evidently all on much the same basis; we may compare the saying of 'Umar, the second Khalifa, to his wife, "Thou art naught but a plaything in the corner of the house." What, in that case, asked the lawyers, is the position of such an amusement as chess? If a man plays it as a pastime, it comes within the sweep of this tradition, is useless, vain, and destroys legal status. If, on the other hand, he plays for a stake, it comes under the direct Qur'anic prohibition of gambling, as a thing in which there is more evil than profit. Such is the interpretation of the case by Abu Hanifa, the founder of one of the four legal rites, who died in A. H. 150 (A. D. 767). No legal writings of his have come down to us, but we have a tractate by his immediate pupil, Muhammad ibn al-Hasan (d. A. H. 189=A. D. 805) called 'al-Jami' as-Saghir fil-fiqh' (The Lesser Collection in Law), in which the opinion of the Master is clearly laid down that it is illegal to play at nard, shatranj, and fourteen, whatever that may have been. But ash-Shafi'i, the founder of another of the four schools, who died A. H. 204 (A. D. 817), ruled that while playing for a stake was distinctly illegal, yet a man might play at chess for the sake of his mind; it is, therefore, not simply an amusement, and so does not come within the tradition from the Prophet.

I regret that, situated as I am here, I am unable to state the views of Mālik ibn Anas and Ahmad ibn Hanbal, the founders of the remaining two schools. But enough has been given to show how important a part shatranj plays in Muslim law. Further, it is to be remembered that these four founders of schools were simply the first jurists to leave behind them a systematic body of teaching and a missionary school of pupils. The juristic development runs back far beyond their time, and, in fact, to the death of Muhammad in A. H. 11. I have already pointed to traces of shatranj in the reign of Yazid I. (A. D. 680-683), and I cannot doubt —if your writer will pardon my "English pen"—that the game, in Arabia, goes still farther back.

One word more. I do not understand how "unter seinem auf das Sanskrit *caturanga* zurückgehenden Namen" can be rendered, as it is on p. 132, col. 3, "under a name which is a reversion to the Sanskrit *caturanga*." DUNCAN B. MACDONALD.

NEW HARBOR, MAINE, August 20, 1900.

THE FORTUNES OF A PLAGIARISM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Though, not improbably, the matter here brought forward has already been ventilated in some quarter or other, yet the historico-literary interest which attaches to it may be held to justify the hazard of repeating what can hardly be familiar to the general reader.

In 1727, William Warburton, eventually Right Reverend by celestial courtesy, but, from first to last, something very different, weighed ethically, put forth a small book, his second venture as an author. Its title, much too long to be transcribed in full, begins: "*A Critical and Philosophical Enquiry into the Causes of Prodigies and Miracles.*" Of this performance, one of promise, but immature and ill-written, the final paragraph, in which the University of Oxford is had in contemplation, is in these words:

> "Methinks I see her, like the mighty Eagle, renewing her *immortal Youth*, and purging her opening Sight at the unobstructed Beams of our benign Meridian SUN, which some pretend to say had been dazzled and abused by an inglorious pestilential METEOR; while the ill-affected Birds of Night wou'd, with their envious Hootings, prognosticate a Length of Darkness and Decay."

Warburton's salient peculiarities, illaudable as well as laudable, were pronounced already in his middle age; and his promotion to the episcopal bench failed to operate perceptibly in repressing manifestations of his coarse and intolerant idiosyncrasy. Coupled with genuine erudition—and such, though deficient in exactness, was his—we ordinarily observe, if not humility, a modest reticence; but, with him, it was wholly otherwise. At least, in the ranks of the learned, a man of more towering arrogance has been a phenomenon of rare occurrence. With mordant wit, it was said of him that he would have tossed up his nose at the twelve Apostles, if he had met them in the street. Such, even, was his ungracious disposition, that, as an author, he could not, to his content, announce his sense of his own matchless superiority, without indulging in jibes and flouts not far removed from billingsgate. To traverse his opinions, valid as might be the grounds for so doing, was, in his eyes, enough to stamp any one as well-nigh a criminal. Moreover, in the case of the dead whose views chanced to run counter to his own, his malice towards them was no less acrimonious, as were his denunciations of them no less contumelious, than they were when their objects were living speculators who deviated from his ways of thinking. In short, an odious type of humanity is that which he represented, despite the strenuous efforts of the sycophantic Bishop Hurd to paint him into fair-seeming. If, from an attorney, which he was at the outset of his career, he had effloresced into a judge, and so realized a destiny to which his ability was competent, history might have had, in him, his environment permitting unbridled license of evil-speaking, a second Jeffreys. As it was, since he besmirched a mitre, instead of the ermine, we must go back to Bishop Bale, a passed-master in base invective, to discover his parallel. Curious reading, to particularize, is his correspondence, provided we are entitled to look for a personal exemplification of the charities and the proprieties in an official teacher of them. To do the consecrated swashbuckler even-handed justice, however, no slight praise is to be awarded him for the admirable letter of expostulation which he addressed to the notoriously unclerical Sterne.

Among the many on whom, to his discredit, this vulgar-souled prelate expectorated his spite, was one whom he must have heartily wished that he had not provoked to retaliate. This was Robert Lowth, who, in 1765, the year before he was raised to the see of St. David's, was incited to reply to his traducer.

The circumstances were these. Lowth, in his *De Sacrâ Poesi Hebræorum Prælectiones*, where discussing the *Book of Job*, took exception, but without specifying anybody, to certain theorists, for postponing its date to the Babylonian Captivity. These theorists, he says, "non multo sanius in Hebraicis judicare videantur, quam in Latinis Harduinus." Warburton, in the catalogue of whose accomplishments a critical acquaintance with Latin was not included, understood, by *non multo sanius . . . quam*, "almost as *insanely . . .* as," and, besides, found himself bracketed with the fantastic Père Hardouin, who had contended that the works attributed to Virgil and Horace were forgeries of medieval monastics. This, with similar causes of offence, produced a result that was to be anticipated. The unseemly details are to be seen in the Appendix to Book vi. of the *Divine Legation*, which, only slightly exaggerating, Lowth charges with "sophistry, buffoonery, and scurrility."

In his vivacious and incisive answer, Lowth thus makes mention of his adversary's juvenile essay above adverted to:

> "You set out with favourable thoughts and high notions of the University of Oxford, and, in one of your first literary performances, at a time when your panegyric was not, certainly, better applied than it might have been now, you no sooner touched upon the subject than you took fire at the bright idea: rapt in the spirit of prophetic enthusiasm, your *Musa Pedestris* immediately got on horseback, and, mounted on her Pegasus, away she went in this high prancing style:
>
> 'majorque videri
> Nec mortale sonans':
> 'Methinks I see her, like the mighty Eagle,
> renewing her *immortal Youth*, and purging
> her opening Sight at th' unobstructed Beams
> of our benign Meridian SUN; which some
> pretend to say had been dazled and abused
> by an inglorious pestilential METEOR;
> while th' ill-affected Birds of Night would, with
> their envious hootings,
> prognosticate a Length of Darkness and Decay.' "

And here is a passage from the *Areopagitica*, which any of my readers conversant with English literature according to the standard of the present day will have expected to be adduced in connection with what precedes:

> "Methinks I see in my mind a noble and puissant Nation rousing herself like a strong man after sleep, and shaking her invincible locks: Methinks I see her as an Eagle muing her mighty youth, and kindling her undazl'd eyes at the full midday beam; purging and unscaling her long abused sight at the fountain it self of heav'nly radiance, while the whole noise of timorous and flocking birds, with those also that love the twilight, flutter about, amaz'd at what she means, and in their envious gabble would prognosticat a year of sects and schisms."

To draw to a conclusion, there now appears on the stage one who, though his supreme aim was to strut behind a pastoral staff, never succeeded in flourishing otherwise than as mere Dr. Parr. With no motive more creditable than a wish to annoy, this pompous and sterile bookworm was pleased to unearth and reprint, in 1789, what forms a collection entitled *Tracts by Warburton and a Warburtonian*, in which, at p. 140, is the first quotation given in this letter.

Neither Lowth nor Parr, if cognizant that Warburton had plagiarized, though no more than nibblingly, from Milton, would have forborne to blazon and accentuate the fact. But the prose works of the poet, down to the time when the present century was well advanced, were very little recognized. As regards his poetry, indeed, even in the days of Queen Anne it had become so far neglected that the essays devoted to it in the *Spectator* virtually announced a revelation to Addison's contemporaries. Political and ecclesiastical prejudices, both then and long after, as earlier, conspired to keep his transcendent merits largely veiled in eclipse. For instance, shortly after his death, he was, to Thomas Flatman, in his dreary *Heraclitus Ridens*, only "old Milton," and "that grand Whig Milton," and was depressed to a parity with the low-bred Edmund Hickeringill; as late as 1718, to the author of the *Entertainer*, he was, in round terms, "infamous"; and no one requires to be told of the gross injustice done him by Dr. Johnson. Not at all unlikely is it, that his having the freethinker Toland for biographer and editor was, with many, a factor detrimental to his memory. Little is the wonder, then, everything considered, that Warburton felt secure in picking and stealing from him, and that his thievery should have gone undetected by Lowth and Parr,—all which is noteworthy, as contributing to shed an interesting light on English scholarship in the eighteenth century.

F. H.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND, June 28, 1900.

P.S.—The *Dictionary of National Biography*, since I dwell in the wilderness, I have no opportunity of seeing; and I was unaware, till the Editor of the *Nation*, by sending an extract from it, after reading this letter, apprised me that Warburton's plagiarism had been exposed by Mr. Leslie Stephen. As has been seen, however, it is Oxford, not, as Mr. Stephen has it, Cambridge, that the Bishop alludes to. And now have I been forestalled in tracing the fortunes, in the last century, of Warburton's pilfering? All the materials of my letter, and arranged as above, I have had by me upwards of thirty years.

F. H.

July 21, 1900.

Notes.

Henry Holt & Co.'s preliminary fall announcements include the first two volumes of 'A History of Political Parties in the United States,' by Prof. J. P. Gordy of the Ohio State University; 'The German and Swiss Settlements of Pennsylvania,' by Prof. L. Oscar Kuhns of Wesleyan University; 'A Source-Book of English History,' edited by Dr. Guy Carleton Lee of Johns Hopkins; 'The Seventeenth Century in France,' selections from well-known authors by H. Isabelle Williams and Delphine Duval of Smith College; 'A Short History of French Literature,' by L. B. Kastner and H. G. Atkins; 'A French and English Dictionary,' by Prof. A. H. Edgren and Percy B. Burnet; 'The Elements of German,' by Dr. H. C. Bierwirth of Harvard; 'Byron's Selected Poems,' edited by Dr. F. I. Carpenter of Chicago University; 'Pater: Selections,' by Prof. E. E. Hale, jr.; 'An Agricultural Botany,' by Prof. John Percival; 'A Manual of the Flora of the Northern States and Canada,' by Prof. N. L. Britton; and 'The Anatomy of the Cat,' by Prof. Jacob E. Reighard and Dr. Herbert S. Jennings.

From Dodd, Mead & Co.'s list we select 'The Chinese Problem,' by Chester Holcombe; 'Chapters on War and Policy,' by Spenser Wilkinson, military critic of the London *Morning Post;* 'Travels in London, Paris, and Berlin,' by the late G. W. Steevens; 'Life and Sport on the Pacific Slope,' by Horace Annesley Vachell; 'Pompeii,' by Pierre Gusman, with numerous illustrations, many colored; 'African Nights' Entertainment,' by A. J. Dawson; 'From the Land of the Shamrock,' by Jane Barlow; 'Wanted: A Matchmaker,' an illustrated Christmas story, by Paul Leicester Ford; 'New York in Fiction,' by Arthur Bartlett Maurice, editor of the *Bookman;* 'William Morris,' a critical essay, with selections by Prof. Wilbur L. Cross of Yale; the two final volumes of Augustus J. C. Hare's Life; 'A Short History of Music,' by Anna A. Chapin; 'Musical Studies and Silhouettes,' from the French of Camille Bellaigue; 'Idle Idyls,' by Carolyn Wells, illustrated by Oliver Herford; 'Pictoris Carmina,' illustrated by the author, Frederic Crowninshield; 'The Wedding Day in Literature and Art,' by C. F. Carter; Shakspere's "As You Like It," illustrated by Will H. Low; 'Pippa Passes,' illustrated by Margaret Armstrong; and 'The Pronunciation of 10,000 Proper Names,' by Mary Stuart Mackey and Marietta S. Mackey.

The significant items in T. Y. Crowell & Co.'s list are a new and complete illustrated edition of Balzac's 'Human Comedy,' in sixteen volumes (de luxe, thirty-two), with elaborate introductions by Prof. W. P. Trent of Columbia; Tolstoy's 'Complete Works,' in twelve volumes, edited by Nathan Haskell Dole, and his 'Essays, Letters and Miscellanies'; 'The Poetry of the Psalms,' by the Rev. Henry van Dyke; and 'The Religion of a Gentleman,' by the Rev. Charles F. Dole.

The Century Company will market here the sumptuous centennial edition of the 'Fairy Tales of Hans Christian Andersen,' illustrated by the foremost Danish artist, Hans Tegner. The translation is new.

From Doxey's, No. 15 East Seventeenth Street, will issue 'Jacinta,' poems by Howard T. Sutherland.

'Mr. Dooley's Philosophy,' by F. P. Dunne, illustrated by F. Opper and others, is in the press of R. H. Russell.

'The Church Past and Present,' by the Bishop of London and others, and 'Essays Practical and Doctrinal,' by the Rev. S. D. McConnell, D.D., are announced by Thomas Whittaker.

D. Appleton & Co. will shortly issue 'The Boers in War,' by Howard C. Hillegas.

'The Law of Operations Preliminary to Construction in Engineering and Architecture,' by John Cassan Wait, is to be published by John Wiley & Sons.

Eaton & Mains have in preparation 'A History of Babylonia and Assyria,' in two volumes, by Robert William Rogers, LL.D.

E. P. Dutton & Co. announce "The Library for Young Naturalists," edited by F. Aflalo, "for boys," as the publishers explain—but why not for "youth," regardless of sex?

A timely third edition of Thomas Hudson McKee's approved manual, 'The National Conventions and Platforms of All Political Parties, 1789-1900' (Baltimore: Friedenwald Co.), brings it down to date, and now one has at command all the platforms, all the candidates' names (barring third party this year if it come into being), all the electoral and popular votes. As respects the platforms, it is a mine for study. Portraits of all the Presidents, from engravings, are thrown in.

We reviewed in the early summer the French original of the translation now published by Harper & Bros., 'From India to the Planet Mars: A Study of a Case of Somnambulism,' by Prof. Flournoy of Geneva. The present version is by Daniel B. Vermilye of Columbia University, who furnishes also an introduction. Views of the Martian landscape, which recalls Japan, with sundry facsimiles, adorn the volume.

Mr. I. C. Hannah, M.A., Trinity College, Cambridge, was Master of the English school at Tientsin for two years, and used his spare time there in compiling 'A Brief History of Eastern Asia' (London: T. Fisher Unwin). His book shows diligence and care, but it essays a hopeless impossibility. No one could compress within such narrow limits an adequate treatment, on however small a scale, of the history from prehistoric times till now of all Asia, even when those countries are excepted which go more peculiarly with the Mediterranean—Persia, Syria, Arabia, and Asia Minor. Nor was Mr. Hannah supported in his task by an adequate width of reading. It is true that such a thesaurus as Dr. Williams's 'Middle Kingdom' is in his bibliography, but it shows very oddly beside a string of books, doubtless excellent in their way, from the various series of the S. P. C. K. and the "Story of the Nations." Further, Lord Macaulay's 'Essays' are not accepted historical sources, and Allen and Myers's 'Ancient History for Colleges and High Schools' may be left to such institutions. In this bibliography, too, there is not a single volume in any language but English. Mr. Hannah has turned out what will be for many a suggestive if irritating book; but it is a great pity that he did not rather give himself to a study of Chinese education, or some other subject on which he must have been in a position to acquire first-hand knowledge. The writing of histories may be turned over with advantage to the less fortunate people who must stay at home and read books.

The 'Traditions of the Chilcotin Indians' are described by Livingston Farrand in the latest publication of the Jesup North Pacific Expedition. It forms the first part of volume iv. of the Memoirs of the American Museum of Natural History. The Chilcotins are of Athapascan stock, and occupy a territory lying chiefly in the valley of the Chilcotin River, in the interior of British Columbia. The most elaborate and best known of the traditions is that in which are related the adventures of the culture-hero and transformer Lendix:tcux and his three sons. A striking fact revealed by the study of this tale is that analogues for nearly every element of the story are found in the mythologies of neighboring tribes, while in no one is there a complete correspondent of the whole myth. The present collection will, it is believed, prove an instructive contribution to the comparative mythology of the Indians.

'The Thompson Indians of British Columbia' is another memoir by James Teit, in the same series. These Indians were once known as the "Couteau" or Knife tribe. They are of the Salish stock, and their habitat is a region embracing about 9,000 square miles in the southern interior of British Columbia. In appearance they resemble other tribes of the western plateaus, and their culture bears evidence of having been influenced by the north Pacific coast tribes and, to a greater extent, by the Plains Indians. Their style of dress, their use of feather ornaments, and their method of building round tents instead of square lodges, are the result of contact with their eastern neighbors by way of the Nicola Valley. Their manufactures show affiliations with those of the coast, and their tools for woodwork, hammers, harpoons, and fish-knives are evidently copies of implements used by the coast tribes. Their sagebrush-bark fabrics are of the same make as the cedar-bark garments of the coast. Their whole social organization is very simple, and the range of their religious ideas and observances very limited when compared with those of other American tribes. Numerous woodcuts and several heliotypes illustrate this publication.

Still a third memoir is 'Symbolism of the Huichol Indians,' by Carl Lumholtz. It opens with a brief sketch of the characteristics of the Huichols, a tribe numbering about 4,000 individuals living on a spur of the great Sierra Madre in the northwestern part of the State of Jalisco, Mexico. They are of medium height, light reddish-brown in color, emotional and cowardly. They are very healthy, subsisting all the year round on corn and beans, and eating meat only at their religious feasts; the hunting of deer and the killing of cattle being always connected with religious ceremonials. From their symbolism it may be inferred that the moving principle of their religion is the desire of producing rain, and thus successfully raising vegetables. Their philosophy of life is summed up in the remark of a Huichol servant: "To pray for luck to Tatévali [the god of fire] and to put up snares for the deer—that is to lead a perfect life." Their principal gods are obviously natural phenomena personified, and represent the "four elements." Among the symbolic objects which occupy a most prominent place in their religious cult are ceremonial arrows and back-shields, which serve to convey personal supplications, and front-shields, used in tribal prayers. The votive shield is the most important symbol, and is adapted to serve as a kind of sign-language between man and god. The resemblance of these objects, if arrayed in rows, to the shield-shaped writing in the ancient Maya temples and codices suggests an explanation of the origin of Maya writing. This memoir is abundantly illustrated, partly in color.

The prospectus of the *Monthly Review*, to be edited by Henry Newbolt, and published by John Murray in September-October, is taking in many ways. A serial novel, illustrations, and a permanent editorial department are to be regular features; the illustrations not for ornament, but for their legitimate purpose of elucidation, and therefore quite subservient to the text. The editorial writings will be by many hands under one control, and all unsigned. The type to be employed is large and handsome.

A few years ago a gentleman well known in French educational circles pointed out to us, from the upper window of the only building now remaining of the palace of St. Cloud and its appurtenances, the wooded heights and valley of Meudon, "once the abode of Rabelais," where, to quote from another French source, "he amused his parishioners with his songs and copious draughts, if he did not edify them by his ecclesiastical virtues." Now M. Brunetière tells us, in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for August 1, that very likely "le joyeuse curé de Meudon" never set foot on the soil of his parish, and that, possibly, he never drank anything but water. That the extreme vulgarity of the author of Gargantua and Pantagruel in any degree reflects his own life, we have no right to assume in the light of what is known of the latter. But M. Brunetière, as might be expected, does not withhold his severe condemnation of the writer, much as he enjoys his originality, enthusiasm, power, and style. The essay, which is a chapter from a History of Classical French Literature soon to appear, strikes us as one of M. Brunetière's best productions.

The chair occupied by M. Levasseur at the Collège de France bears at present the name of "Chaire de géographie, histoire et statistique économiques." The name dates from 1885, but M. Levasseur commenced his lectures as early as January, 1869, and received his regular appointment in December, 1871. Upon the request of the editor of the *Revue Internationale de l'Enseignement*, he now gives an account of his thirty-two years of teaching, in the July number. Besides explaining his conception of the subject intrusted to him, and showing in what spirit he has treated it, he gives a complete list of the topics discussed in the many hundreds of lectures delivered from the beginning of his career at the Collège. Their scope is wide, and comprises a large part of the countries and nations of the globe. To this continent he devoted forty-two lectures in 1872-'73, and one hundred and twenty-five during 1881-'84; to the United States alone two hundred and forty-four in the years 1893-'99. France, very naturally, received the lion's share of his long-continued study and teaching. As hardly any of M. Levasseur's lectures have been printed, even these summaries of courses will not be without interest to students of economics. Much of the material presented to his hearers at the Collège de France, however, has been used in M. Levasseur's published works, of which he speaks briefly in his communication to the *Revue*.

The need of a radical change in elementary education in rural England was strongly urged by the Duke of Devonshire at the annual prize distribution at the Countess of Warwick's technical science and agricultural school at Bigods, Essex. Referring to the statement made in Parliament that the squire and the farmer were not, generally speaking, friends to education, he gave as the reason that the effect of the present system was simply "to induce the cleverest, the brightest, and the most energetic of our boys and girls to leave their villages in the country and to seek for other occupation in the great towns." The great obstacle, of course, to the immediate substitution of a rational system is the want of teachers properly qualified to fit girls, for instance, to take part in the management of the dairy, the garden, and the orchard; but the secondary schools are being reorganized and agricultural schools and colleges established to meet this want. It remains to be seen whether the farming class will realize the value of the new methods of instruction.

The increasing importance of our trade with Germany—the value of the exports from the northern part of the empire alone to this country for the first quarter of the present year amounting to eighteen millions of dollars, or double that of 1898—gives especial value to Consul-General Mason's effort, in the July Consular Reports, to remove the trade misunderstandings which prevail between the two nations and provoke much hostility. He shows, by many instances, that they arise most frequently from ignorance or "failure to comprehend the many customs and details of practice in respect to which the two peoples differ, radically, but honestly, as the inevitable result of diverse traditions, education, and racial instincts." As an incentive to American importers, he says that among the Germans at large there is "no prejudice in favor of home-made goods." An interesting account is given of a cabinet-making school at Magdeburg, founded and almost wholly supported by a mechanic. Each apprentice is given four lessons a week for three years in the use of tools, free-hand drawing, design, decoration, and sculpture, the instructors being mainly "boss mechanics" of the cabinet-makers, aided by a few salaried teachers.

The principal topic of the August Reports is a detailed account of the Brazilian railways, from which it appears that there are 63 separate lines operating 9,197 miles of road, costing nearly six hundred million dollars, with a net income of about one-half of 1 per cent. There are also several reports on the foreign trade of China, showing its astonishing increase up to the outbreak of the "Boxer" rebellion. Referring to the effect of the railways, it is said that "immediately trains begin to run, districts through which there was comparatively little traffic, such as between Paoting and Pekin, suddenly commence to hum with life and activity, and there springs up a flourishing trade which was formerly undreamed of and impossible for want of cheap transport." In answer to the frequent inquiry as to what language must be used in sending out catalogues—"some firms offer them in German, but more in Spanish"!—a consul says: "One must know either English or Chinese, or starve." He adds that English is regarded as solely the language of Great Britain, "for most Chinese imagine that Americans speak another tongue, and, like the Germans, French, and others, must learn English."

—There was certainly room for a good one-volume history of Puritan Massachusetts, but we cannot think that Mr. Daniel Wait Howe's 'Puritan Republic' (Indianapolis: Bowen-Merrill Co.) quite fills the gap. At the same time, the book has a good deal to commend it. The author's enthusiasm for his subject has led him to the sources of information, and his pages show industrious and intelligent use of the early records and laws, and the writings of contemporary actors. The chapters on various phases of Puritan life, especially religion and church-going, education and the professions, agriculture and trade, and the daily family round, are both entertaining and instructive. What we miss is the orderly and straightforward narrative of events, showing the rapid development of Massachusetts Puritanism from an ecclesiastical system to a form of government, and the disappearance of the old theocracy under the combined influences of social expansion and political complications. Such topics as the relation of church and state, the controversies with Roger Williams, Mrs. Hutchinson, and the Quakers, and the loss of the old charter, Mr. Howe, indeed, treats with particular fulness, and with many interesting additions to the common stock of incident; but the prevailing episodical method is hardly successful in impressing the characteristics of the period as a whole. The author's historical judgments, while not profound, are restrained and fair, and the whole tone of the work bespeaks a writer who venerates, but does not blindly worship, the Puritans and their deeds.

—'The Rockies of Canada,' by Mr. W. D. Wilcox (Putnams), is based upon 'Camping in the Canadian Rockies,' which appeared four years ago, but the difference between the first and second editions is so great that the change of title is quite justified. Mr. Wilcox has continued his visits to the Rockies and Selkirks since 1896, with excellent results, if one may judge from the new photogravures and from the account of fresh geographical exploration. When reviewing the former volume, we called attention to the absence of maps. This defect, the only one of consequence in the book, has since been repaired, for Mr. Wilcox now gives us "a special contour map which shows the details of the country near Lake Louise, and a general map of the Rocky Mountains, compiled from all the best maps hitherto published, supplemented by several recent sketches." There is also a good plan of the district between the Kicking-horse and Vermilion Passes. Among the additions to the text must be mentioned special chapters on "Mountaineering," "Camp Life," "Hunting and Fishing," and "The Stony Indians." During the past few years a good deal of new country around the head of the Saskatchewan has been travelled, the region of Mount Assiniboine has become better known, and several of the mountains near the railway have been climbed by different routes. The geographical part of the present edition is, we think, more important than the other supplementary material, and we shall accordingly confine our notice to it. Mount Assiniboine, which attracted Mr. Wilcox's attention in 1894, has been revisited by him, and information concerning it occupies a prominent place among his original discoveries. This peak, situated about twenty-five miles from Banff, may be called the finest of the Canadian Rockies to the south of the railway. Its height has been fixed by the Geological Survey of Canada at 11,830 feet, and in outline it bears strong features of resemblance to the Matterhorn. It can be reached by several routes from Banff, but the line which lies "along the high plateau region on the summit of the Rockies is the most varied and interesting way." Mr. Wilcox has now seen every side of it, and thinks that the south face offers the best chance of an ascent. "Every side of this mountain is exceedingly steep, the east face being an absolute precipice, and the other two having slopes that average fifty degrees. The rock strata are nearly horizontal, and are eroded into many precipitous bands which girdle the mountain, and these, together with the disintegrated limestone and frequent fresh snow, will make it a difficult prize for the climber." Besides describing his own discoveries, Mr. Wilcox records the ascents made by English tourists in 1897 and 1898. Dr. Norman Collie sought for two seasons to discover where Mount Brown and Mount Hooker, which have long held a lofty place in the geographies, really lay, and whether they reached the height of 16,000 and 18,000 feet ascribed to them. While proving the existence of grave errors with respect to the peaks in question, he incidentally came across some magnificent summits between the source of the North Fork of the Saskatchewan and the Athabasca. The next ten years will probably see much climbing and map-making in this region. By exploring and keeping pace with other explorers, Mr. Wilcox has made his 'Rockies of Canada' the standard work for at least some time to come.

—In volumes lxvii. and lxviii. of the 'Jesuit Relations' (Cleveland: Burrows Bros. Co.) the documents are numerous, and relate to settlements which lie scattered over New France from the Saguenay to New Orleans, and from Acadia to the Mississippi. The period covered, 1716-'36, was one of rapid decadence for the Indians, and their decline can easily be traced in the reports of the missionaries. For instance, at Tadoussac, where there had once been a settlement of nearly three thousand men, only twenty-five families remained in 1730. Disease had been rampant, the savages no longer dared to put out from shore after the seal, and the sedentary life had lost its attractions. If, among the Montagnais, miseries of all sorts abound, the case is no better with their former scourges, the Iroquois. Those of the Caughnawaga Mission are said to improve in their singing, but at home they "are visibly on the decrease, on account of their incessant quarrels and the use of intoxicants supplied by the English." One sign that the Iroquois are losing their fangs is their willingness to use the Huron speech when repeating the services of the church. At Caughnawaga they actually prefer it. More and more the centre of interest shifts from the St. Lawrence and Hudson to the Mississippi, and even to the lower Mississippi. While the northern tribes dwindle, Louisiana becomes prominent, and in these volumes it takes a leading place. Towards the end of 1729, the Natchez Indians murdered over two hundred French who had settled in their midst. A minute description of the tragedy is given by Mathurin le Petit, who also enters fully into the usages of the tribe and the subsequent alliance between the Choctaws and French for revenge. According to him, the Natchez Indians possess a more regular kind of worship than exists among any other race of the aborigines. They are sun worshippers, and have a temple elaborately fitted out. "The great chief of this nation, who knows nothing on earth more dignified than himself, takes the title of brother of the Sun, and the credulity of the people maintains him in the despotic authority which he claims." Despite the relative superiority of their religious system, the Natchez were not remarkable among the southern tribes for their prowess, and the French, with the help of their native allies, had little difficulty in recapturing the women who were taken at the time of the massacre. At the close of the old régime, one casts about in vain for a really vigorous tribe or confederacy among the North American Indians. The wonder is that Pontiac should have made so much trouble for the English as he did, with the shattered tribes at his disposal.

—The proposal of Prof. Karl Breul, professor of German in the University of Cambridge, England, that the German Government establish in London an institution for German teachers of English, is a much wider-reaching proposition than at first sight appears. As thus presented, the scheme seems to be merely pedagogical in its intent; but it is pretty safe to say that its commercial aspect is the one which will appeal most strongly to the German Government. For the Germans have not been slow to realize that successful competition with England in English markets means to understand the art of supplying English wants in an English way, and that competition with England in the field of her foreign markets means the learning of English methods of production. A great deal of the German enthusiasm for the study of a culture which in its beginnings is intimately related to their own, and of a speech which is closely allied to their own tongue, has received aid and support from a long-headed German shrewdness only now coming to be recognized as somewhat dangerous to England's commercial supremacy. It will not be strange, therefore, if this, which seems on its surface to be a mere academic proposition, based upon such considerations as have led to the founding of the German archæological institutes in Rome and in Athens, will soon be an accomplished fact. Whatever be the economic results of the step, its effect upon German scholarship in English (a matter which Professor Breul has always shown the deepest concern for) cannot be anything but beneficial. For Germany, with her conspicuous devotion to scientific methods of English study, has all along betrayed a somewhat lamentable lack of appreciation of New English habits of thought—a lack which, while it is not apparent in the work of the best German scholars, is plainly manifest in the products of German teaching which come to us in the way of doctoral dissertations. A more intimate contact with the life and speech of England on the part of young German students of English cannot fail to improve German scholarship in this particular. We therefore cordially welcome Professor Breul's proposal, and hope that the German Government, whether it acts upon prudential motives or upon the higher one of sound scholarship, will soon put it into practical operation.

—So far as we know, no branch of the Government has supplied its medical or other officers sent to the Philippines with any particular advice as to the peculiarities of the diseases to be found there, or with suggestions for their avoidance or treatment. Nor is there any school of tropical diseases in the United States, although such a specialty will surely be added to the higher medical colleges when it is settled that there will be a permanent assignment of the Filipino burden to the superior race. As it stands, our medical service has not been specially equipped except so far as it is known that the regular medical officers, both afloat and ashore, are unusually well educated for all-around work, and the volunteers have at least been examined up to a fair standard. But a large part of the daily service in the field and in the hospital must necessarily fall upon the physicians under contract, to whom, although they are selected as far as possible from an excellent class, extreme tests cannot be applied. It is to be regretted that some concise and authoritative selection of medical information, especially applicable to the regions whither so many of our citizens have been sent as strangers, has not been supplied, at least for information if not formally for guidance.

—These remarks are induced by a paper on "Medicine and Disease in the Philippines," by Dr. David J. Doherty of Chicago, reprinted from the *Journal* of the American Medical Association of June 16. It is a brief compilation from a dozen writers, chiefly from the 'Estudia para una Nosologia Filipina,' by Dr. Enrique M. Barcones of the Spanish Navy, which was the result of two years' intelligent observation. The essence is that the continued heat and moisture lead to muscular lassitude and weakness, and to curtailed respiratory action, and that these effects in turn become causes. Dr. Doherty is entirely correct. Many diseases in the Philippines, unlike those in temperate climates, have no spontaneous tendency towards recovery, and in those where suppuration sets in there is a steady downward course until actively arrested. This is particularly true of tuberculosis, which is very common, and it rapidly assumes in the stranger an acute form that carries him off with astonishing rapidity. The initial malarial disease is not generally severe, at least in Luzon; but the victims of Cuban infection quickly break down, and certainly a year should elapse after their apparent recovery before they venture to the Asiatic field. Yellow fever is one of the serious diseases from which the Philippines are exempt, but Manson's warning should be heeded that, after the Isthmian Canal is open, there will be great risk, at least to the white races, that it may be carried direct from its Central American habitat. Dr. Doherty refers to the University of Manila as probably having sent forth a supply of physicians for many years, if not for generations. Under the Spanish régime, the course of study embraced six years, beginning at a tender age, and culminated in a degree corresponding to the baccalaureate, when the graduates became *practicantes*. To obtain the doctorate required attendance at and authority from the University of Madrid.

COBBOLD'S INNERMOST ASIA.

Innermost Asia. Travel and Sport in the Pamirs. By Ralph P. Cobbold (late Sixtieth Rifles). Charles Scribner's Sons 1900. Pp. xviii+354.

It would be interesting to know what Mr. Skrine of 'The Heart of Asia,' which we reviewed some little time ago, thinks of Mr. Cobbold and his book. What Mr. Cobbold thinks of Mr. Skrine and *his* book can be under no manner of doubt if we identify him—and that, too seems subject to no doubt—with the "gentleman of reputation," on p. 253, "who has recently paid a visit to Turkestan," and been wofully hoodwinked and crammed by his Russian cicerone. And, indeed, the books are above all interesting in their utter divergence as to the characteristics of their writers, and as to their methods and their results. To Mr. Cobbold, Mr. Skrine would be a "political," more exactly an "ex-political"; and therewith all would be said. Mr. Skrine, on the other hand, might deplore in Mr. Cobbold a lack of training in social problems and in history, and, above all, a lamentable insularity of attitude and narrowness of mind. He might possibly be sarcastic towards Mr. Cobbold's weakness for Byronic rhapsodies on nature and solitude, and for quotations from Thomas Moore, but we trust not. Those things ring true in him if they seem simple-minded to the most of us now, with our involved introspections in the presence of the Mighty Mother.

Mr. Cobbold went up into the Pamirs, as a healthy young sportsman may, in search of big game. He found his big game, and tells us about it at length in a straightforward fashion. He photographed, too, right and left—among other things, an *Ovis Poli* alive; but he does not tell us that this gigantic mountain sheep got its name from Marco Polo. Many of the photographs which he gives are very striking and beautiful, only it is a pity that the process reproduction has not done justice to their details. Some of them, also, are puzzling and suggest manipulation. On p. 45 there is one of an *Ovis Poli* supposed to be alive, but within three feet of it there is what seems to be a sheep dog looking down on it benevolently. Another, of "some twenty Chinese Sepoys riding towards me" in hot pursuit, is a very calm procession of about thirteen photographed from the side. But up in the mountains our author found other things besides big game. He found Russia there; and the impression which Russia and things Russian gave him was by no means pleasant. Most of the things which he learned, his experiences and sensations, he gives in his book, but not all. Certain facts seemed to him to be of too great political importance to be openly circulated. This sounds ominous, and on p. 230 there is another ominous remark on the dogmatic ignorance of "a certain official, a very big man high up in the service," whose name is withheld "for the present." Other facts which he does give might, perhaps, have been better away—better, that is, for certain people. The Russians will not love the Mimbashi of Roshan when they know how intensely hostile to them he is, and how he would welcome the English. Nor will Kevekiss, the Russian commandant at Charog, be helped with his superiors by the account of his sayings and doings here. Mr. Cobbold is evidently a young man still, and has probably a good deal to learn about official possibilities, subjective and objective, and official difficulties and responsibilities, but there does not seem to be any question that he entered on his trip with a mind at peace with all men, and principally occupied with his rifle and camera, and that he has returned a thorough-going Russophobe, with a store of facts Russian and a mission to see that they are known.

Starting from Srinagar, his route lay over the Gilgit military road to Hunza-Nagar; thence by the Kilik pass and the Tashdumbash Pamir to Tashkurghan in Chinese Turkestan, and on to Kashgar. Kashgar, a city of merchants, is described at length, with its motley population—the Sarts and their Chinese rulers; the Russian Consul-General, who, in turn, rules the Chinese Governor; and the British representative, who is not even a vice-consul, but is called "Special Assistant to the Resident in Kashmir for Chinese Affairs," and who rules nobody. Then from Kashgar into Russian territory over the Ţurgart pass to Vierny; from there to Lake Balkash, where a Central Asian tiger was bagged; back to Kashgar, and from thence out again for another campaign in the Pamirs, this time on the Russian side. The route lay through the Geez defile, and over the Kara Art pass to the Great Kara Kul in Russian territory; from there deviously to Tashkurghan on the Bartang, and down the Bartang to Kala Wamar. The last is ground known, among Europeans, to Russians only; the Oxus at this point and Roshan and Shignan have been practically inaccessible since their occupation. So Mr. Cobbold found. At Kashgar he had received through the Russian Consul-General a pass permitting him to travel and shoot in the Russian Pamirs, but his movements, coupled with the Muhammadan outbreak in Ferghana, which took place at the time, roused official suspicion, and at Kala Wamar he was arrested. For several weeks he was kept there and at Charog, a Russian fort established in 1896, opposite Kala Bar Panja, but eventually his bona fides became plain, and he was permitted to return to Chinese Turkestan by way of the Bartang and the Kara Art pass. From there he zigzagged down through the Oi-balgin pass, the Rang Kul Pamir, Tagharma, and Tashkurghan, visited the source of the Oxus in the Wakhan Pamir by the Wakh-jir pass, and finally returned to Kashmir over the Mintaka pass, Misgar, and Hunza. The return was by no means easy. It is the policy of the English Government to discourage all travel on the northern frontiers. This is apparently to avoid possible complications with Afghanistan, Russia, or China. So it was with difficulty that Mr. Cobbold had received permission to go north on the Gilgit road in the first instance; and now, he was delayed long both at Hunza and at Gilgit before he was allowed fairly to go back into India. On the route as a whole it may be remarked that several points are left rather vague, Mr. Cobbold not being exactly a geographical specialist.

As has been indicated above, this is by no means an orderly treatise on Central Asian affairs. It is an unsystematic record of how the situation there struck an onlooker whose main interests were elsewhere. But, for all that, there is great value in it for the careful reader. What precisely is the Russian wish and hope in the advance movement? Not, it may be noticed, the attitude of the Tsar or even that of the St. Petersburg officials generally, but that of the men on the spot. Again and again the hand of the central Government has been forced, willingly or unwillingly, by a daring rush on their part, and it is probable that we shall see something of that kind very soon both in Mantchuria and in Chinese Turkestan. Mr. Cobbold's testimony is that of all travellers in Central Asia who have not been officially and personally conducted. The whole Russian system, military and civil, leans eagerly forward. Russia's boundary at the least is to be the Hindu Kush with its continuations westward: Wakhan, Badakhshan, northern Afghanistan, Persia, and Baluchistan must all fall to her, and she must control the Persian Gulf. Thus the Oxus boundary is not regarded as of any permanent validity, nor that recently laid through the Pamirs. As an illustration, the English occupation of Chitral did not come a day too soon. It is well over the Hindu Kush, yet the Commandant of the Pamirsky post had received definite instructions to seize it; they came just too late. The authority for this was Kevekiss himself, who has at Charog a careful spy system and agents communicating with Cabul, Chitral, Yasin, and Gilgit. At present—this on the authority of the Mimbashi of Roshan—there is an intrigue going on between the Amir of Bokhara and the Badakhshani and Tajik subjects of Afghanistan on the left bank of the Oxus. The Russian Minister of War has given him five years to persuade them to throw off their allegiance and declare themselves Bokhariots. Then, of course, the boundary will move.

Everywhere among the Muslims, Mr. Cobbold found a strong anti-Russian sentiment. Such a feeling is natural in itself, but he ascribes its depth to the corruption of the officials and the confessed system of bribery which their low pay has brought about. The Muslim attitude towards the English Government is different. They are, of course, unbelievers and dogs, sons of dogs; yet under them there is no *zulm*, but even-handed justice, which cannot be bought. He is convinced that, in the final struggle,

> "that dreadful battle drawing nigh,
> To shake the Afghan passes strait and sheer."

the whole Muslim population of Asia will take the English side. The Bokhariots may hate the Afghans; the Amir of Afghanistan, who is like the Emperor of Austria, in that his death will bring the deluge, may coquette with Russia and secretly help the Afridis; but, in the last issue, they will all turn to England, especially if England has the support of the great Sultan of the Muslims at Constantinople. There the key to the Eastern question still lies.

On commerce, agriculture, mining, and manufactures, Mr. Cobbold has detailed appendices of much value. It is all a matter of communications, and until the railway system is more developed, the country cannot be opened. At present there are practically no mines or factories to speak of, and no opening for capital till connection is made with the great markets. He laments especially the policy of the English Government in shutting the Hunza-Nagar route to Kashgar (a commercial centre of the first importance, with five or six miles of shops), and thus ruining the Indian trade with Chinese Turkestan.

Criticism of the details of such a book as this is hardly in place. Its origin was not in the study among dictionaries and encyclopædias, but in the saddle and the *yourt*; on mountainside and glacier. Yet it cannot but be a surprise that one who has lived so long and intimately among Muslims should know in some ways so little about them. They are "Mussulmen," and "pilgrimage to the shrine of the Prophet"; the ordinary *mut'a* marriage of Shi'ites is not recognized (p. 76), nor is the story of Ali and his sons, Hasan and Husayn (p. 169). The sound and the translation of the call to prayers are given on p. 192 in the most fearsomely original form we have ever seen even of that much-enduring formula. More serious is a snap judgment (p. 291) on the Chinese commercial morality; other competent observers have rated it much higher.

Besides several smaller maps, the book has the magnificent one of the Pamir constructed for Lord Curzon in 1896. It is on a scale of 1:1,000,000, and extends from Chilas on the Indus to Osh, and from Badakhshan well over Yarkand.

The Jeffersonian Cyclopædia: A Comprehensive Collection of the Views of Thomas Jefferson. Classified and Arranged in Alphabetical Order under Nine Thousand Titles, etc., etc. Edited by John P. Foley. Funk & Wagnalls. 1900. 4to, pp. 1009.

Works like this of enormous drudgery can seldom receive a proportionate expanse of praise. The task was worthy; it has been executed with intelligence; its utility is unquestioned—this judgment might be conveyed in many words, but who would be the gainer? A dictionary is a mass of items arranged on some rational plan. The merit of such an one as this lies principally in selection. What Mr. Foley has virtually done is to translate all existing indexes into the choice passages for which a student or admirer of Jefferson would naturally resort to such indexes. If the context is wanted, it can be readily procured by following up Mr. Foley's references, which are scrupulously specific. The extracts are dated. In the case of letters, the correspondent is named, and the place where Jefferson was writing. There is a topical index with cross-references; there is a Jeffersonian chronology; and finally an appendix embraces sundry state papers, including the Declaration of Independence (whose "inalienable rights" were *un*alienable in the first draft), the Preamble to the Virginia Constitution, the Bill for Establishing Religious Freedom, the two Presidential inaugural addresses, etc., etc., and, nearly in full, the correspondence touching the reconciliation of Adams and Jefferson. Nothing more need be added to prove the value of this dictionary as a work of reference.

It is a repertory of Jefferson's own words at first hand. Hence it is by exception that Mr. Foley quotes, in a brief footnote, from Webster's report of Jefferson's interesting conversation concerning Patrick Henry; and we can but regret that he did not add to the testimony to Henry's weight as a leading revolutionist the few lines regarding the magic of his oratory, in the same conversation: "When he had spoken in opposition to my opinion, and produced a great effect, and I myself been highly delighted and moved, I have asked myself, when he ceased, 'What the d——l has he said?' I could never answer the inquiry." Jefferson's autographic account of Henry's oratory is duly excerpted, but with what seems a needless division. In place of "Oratory," we have "Eloquence" and "Force of Oratory," and these are two of no less than twenty-two separate entries under Henry. Some of these rubrics are by no means pat, and the alphabetical order offers no advantage over a logical or even chronological-biographical arrangement. "Declined office" and "Mysterious" would never naturally be sought by any user of the dictionary; "Brilliant but illogical" as little, while, what is more, it conceals a significant characteristic, for the passage in question relates that Henry "could not draw a bill on the most simple subject that would bear legal criticism." A logical ordering would have placed first the sketch of Henry's early manhood, and all the subtitles might have been dispensed with, even if the numbering of the paragraphs was retained.

Our example shows that Mr. Foley, in the wide range he has allowed himself, as was proper in the case of a man of such varied interests and occupations, has not neglected Jefferson's portraits of his contemporaries. The ready divination of Webster's power at their sole meeting is thus retained. But another coming man, dreaded as a Yankee and a religious propagandist, Lyman Beecher, has been omitted, though the passage in which he figures is as Jeffersonian as anything in this great volume. We have already cited it in our notice of Ford's edition of the Writings. Jefferson's sensitive but ineffective conscience on the subject of slavery is illustrated by sixty-six items, filling more than seven pages of the dictionary. War, in the abstract and the concrete, has one hundred and six, beginning (in a letter to Elbridge Gerry, 1797) with, "I abhor war, and view it as the greatest scourge of mankind," which is followed immediately by this (to Humboldt, 1813): "The insulated state in which nature has placed the American continent, should so far avail it that no spark of war kindled in the other quarters of the globe should be wafted across the wide oceans which separate us from them." One hundred and twenty-four items relate to Government. And so we might go on.

Very important is the matter of accurate transcription, and such comparison as we have made disposes us to place the highest confidence in these extracts as a true text, perfectly safe to adopt in all essential particulars. In No. 6349 we detect an *as* of some rhetorical importance dropped before "gradually"; in No. 7298 the phrase "in practice also" should be italicized to agree with Ford and with Jefferson's probable original; in No. 7297 the Italian proverb is rendered grammatical by changing *muove* (Ford) to *muova*—a possible infidelity to Jefferson, but a kindness to those who may quote him. Such trifles hardly deserve mention; nor do the occasional starred omissions, as in 7299, where no space, even, is gained by dropping a personal parenthesis. Everywhere it is manifest that Mr. Foley's intention is to reproduce loyally, and that he has spared no pains. He should have his reward.

It remains to add that the Dictionary is provided with nine portraits of Jefferson and a view of Monticello, a brave array.

Notes on a Century of Typography at the University Press, Oxford, 1693-1794. With annotations and appendixes. By Horace Hart, Hon. M.A., Printer to the University, and Controller of the University Press. Oxford: Printed at the University Press; New York: Henry Frowde. 1900.

When John Fell, Dean of Christ Church, in 1670 occupied himself, in his indefatigable way, in importing types and founders from the Continent for Oxford, he may have left unsatisfied the perplexity of him who wrote,

> "I do not like you, Dr. Fell;
> The reason why I cannot tell,"

but he established a valid claim to the liking of posterity. For he, in conjunction with Francis du Jon (*alias* F. Junius), then laid the foundations of the University Foundry as it exists to-day. The matrices he gave are still preserved in their original boxes, and his Hebrew characters are still used for examination papers. In one particular his zeal was excessive: his haste to begin was such that he put up with the Dutch "height-to-paper," and this "accounts for the un-English 'height' of the Clarendon Press type, which has been a source of trouble ever since its introduction." And so with Junius's contribution: Mr. Hart notes (p. 73) that "the existing fount [of English Swedish], originally [1677] Dutch "height-to-paper, was, in 1887 (with the exception of about 3 lbs. of type still preserved as a curiosity), reduced at Oxford to the Learned Press 'height-to-paper,' to bring the fount into use again." Between the latter standard and the Bible Press height there is an intermediate fount of English Etruscan, and between the London and Bible Press standards a fount of Arabic.

Mr. Hart's fascinating but laborious task was to reproduce the Oxford Specimen books (or sheets) of type, etc., in the period named in the title, so far as they exist; and to combine with this an inventory of such of the stock as has come down. The scheme employed has been most judicious. The facsimile has, where possible, been effected by reëmploying the original type, even by casting anew from the matrices, sometimes by adaptation to fill a gap. Only when necessary has a process plate been resorted to. At every step, Mr. Hart states his procedure, and traces the history of the founts, etc., while reporting upon their actual condition. It is surprising with how much interest he has been able to invest this portion of his undertaking. Sometimes he improves on the Specimen, as in the case of the flowered letters shown on p. 113, where he gives thirteen instead of three; and on pp. 114, 115, eighteen for two. Both series were deeply cut in boxwood, and in the second series, by inverting the L, he shows an engraving of a man's face as grim as his own facetiousness in noting, "The artist, although he did not inscribe his name, may have intended to produce his portrait to be handed down to posterity."

The first Specimen, of 1693, is recorded entire; the rest only as they are supplementary. Not a few of the finer founts from the earliest date have recently been cast anew and used in works issuing from the University Press, so that to a certain extent Mr. Hart has provided a new Specimen Book. One feat of this kind is worth reporting, apropos of the Sclavonian, Great Primer (p. 57):

> "As the University of Oxford was the first in England to use Slavic type for printing books, in the year 1695, so now [1893], after a lapse of 200 years, the same University, in celebrating with the invincible prince and people of Montenegro the earliest style of printing among the Servians, has printed the Lord's Prayer at the same Press and in the same type."

As early as 1768 the youthful Bewick had cut diagrams on wood for Dr. Hutton's 'Mensuration,' and for more than ten years before 1794 he had paved the way for book illustration by wood-engraving. Except initial letters, however, none of the century Specimens enumerate any woodcuts, the latest, of 1794, naming only copper-plates, among them three heads of Lord Clarendon, whose name is first attached to the Press ("Clarendon Printing-House") in the 1768 Specimen, though old Hearne had deplored the appellation on October 28, 1713.

> "This Morning," he says, "the Printers began to remove from the [Sheldonian] Theater to the New Printing-House just erected, w^{ch} is (it seems, out of a Whim) to be called Typographéum Clarendonianum, and Archb^{p} Sheldon is to be forgotten, as a Benefactor to the Oxford Printing, if People will comply with this Whim."

Another innovation in this Spêcimen was the appearance for the first time of the capital U on the title-page in place of V in Vniversity. It first catalogued, too, bastard type—that is, type whose face was larger or smaller than the body on which it was cast; and in its 1775 supplement are shown examples of pages set with "type with a permanent distance," dispensing with leads. It further shows that the Press had begun to purchase of Caslon and Baskerville. New-face type came in with the 1794 Specimen, along with the "Quousque tandem" selection.

Three appendixes contain much curious matter. One shows old devices and ornaments (still available) and various founts not listed in any Specimen; among them, examples of French castings with nick behind, and the English front nicks supplied by machine cutting. There is a Greek fount cut in 1803 by Vincent Figgins. Greek ligatures, we are told, were abandoned about 1816-1820. Appendix II. exhibits impressions of ancient wood-engravings equally unrecorded. Appendix III. consists of correspondence with Samuel Clarke, first Printer to the University, Dr. Fell, and others, relating to the beginnings of the Press, and is good reading for a student of the art and craft. It also embraces a valuable comparative table of Dutch, French, German, and Oxford type-bodies, with their equivalents in Didot points (whose general adoption, by the way, is naturally overestimated by Mr. Hart's French authority).

The beauty of this folio volume is a delight to the eye, and it is, unhappily, intended for the eyes of only one hundred and fifty possessors. The total product is an honor to the Press, and Mr. Hart's part in editing, composing, and printing it is beyond praise. His painstaking has shrunk at nothing except an index.

A Book for All Readers: Designed as an aid to the collection, use, and preservation of books, and the formation of public and private libraries. By Ainsworth Rand Spofford. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1900.

Dr. Spofford has collected into this pleasant and useful volume much of the book-wisdom and some of the book-wit gathered during his long experience as librarian-in-chief of the Congressional Library, which he, after years of struggle, has lived to see worthily housed. We have here information as to the acquisition and proper care of books, the management of a library, and all things of special interest to book-lovers; the whole enlivened by many curious particulars and some facetious remarks.

In forming a library of general reading a question which is sure to arise is that of novels. Here Dr. Spofford is wisely conservative. A subscription library that must cater to the public taste in order to exist may be obliged to load its shelves with worthless fiction; but for an endowed library it is sufficient to have a fair representation of each important class of contemporary novels. The function of the library is to instruct and improve, not to furnish amusement. And as the appetite for incessant and indiscriminate novel-reading seems to be growing to a disease, the librarian who properly feels the importance of his calling will at least avoid pandering to it.

An interesting chapter is given to the enemies of books, chief of which are dust, damp, overheating, gas, insects, mice, and thieves. With brushes, ventilation, electricity, poison, and traps the librarian can deal with the lower degrees of the scale; but to escape the book-pilferer, short of the heroic remedy of "keeping a man standing by each book with a club," is a difficult problem where the public has free access to the shelves. We are pained to learn from concurrent authorities, that this is a weakness to which clergymen seem especially prone. The late Dr. Poole, the Chicago librarian, found ministers "more remiss" in this respect than any other class; and when, as we are told, the remissness went to the extent of removing the book-plates and library stamp, and concealing the alterations by pasting in new linings, even charity can hardly attribute the dereliction to absence of mind.

With Dr. Spofford's suggestions for dealing with that torment of the librarian, pamphlets, we cannot entirely concur. When all that are of consequnce have been bound, singly or collectively, or filed in pamphlet-cases, there will always remain a mass of miscellaneous pamphlets which seem to have no value, yet any one of which somebody, at some time, may want to see. To tie these up in bundles or heap them in piles in a cellar or garret, is little better than sending them to the junk-shop. A better plan, we think, is this: Have a room, if possible—if not, a set of shelves—devoted to miscellaneous pamphlets. Give each pamphlet when received an accession-number written in bold figures on the front cover, and place it on the shelf in the order of its accession, irrespective of date or subject. Guide-numbers, at intervals of 20 or 25, can be placed on the edges of the shelves, or guide-cards between the pamphlets. The accession-series should be distinct from that of the main library, and there is no need of an accession-book. Catalogue briefly under the subject (in either the general or a special catalogue) with a symbol to indicate that the number refers to miscellaneous pamphlets. The reader who finds from the catalogue that the library has a pamphlet on the subject he is studying, gives the number to the assistant, who by the guide-numbers on the shelves can lay his hand on it in a few seconds.

One of the most interesting chapters in the book is devoted to binding, of which the various processes, styles, and technicalities are clearly explained. Hints to readers not accustomed to great libraries, and to librarians how to help such readers, are also given, with some remarks on the art of finding references and quotations.

Rare books are discussed, and due warning given to the inexpert buyer not to be deceived by "very rare" or "unique" in catalogues. Putting incunabula aside, no book is necessarily rare because it is old. But if he should be the lucky possessor of the Latin Psalter of Fust and Schoeffer, 1459, it may interest him to know that a copy brought £4,950 at the Syston sale in 1884, being the highest recorded price for a single printed volume. Or if among old rubbish in his garret he finds a copy of the 'Bay Psalm Book,' 1640, let him not part with it lightly, for it is worth over a thousand dollars.

The Causes of the War of 1792. By J. H. Clapham, M. A., Fellow of Kings College, Cambridge. Cambridge (Eng.). University Press; New York: Macmillan. 1899.

Opinion regarding the broad ideas of the French Revolution will, naturally, change with the sentiments of each succeeding age. But what shall be said regarding all our new knowledge of the facts of the Revolution? If any one thinks that history is unprogressive, let him place side by side our present information concerning the affairs of France from 1789 to 1815, and that which was available to Mignet, Thiers, and Lamartine. Without indicating all the points of advance, one may say that nowhere has change of view been more noticeable than in what relates to the diplomatic history of the early Revolution. Among the assumptions of a former age, none had a show of greater certainty than that which represented the foreign policy of France, 1791-95, as wholly irregular, and, like everything else, revolutionary. However, within the last twenty-five years a marked change of attitude has taken place. Mr. Clapham describes the current tendency when he says:

> "The school of French writers which has devoted itself to the study of the unity of national life, and to the undermining of the cataclysmic theories of the Revolution, is rapidly laying bare the points of contact between the diplomacy of the Revolutionary leaders and that of the statesmen of the old order. As a result of their work it is becoming increasingly necessary, in the study of the great wars, to lay stress on the influence of ancient diplomatic traditions and ancient international rivalries."

Mr. Clapham's book springs from a prize essay, the Prince Consort dissertation of 1898. Like other republished prize essays, it has been enlarged since it served its first purpose, and it now makes a volume of moderate size. According to the regulations for the award, "original research" is the touchstone to which each essay offered in competition must be brought, and in Mr. Clapham's case there is proof that Lord Acton's régime at Cambridge has prompted patient and impartial study at first hand. Mr. Clapham is widely read, is accurate, and is thoughtful. The more important strictures which we feel bound to pass upon the quality of his work are but two in number. He occasionally writes a sentence which must be read a second time before its full meaning is apparent, and he is a little overcautious about committing himself to an opinion. So far from finding any trace whatever of dogmatism, one would welcome a little more directness and incisiveness at points where a well fortified historian should make his position clear.

Mr. Clapham begins by sketching the general relations of France with other European states at the outset of the Revolution, and really closes with April 20, 1792, although a chapter of epilogue carries the narrative forward by another three months, or until the Duke of Brunswick's proclamation. Pitt's consistent neutrality during the period prior to the regicide renders the part of England a slight one in such a study as this. Accordingly, Mr. Clapham can give almost all his attention to the policy of the Continental courts, particularly to those of Vienna and Potsdam. St. Petersburg, Madrid, Stockholm, and Turin fill a place in the near background, while afar off one can catch a glimpse of the Sublime Porte. Two governments, and two alone, acted between 1789 and 1792 from a sense of conviction. England and Sweden both had a settled policy. The one was throughout neutral, the other hostile to France. Spain, under Florida Blanca, was also hostile at heart, but had no courage to express her true feelings. The other states temporized for over two years, not by reason of apathy, but because the motives which appealed to them were so many and so varied in character.

Austria, of all the Continental Powers, suffered the most from the wars of the Revolution. There is a Hindustani proverb to the effect that it makes little difference whether the knife falls on the melon or the melon on the knife: in both cases it is the melon which gets damaged. So it proved with Austria from Valmy to Wagram. When we think what these wars cost the Hapsburg provinces, the attitude of the Viennese Foreign Office towards the Legislative Assembly takes on a special importance. But even without looking into the future, the policy of Leopold and Kaunitz is more remarkable than that of Catharine or of Frederick William II. Let us glance at what Mr. Clapham says concerning the development of Austrian hostility to French radicalism.

At the moment when the States-General met, the leading factors of the situation, from the Hapsburg standpoint, were as follows: Austria and France had been, in spite of much murmuring on the part of the French, fast allies for more than forty years; the Emperor's sister, Marie Antoinette, was married to the King of France; Prussia and Austria regarded each other with mutual suspicion; and, for the sake of providing a safeguard against Prussian greed of territory, Austria had joined Russia in a war against the Porte. The Polish question also remained unsettled. Like the majority of sovereigns,

hought at first that the Revolu-
ld merely weaken France, reducing
haps, to the rank of a second-rate
Despite the old alliance of the
Years' War and the recent marriage
tion, he cared little for the political
ps of Louis XVI. So long as govern-
in France did not yield to anarchy,
ould view with pleasure any weakening
the royal prestige. Moreover, he had
long before been the reforming Grand
ke of Tuscany, and looked with some
vor upon moderate liberals. What Aus-
ia needed was peace. She joined in the
Turkish war only to please Russia, and she
would have welcomed the preservation of
the *status quo* in Poland. Here her worst
dread was that Prussia and Russia would
annex fresh portions without giving her
just compensation.

Leopold thus had strong motives for letting affairs work themselves out at Paris, unmolested by him. What led him, and eventually Kaunitz, to favor the declaration of war for which the Brissotins and the Comte de Narbonne also longed? Was it fear that France might encourage the Belgian revolution? Or that she would not act fairly towards the Elector of Trier and the Rhenish princes of the Empire? Or did the Comte d'Artois and the emigrants make an impression at Vienna? We feel confident that none of these partial motives can account for Leopold's change of front. Indeed, so far as the emigrants are concerned, he had a hearty dislike of them. The real causes of his final resolve to fight the Revolution were a growing dread of its doctrines, alarm for the safety of Marie Antoinette and her husband, a belief that the Legislative Assembly could easily be browbeaten, and the certainty of securing Frederick William II. for an ally.

Mr. Clapham's monograph contains comparatively few theories, but very many facts. He advances by short stages, keeping the Powers in touch with each other at each stage. The history of diplomatic negotiations requires great fulness of detail, and so many shifting interests were involved at every court that we have only attempted to say a word about Vienna. But we must express our pleasure at the just censure which Mr. Clapham metes out to Von Sybel for judging the political morality of Prussia by a far less rigorous standard than that which he applies to France. This is a valuable study, and we hope that it may add freshness to more than one university lecture.

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of Electrolytic Dissociation, and
ations. By Harry C.
pp. 289.

lated atoms (not ordinary molecules) of sodium and of chlorine. But this was such a startling idea—it seemed so incredible that an innocent solution of common salt should contain such powerful reagents as nascent sodium and chlorine—that the theory found no acceptance, especially as the proposition did not seem to lead to any further correlation of facts.

In 1877 the botanist Pfeffer published a book (translated in Harper's Science Series) in which he gave the results of numerous experiments by him upon a phenomenon first discovered long before by Traube, that of osmotic pressure. Namely, when a membrane forms a partition between a solution and a quantity of the pure solvent, if it happens that the solvent can pass through the membrane, while the dissolved substance cannot, then the pure solvent will flow into the solution, until a certain difference of pressure has been established, called the osmotic pressure. Now Pfeffer's experiments showed that for dilute solutions of any given substance the osmotic pressure was proportional to the quantity of that solvent in solution—a fact which, if it attracted his attention at all, probably appeared natural enough to him, and to which he attached no particular significance. But one day, as the physical chemist Van't Hoff was going home from his laboratory, he met a colleague who had been repeating some of Pfeffer's experiments, and who mentioned to him the proportionality of the osmotic pressure to the concentration of the solution. To Van't Hoff's trained mind, this meant no less than that the dissolved substance had a pressure proportional to its density, or, in other words, was in a quasi-gaseous condition.

To many a man familiar with the kinetical theory of gases, this analogy would have seemed strained, because he would have regarded it as the essential characteristic of gases, to which the law of Bayle is due, that the molecules have rectilinear paths. The exacter conception of Van 't Hoff was that that law is the consequence, not of the rectilinear paths, but of the fact that the molecules are so far separated from one another that their mutual attractions and repulsions have no considerable effect. But now, according to the law of Avogadro, the pressure of a given gas must be the same as that of the same number of molecules of hydrogen in the same volume and at the same temperature. Was the osmotic pressure, then, of the right amount? After a preliminary inquiry into the applicability of the law of Charles, or Gay-Lussac, Van 't Hoff succeeded in showing that this was precisely true for many substances in solution, while for many others it was not at all true, the osmotic pressure in these cases being always too great. At this point Ar-
whose pupil Van 't Hoff had been,
ately been informed of his
ciation, remarked
olytes,

know in what state the dissociated atoms may be. Possibly, for example, they may be combined with atoms of the ether, which may be of different chemical kinds. But it does seem that chemical physics is now upon a path which may probably bring us out to a clearer view of the nature of atoms and of molecules.

Mr. Jones's book is, in some respects, not unskilfully put together. His argument is clear, consecutive, and convincing. We think his readers will generally regret that he has not placed before them more extended synopses of the facts, in lieu of a few at each point that have been selected as being favorable to the theory. It may be doubted, too, whether the representation of the doctrine of electrolytic dissociation as the pivot upon which all the physical chemistry of the day turns, is quite accurate in its perspective. The non-electrolytes are of a good deal of importance.

About a third of the volume is occupied with applications of the theory to physics, chemistry, and physiology. The most interesting of these have been before the English reader for some years—as has, indeed, the whole subject, though it has not before been so well set forth.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alleman, Julia S. Postmarked "Colima." Philadelphia: Lutheran Publication Society. $1.25.
Bain, R. Nisbet. The Daughter of Peter the Great. London: Archibald Constable & Co.; New York, E. P. Dutton & Co. $4.
Balfour, Marie C. Side Lights on the Reign of Terror: Being the Memoirs of Mlle. des Echerolles. John Lane.
Bouroff, B. The Impending Crisis: Conditions Resulting from the Concentration of Wealth in the United States. Chicago: Midway Press Committee. 25c.
Brownell, C. L. Tales from Tokio. New York: Warner & Brownell.
Burke, E. The Sublime and Beautiful. Cassells. 10c.
Carpenter, F. G. South America, Social, Industrial and Political. New York: The Saalfield Publishing Co.
Chapman, Rev. J. W. Revivals and Missions. New York: Lentilhon & Co. 60c.
Colquhoun, A. R. Russia against India: The Struggle for Asia. Harpers. $1.50.
Crane, W. B. Odd Tales. New York: M. Witmark & Sons.
Davie, O. Methods in the Art of Taxidermy. Philadelphia: David McKay. $2.50.
Foley, J. P. The Jeffersonian Cyclopedia: A Comprehensive Collection of the Views of Thomas Jefferson, Classified and Arranged in Alphabetical Order under Nine Thousand Titles. Funk & Wagnalls Co. $7.50.
Gould, Elizabeth P. Anne Gilchrist and Walt Whitman. Philadelphia: David McKay. $1.
Harper, W. H. "Restraint of Trade": Pros and Cons of Trusts in Facts and Principles. Chicago: The Author. 50c.
Hewes, H. F. Anatomy, Physiology and Hygien for High Schools. American Book Co. $1.
Hoadley, Prof. G. A. A Brief Course in Gener Physics, Experimental and Applied. Americ Book Co. $1.20.
Hoffman, F. L. History of the Prudential Ins ance Company of America 1875-1900. The P dential Press.
Hopkins, J. H. A History of Political Parties the United States. Putnams. $2.50.
Hoyt, J. C. Old Ocean's Ferry: The Log of Modern Mariner. New York: Bonnell, Silve Co. 50c.
Killikelly, Sarah H. Curious Questions in Hist Literature, Art, and Social Life: Designed a Manual of General Information. Philadelp David McKay. Vol. III. $2.
Lane, C. H. All about Dogs: A Book for D People. John Lane.
Langsdorf, Prof. W. B. Seneca's (L.) Tranqu of Mind. (Ill.) Providence. Putnams. $1.
Lauer, Ph. Le Règne de Louis IV. d'Outre Paris: Emile Bouillon. 12 fr.
Lee, S. Dictionary of National Biography. don: Smith, Elder & Co.; New York: Mac Vol. LXIII.: Wordsworth—Zuylestein. $3.75 Indexes to Vols. I. to XIV.
Olive T. The First Book of Birds. & Co.
Water-Color Drawings 1900].

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 6, 1900.

The Week.

The Labor-Day speeches of Gov. Roosevelt and Mr. Bryan, delivered from the same platform, had much in common. Both orators were for an eight-hour day, both for trade unions, both for "sympathy" between capital and labor. If Roosevelt was the more platitudinous and egotistic, Bryan was the more partisan and inflammatory. The mischief lay not in any precise form of words, indeed, but in the latent suggestion, and in the inference which the turbulently inclined among his hearers will be certain to draw from his language. On the surface, his references to "government by injunction," for example, were unimpeachable. He but stated a legal proposition which has commended itself to some of the ablest members of the bar, and which we have not hesitated to approve—namely, that the employment of Federal judges to do the work which the local police power is entirely competent to perform, is a disquieting tendency of the times. As Mr. Bryan pointed out, the Senate voted unanimously for a bill aimed at the abuses of "government by injunction." But when all this is said, what, in pure fact, will be the conclusion which a hot trade-unionist will draw from Mr. Bryan's words? Why, that he, as President, would never interfere, as Mr. Cleveland did, to put down labor riots. It is not his words, but his character and attitude, that count in this business, and they distinctly count on the side of social disturbance.

Bryan maintains silence as to the policy which he would pursue, if elected, regarding certain phases of the silver question. The *Herald's* correspondent at Lincoln asked him, on August 27, whether he would make payment in silver on Government bonds that on their face call for "coin," and his only reply was, "Say Mr. Bryan declines to be interviewed on that subject." The next day the same correspondent put various other questions as to Bryan's course regarding the silver issue in case of his election, and could get no other answer than "I will discuss public questions in my own way and in my own time." Mr. Bryan is, of course, within the rights of a candidate in declining to answer questions which he does not feel like meeting, but it is a tactical mistake for a man who has always prided himself upon the frankness and boldness of his utterances regarding the financial question, to take refuge in silence. A noncommittal course will satisfy neither silver men nor those who believe in the gold standard.

Mr. Schurz's letter to Secretary Gage strikes straight at the joint in that gentleman's harness. In the interest of the Republican party, Mr. Gage had pointed out a loophole left in our monetary legislation, of which Mr. Bryan, if chosen President, could take advantage to imperil the gold standard. Very well, asks Mr. Schurz, why did you leave it? Simply as a very ragged remnant of a bogey wherewith to frighten the country again? Furthermore, Republican control of the finances will not cease, in any event, before next March. Is it to be supposed for an instant that McKinley and a docile Republican majority in Congress would fail to cure all defects in the Gold-Standard Law before Bryan came in? If they did not, they would not be the alarmed saviours of society that they profess to be. Yet if they should say now that they will do what they have the power to do, it would break down their laborious attempt to get up a panic. Secretary Gage spoke in the guise, not of a financier, but of a partisan.

Occasional complaints are made by old-fashioned people of the change in the character of the men who are now elected Senators of the United States. Senator Platt, it is said, is not qualified to maintain the standard established by such orators as Seward and Marcy and Wright and Evarts. He has not made a speech since he took his seat in the Senate Chamber, and the great questions of the day are decided apparently without his knowledge or participation. We recommend to such as are inclined to make complaints of this nature the perusal of Senator Depew's speech at the Republican Club on Thursday night. If they do not feel thankful that the State of New York has one Senator who can hold his peace, they must be very ungrateful people. It has been reported that the Republican managers have decided to make an incursion into the region east of the Bowery, and that Senator Depew has been chosen to lead the invading force. If he is to employ such arguments as he advanced on the above occasion, it is certainly well that they should be reserved for East-Side audiences. Intelligent people can hardly be expected to listen in patience to the assertion that European opinion favors the election of Bryan because it would mean the ruin of the United States. Four years ago, Mr. Depew says, European opinion was in favor of McKinley's election, for a selfish reason. Millions of American securities were held in Europe, and the holders did not want their value reduced by the overthrow of the gold standard. Now these holders have sold their securities and lost interest in our finances. But because they dread our commercial competition, they desire that we should be impoverished, and they think that Bryan's election would bring on a panic that would close our factories. It would be difficult to prepare a worse compound of economic folly and misconception than this.

A newspaper in Moline (Ill.) publishes a circular, said to have been received from an English life-insurance office, warning English insurers against taking policies in American life companies while the standard of value is endangered by the possible election of Bryan. The circular is headed, "Certainty vs. Doubt." It says that if Bryan were elected the life companies of America could not, if they would, pay their claims in gold, and that each £1,000 policy would be reduced in value one-half or more. It says also that Bryan lacked only 30,000 votes of being elected in 1896, and that he (Bryan) considers his chances much better now than they were then. The impression sought to be made on the minds of foreign applicants for life insurance is that American companies are unsafe by reason of danger to the standard of value. Of course, if there is danger to Englishmen, there is equal danger to Americans. Our companies would not make fish of one and flesh of the other, nor would the law let them do so if they wanted to. It is safe to say that few, if any, Americans are deterred from insuring their lives by any apprehension of Bryan's election. Business may be dull in life insurance as it is in banking and other trades, and the Presidential election may have some relation to it. All Presidential years are bad for trade. But any surety company could make money by insuring the holders of American life policies at half of 1 per cent. against all the dangers of bimetallism.

The Republican managers are very glad now that there was such a strong protest against Imperialism from Senators and Representatives of their own party during the last session of Congress. They find that ardent Imperialists of the Grosvenor type are not effective orators at Republican meetings in States like Maine, where the Expansion policy has from the first been regarded with much distrust. In fact, the Ohio Jingo had hardly begun discharging his diatribes against Boutwell and other Anti-Imperialists as "traitors" before he was notified that the managers did not think that they would need so many of his speeches as they had originally scheduled. On the other hand, the men whose support of republicanism counts most in this campaign are Senator Hale of Maine, who voted against the treaty of peace, and still says that he is not an Expansionist and never expects to be one; Representative McCall of Massachusetts, the Republican member of the Ways and Means Committee who led the movement against the Porto Rico tariff in the House last winter; and Representative Littlefield, the new member from Maine, who leaped into national prominence by asserting his independence of party dictation.

The disregard of American officers in the Philippines for the safety of insurgent prisoners, and the dubious character of the civil governments which have been set up under American authority, are strikingly illustrated by the case of Col. James S. Pettit of the Thirty-first United States Volunteer Infantry. While in command of the district of Mindanao and Jolo, Col. Pettit turned over to one Midel, a civil officer under his immediate control, one Juan Ramos, a reputed insurgent and agent of Aguinaldo. Once in Midel's hands and beyond the outposts of the United States troops, Ramos was promptly shot. For his action in the matter Col. Pettit was tried by court-martial and acquitted. In disapproving the findings, Gen. MacArthur, though restoring Pettit to duty, censured his conduct in strong terms. The accused officer admitted that Midel had asked to have Ramos turned over to him "for punishment," on the ground that "it was necessary to make an example of the first offender"; and there was evidence of record, although the court apparently did not give much weight to it, that the transfer of Ramos was made in pursuance of an agreement between Pettit and Midel that he should be killed by the latter. Under the circumstances, and with knowledge of the shooting of another insurgent leader who had previously fallen into Midel's hands, Gen. MacArthur very properly concluded that Col. Pettit's instructions had been issued "carelessly and negligently," and that he was guilty of disregard of the "elementary rights" guaranteed to his prisoner by military law.

The thirty cities in the United States having each a population of 100,000 or over show, according to the returns published by the Census Bureau, a combined population of 13,243,515, or about one-sixth of the probable total population of the whole country. The figures do not, of course, exhibit the actual massing of population at many centres, since cities like New York, Boston, St. Louis, Kansas City, and Omaha have adjacent to them large populations identical with them in interests, and separated only by an indistinguishable boundary line, but which, because of their distinct municipal organization, are separately enumerated. Of the thirty cities, Omaha alone shows a falling off during the decade, and the padding of the returns from that city in 1890 seems to be generally accepted as the correct explanation. While the rate of growth naturally varies much with different localities, it has been, on the whole, well sustained. It must be remembered, in this connection, that the growth of population since 1890 has been somewhat different from that during the decade 1880-1890. Since 1890 the country has not been swept by strong currents carrying large masses of population this way and that, and affecting directly the local conditions of increase. Immigration, too, has been much more strictly guarded, and the lowest classes of Europeans, who once flocked to us in droves, have largely ceased to come. Apparently, therefore, our growth in numbers, when the statistics are available for an analysis of it, ought to be found to have been of an encouragingly healthy sort. There seems to be no reason to think that the rate of increase in the cities will hold true also of the country, although the smaller cities and towns will very probably show relatively large gains.

What effect the increase of population, as shown by the twelfth census, is to have upon the size of the House of Representatives, will doubtless continue to be a fruitful subject for speculation until Congress itself settles the question. It seems to be generally assumed that the number of Representatives will be increased, as has been the case at each apportionment save that under the census of 1840, when the membership was reduced from 240 to 223. It did not reach the former figure again until 1860, when the number was 243. The next increase was large, to 293, followed by 325 in 1880, and 356 in 1890. The fixing of the ratio, and, consequently, of the number of Representatives, is, of course, an arbitrary arrangement, the only restraint upon Congress being the Constitutional requirement that each State shall have at least one Representative, and the accepted precedent that the existing representation of a State is not to be reduced. Just how many Representatives any State will be entitled to, whether under the present ratio or some other, cannot be figured out until the full statistics of population are available, which will not be until some months hence. It is apparent, however, that any considerable increase will seriously crowd the present hall of the House at Washington. So long as every member must have a desk and an armchair, the physical difficulties of properly seating the members must soon reach a climax. Resort to the custom of the House of Commons, where benches only are provided for members, would relieve the difficulty, and do away with the indefensible practice of using the desks in the hall of the House as places, not for attending to the business before the House, but for writing letters, preparing speeches, and reading newspapers. Compared with European bodies, the House of Representatives is not immoderately large, but if further increase is thought advisable, a better plan than the present for the accommodation of the members ought by all means to be devised.

Although the frequent insurrections in South America have accustomed us to thinking of that part of the world as engaged in chronic war, the reported action of Chili in establishing compulsory military service bodes ill for future peace. The inciting occasion, no doubt, is the determination of Chili to retain permanently the provinces of Tacna and Arica, which have been occupied by Chili since the close of the war with Peru, in 1883. That the action of Chili will operate to force similar action by neighboring States is evident. Peru has already revived a compulsory military service law dating from the war between that country and Chili, and the newspapers of Bolivia, Argentina, and other countries are earnestly discussing the matter. Chilian papers seek to justify the measure on economical grounds, the pay of the soldiers under the new requirement being only $8 a month, as against $25 a month now. As *El Pais*, a Buenos Ayres journal, points out, however, the only justification for compulsory military service is extraordinary military exigency, and such exigency does not exist in Chili at the present time. Moreover, Chili itself has nothing to gain from the change in the way of enhanced military prowess. Other nations will only follow the same course, with the result that South America will be in a state of armed peace, with all the financial burdens, economic disorders, and international dangers which such a régime involves. The situation certainly affords a striking illustration of the fatal tendency of militarism to reach beyond countries where its encouragement may be given a kind of plausibility, and plant itself in regions where its presence can be defended only on the most shadowy of pretexts.

Russia is forcing a withdrawal of legations and troops from Pekin to Tientsin, which would not only bring the allies nearer to their base, but leave an opening for the return of the fugitive Chinese Government, and facilitate the negotiations for a settlement. A sense of humor combined with good sense has brought about this step, for, as we intimated last week, the situation at Pekin was becoming ridiculous, provided there was neither the intention nor the ability to overrun China and hold her in subjection, divided or undivided. All the Powers disclaim such a purpose, and nothing else remained but to signify this by evacuating the capital, which had been invaded solely in order to rescue the Ministers. Moreover, if Count von Waldersee's nomination as generalissimo was as distasteful to Russia as has been represented, it was desirable to anticipate his arrival out by bringing active hostilities to a close. His promenade, which is really the German Emperor's, is therefore in danger of having a jocose termination, whether because he will find nothing to do, or because his authority can be contested on the ground that the conditions in view of which his appointment was assented to have passed away.

The semi-agreement between Russia and the United States is construed in England as a departure from the policy of the open door in China, and as a surrender of Mantchuria and North China to Russian trade monopoly. The contrary belief prevails here. Russia had pledged herself in writing to the open-door policy in China months before the Boxer troubles began. The two things were in no way connected with each other. The agreement as to trade did not depend upon anything that the Chinese Government or rebellious Chinese subjects might do. It was an understanding primarily between ourselves and Russia, but was of such a nature that other Powers, desiring to trade with China, might do so on equal terms, the door being open to all alike. Now comes the Boxer disturbance, or whatever may have been the inspiration of the attack upon the embassies at Pekin. Russia, the United States, and England are equally sufferers from this attack. They join to rescue their Ministers. The rescue having been effected, and the Chinese authorities having fled, Russia says that there is no reason why her Minister should remain in a place where there is no Government to communicate with. She proposes to retire, and resume negotiations whenever China shall have reëstablished an authority with which other Governments can deal. Nobody can find fault with this proceeding unless he is accustomed to look at Russia through the colored glasses of his own jealousy and fears. We are not under any disability of that kind.

The London *Times* says that if some of the Powers withdraw from Pekin, such action will not affect the duty or interests of the others. That is very true. No feelings will be hurt on this side of the water if England decides to remain in Pekin till a stable government is established there, or if other Powers remain there with her. Those who remain, however, will have to pay the bills after the others withdraw. There is no danger that England will set up any exclusive trade privileges or allow her partners in the joint occupancy to do so. So we can rest entirely easy on that score. One question of great perplexity will remain to be settled by all the Powers, whether their forces remain in Pekin or not, and that is whether they can ever again put their embassies in peril of siege in the Chinese capital, or whether they will be compelled to fix the residences of their diplomatic agents at some point on the seaboard where they will be under the protection of their own guns.

British annexation of the Transvaal has been a foregone conclusion ever since the Boer war broke out; yet it comes now as a very cold comfort to the English public. What was wanted was a speedier and more graceful yielding after the capture of Pretoria. Believing themselves so extremely unselfish and benevolent, Englishmen have wondered that the burghers did not more readily perceive the noble qualities of their conquerors. Both the Transvaal and the Orange River Colony, it is now clear, will have to be strongly garrisoned for a long time to come. The former country was easily conquered, after Paardeberg, but Lord Roberts soon found out that to conquer is one thing, to pacify quite another. Since the proclamation of annexation, burghers found with arms in their hands are technically rebels, and subject to hanging for treason. It is safe to say, however, that no English Government will hang them. Treason unsuccessful is, in this case, no longer treason. Disappointed as the British public is at the failure of the Dutch to fly to the arms of their conquerors, it still desires to see a policy of conciliation put into effect.

The full text of Mr. Labouchere's correspondence with Montague White only confirms the impression gained from the dispatches, that Mr. Labouchere's dealings with the Transvaal agent were highly honorable. Some months before war was declared, at a time when English public sentiment was much inflamed against the Boers, Mr. Labouchere counselled Oom Paul's people to have patience, to accept the commission forced upon them by Chamberlain, and to trust to time and a skilful presentation of their case to do them justice. In contributing to the discussion of the Transvaal franchise certain facts about the English naturalization laws, Mr. Labouchere did not commit the slightest impropriety. In short, all his efforts looked simply towards the maintenance of peace by means of discussion and conference. Mr. Chamberlain's action in making any point of these letters was singularly naïve. It gave Mr. Labouchere the chance to figure as an aggrieved person, and, worse yet, to stir up anew the unsavory matter of Mr. Chamberlain's dealings with the Transvaal—a chapter of diplomatic history that was sinking into kindly oblivion. For Mr. Chamberlain to suppose that the mere cry of "treason" would go down with the English mob was to commit the politician's unpardonable sin, of not "knowing his public."

Through the withdrawal of the Bulgarian diplomatic agent at Bucharest, friction between the Bulgarian principality and the Rumanian kingdom reaches the acute stage. The cause of the trouble was the maltreatment of Rumanians residents in Bulgaria by the Macedonian Revolutionary Committee. Persecution and blackmail of various degrees against Rumanians who opposed the work of the revolutionists, finally culminated in the assassination of a prominent Rumanian resident in Sophia. Demands for satisfaction and the speedy punishment of the assassins were met by demands for proof. Evidence that Bulgarians high in the official service were implicated in the crime greatly exacerbated Rumanian resentment, and provoked the threat of reprisal by the general deportation of the Bulgarians in Rumania. Bulgarian delays only made matters worse, and the final act, which is just short of a declaration of war—the sundering of diplomatic relations—comes from Bulgaria, the country morally the aggressor in the dispute. It appears that the Bulgarian revolutionists welcome the chances of a war, with its possibilities of Russian intervention and the annihilation of Rumania, the buffer state between the Russian Slavs and those of the Balkan States. It is surprising that Abdul Hamid should contemplate the situation with apparent serenity. But it is possible that the Sublime Porte has learned to accept resignedly the minor amputations, so long as the Turkish Empire, as a whole, is not laid on the operating table of the Powers—possible, too, that the Sultan is assured that the deluge is reserved for his successor.

Social Democracy has gained few legislative victories in Germany, but that it has profoundly leavened the German masses in the great cities was shown in the funeral ceremonies of William Liebknecht three weeks ago. It was to be expected that the Socialists of many lands would be represented at the obsequies of the great Socialist leader. The spontaneous interest of all Berlin in the event was, however, less expected, and more significant. Six thousand persons from Liebknecht's Parliamentary district preceded the body to the grave. In all, the funeral cortège is said to have numbered over 30,000, and the exercises of the day passed off in perfect order and with the utmost decorum. The solemnity of his last offices, though perhaps chiefly a tribute to the worth of the man, testifies impressively to the growth of his cause in the German capital.

THE INDEPENDENT VOTER.

Those citizens who do not care to "belong" to either the Republican or the Democratic party are the recipients of much attention from the party press. This attention generally takes the form of abuse. The late Mr. Ingalls of Kansas discharged his vitriolic wit at the Mugwumps, and the Independent voter is often compared to the man without a country. He is berated for his presumption in having opinions of his own, for contumacy in proclaiming them, and for his obstinacy in demanding a chance to vote for candidates that represent them. The craftier politicians, who do not believe in "going duck-shooting with a brass band," have great bouts in ratiocination with imaginary Independents. They prove to them that their objects are hopelessly unattainable, and that they will be most effectively attained by the success of this party or of that. They commend their sincere patriotism, and demonstrate that patriotism consists in giving the offices to one gang of politicians rather than the other. These logical exercises may not be convincing, but they are instructive. They prove at least that there is a class of voters who are supposed to be reasoning beings.

Those who maintain that habitual independence in voting is not only politically wise, but also morally right, are not greatly affected by the appeals of politicians and their organs. But they are not insensible to the criticism of men of decent character and respectable intellect, who ridicule them as "unpractical." These hard-headed men of the world are quite willing to concede the virtue of their visionary friends; but they reason, to put the matter in a concrete form, that either McKinley or Bryan will be elected, and that it is, therefore, foolish to vote for any one else. This reasoning is based on a misconception of the position of the Independent that is inveterate. The "practical" men are so sure that they are right as to make it rather hopeless to explain to them that they are humiliatingly wrong; but there are many people whose minds are open to evidence, and who may be interested in having the somewhat mysterious attitude of the Independent voter made clear. It is true that he does not stand in need of sympathy. He is supposed to suffer from lonesomeness; but while it is a pity that any one should be lonesome because of his virtues, those who are distinguished for the independence of their convictions and their action are in no more need of sympathy because they are few in numbers, than those who are distinguished for the polish of their manners or the thoroughness of their culture. The Independents do not feel in need of pity; they even have it to spare for those whose conception of patriotism leads them to follow where newspapers debarred from our clubs and libraries lead, and whose idea of good citizenship consists in voting for the nominees of their bosses.

There may be times when the Independent voter will think that the party in power is likely to endanger the permanent welfare of the country, and when he gladly supports the other party because he believes that it is a genuine opposition. A number of Independent voters seem to have made up their minds that the present is such a juncture. They think that the Democratic politicians are sincerely opposed to the Imperial policy of the Administration, and that they will reverse it if they come into power. In view of the fact that no influential and responsible Democrats except Mr. Bryan have manifested any such opposition, and the fact that Mr. Bryan defends both the war and the peace with Spain, and of some other facts, the evidence appears to us insufficient to support the conclusion. It is very clear that a great many Anti-Imperialists will vote for McKinley, and their votes will offset those cast for Bryan by men of similar convictions. Those who vote for Bryan by way of protest may thus accomplish nothing. If he is elected, they will find it very difficult to make the Democrats believe that it was because of their aid, and they can hardly expect that Senator Morgan, and Senator Tillman, and ex-Gov. Altgeld, and Mr. Croker, and Mr. Hearst will admit them into the party councils. It seems to be the common expectation that Bryan will be badly beaten. The unexpected sometimes happens, and we venture no prophecies. But if he is badly beaten, it will be very difficult to make out that the Anti-Imperialist vote is large, and it will be inferred that the Anti-Imperialist sentiment is weak. Had all those who entertain this sentiment united in demanding the nomination of candidates who really represented it, the result might have been sufficiently impressive to settle the question permanently. It might have revealed the existence of so large a body of voters determined to maintain the principles of free government as would have taught conservatism to the leaders of both parties. It is not yet too late to take such a stand.

The aim of the Independent voter is to secure such a government as will make every one feel that legislation is not bought, that the taxes are just, and that no more revenue is exacted than is necessary for a simple and economical administration. The aims of the politicians are altogether different, and they can be restrained from carrying them out only by constant vigilance. By means of our party system they have got control of the Government, and it is necessary to our salvation that their power should be broken. The functions and the revenue of the Government must be sharply limited, because these functions are administered and these revenues spent by the politicians. If there is any way of breaking their power and diminishing the influence of party except by means of Independent voting, it has not yet been pointed out. Most people concede this, but they always think that the present moment is unfavorable for action. It may cause financial disturbance, or create social discontent, or injure our chances of subduing the Filipinos, or of securing the trade of China. The politicians in power heartily applaud these views, and are ready to promise all sorts of reforms whenever the Greek Kalends arrive. The Independent voters say, Reform your ways now, or take the consequences. If the country suffers it will be your fault, not ours; and if it chooses to tolerate your misconduct, it deserves to suffer. When any considerable number of citizens take this position, it will be the dawn of better days for the Republic.

SHIP SUBSIDIES.

The Republican Campaign Text-Book for 1900 contains six pages in favor of the Ship Subsidy Bill which failed of consideration at the last session of Congress. This was the so-called Grosvenor bill, which was a modification of the Hanna-Payne bill. It should be observed that the Republican national platform did not endorse any particular bill for ship subsidies, and had only a general resolution for "legislation which will enable us to recover our former place among the trade-carrying fleets of the world." It will be remembered that Gen. Grosvenor was very angry when he discovered that a "ringing resolution" in favor of ship subsidies, which, he said, had been agreed upon beforehand, had been omitted from the platform,and that the other wishy-washy thing had been put in its place. An attempt made by Gen. Grosvenor himself to smoke out the guilty members of the Platform Committee failed.

It appears, therefore, that in so far as the Republican Campaign Text-Book advocates a particular subsidy bill it exceeds the party platform. The platform, for example, speaks of recovering our former place "in the trade-carrying fleets of the world." The Grosvenor bill, like the Hanna-Payne bill, which preceded it, was a measure to assist passenger-carrying lines, and especially one line which was already old and prosperous, and was receiving mail pay equal to nearly 5 per cent. per annum on a capital of $10,000,000, without counting its earnings from other sources. Therefore the six pages of the Campaign Text-Book in favor of this particular bill are largely gratuitous. The action, or rather the non-action, of Congress and the carefulness of the platform-makers have left all Republicans free to hold and express such opinions as they please respecting the means to be employed in "restoring our merchant marine." If any member of the party thinks that the merchant marine is restoring itself without the subsidies provided in the Grosvenor bill, and that its restoration will be more permanent if accomplished in the natural way than by artificial means, he can say so without forfeiting his party standing or consideration. It is still an open question in Republican councils.

The Campaign Text-Book says "there are several reasons why we do not own and operate ships in our foreign trade," and then it proceeds to enumerate them. One of these is that "it costs 25 per cent. more to build and operate ships in the United States than it does abroad." The assumption that we do not own and operate ships in our foreign trade is proved to be false by the fact that every shipyard in the country is crowded with orders, that no intending ship-owner can get one built under two years' time, that new plants for ship-building are now in course of erection, larger than any existing ones—in short, that the iron-ship building trade is the most prosperous branch of the iron industry in the United States to-day.

The assumption is refuted further by the fact that the International Company, the Atlantic Transport Company, the Pacific Mail Company, the Ward Line, and others are actually doing from day to day, and from week to week, the very thing that the Book says they cannot do, or cannot do with a profit. The Atlantic Transport Company, it is true, had its steamships built abroad; but as the subsidy bill has been framed to grant American registry to all ships in established lines either contracted for on January 1, 1899, or actually engaged in running from our ports to foreign ports (if a majority of their stock is owned by American citizens), the place of construction is not very important. The subsidy for such ships is only one-half as great as for those built in the United States, but the principle is the same. The Atlantic Transport Company, we may remark, has not been much in evidence as a seeker after subsidies. It is bringing out new ships all the time, and has loaned one, the best of its line, without charge, to do an errand of mercy to sick and wounded soldiers in South Africa and China. Presumably it is quite able to take care of itself without a subvention from the public taxes, but perhaps it would not refuse any dollars that might be flung around by Uncle Sam in a moment of maudlin prodigality.

It is not true that "it costs 25 per cent. more to build ships in the United States than it does abroad." The late Mr. John Roach said to a committee of Congress which was investigating the cost of ship-building materials:

> "If Congress will take off all duties from American iron, reducing it to the price of foreign iron, then we are prepared to compete with foreign ship-builders. The labor question is misstated. We are prepared to meet that claim and to ask no further legislation on the subject."

Before the same committee, Mr. Cramp, the great shipbuilder of Philadelphia, and the greatest in America, when questioned as to the rate of duty on imported materials for shipbuilding, said:

> "About 40 per cent., and, if our shipbuilders could be relieved from that, they could compete successfully with foreign builders. The difference in the cost of labor would be overcome by the superiority of American mechanics."

The duties were repealed, and rightly so, but the duties are no longer a question of importance, since the price of iron has fallen so low in this country that we sell it abroad in competition with the best English and German makes. The comparative cost of shipbuilding here and abroad, therefore, is no longer an element to our disadvantage. It is introduced in the Campaign Text-Book for purposes of deception. The entire article is made up of deceptions, all of which had been answered, before the Book itself was published, by Congressman Fitzgerald in his minority report from the Committee on Merchant Marine and Fisheries. Nobody can read that report without reaching his conclusion that "the real effect of this bill will not be to encourage the building of ships which would not otherwise be built, or to increase the trade, but to increase the profits of the already prosperous lines, which, *without subsidy*, have built, or contracted for, the very ships to subsidize which this bill is framed."

THE GROWTH OF MACHINE POWER.

The primaries of both the Republican and the Democratic parties in the boroughs of Manhattan and Brooklyn were held on August 28. The results clearly illustrate that steady growth of machine power which is the most striking feature of our political development, and they merit attention in this light quite as much as for their bearing on persons and policies.

Primaries in this State are now held under a law which is designed to give every member of a party a "fair show" in the choice of candidates. Any voter who indicated his party affiliations when he registered for the election of last November, or who has become of age since then and has filed with the proper authority a certificate of that fact and a declaration of his party preferences, can go to the primaries of that party on the appointed day and cast his vote. The regular inspectors of election supervise the process, and frauds at primaries are punishable in the same way as at elections.

There is, of course, a considerable element of voters who are so independent that they do not feel as though they had any right to participate in the primaries of either party. But making a liberal allowance for this class, there is no reason why 90 per cent. of those who ordinarily support either the Republican or the Democratic ticket at elections should not take part in the naming of that ticket. Theoretically, the present system secures all that could be asked. When it was adopted, many people were hopeful that it would greatly diminish the power of "the organization" in each party. Practically, however, the machines find it little harder to have their way now than under the old régime. There are various reasons for this. In the first place, a large proportion of both Republicans and Democrats who are sufficiently partisan to warrant their enrolment will not qualify by indicating their party affiliations when they register for an election. It is the duty of the registrars to ask every intending voter whether he does not wish to make such indication of his party choice, but a surprisingly large number of regular Republicans and regular Democrats will not avail themselves of the privilege. Of those who qualify themselves in the fall to participate in the primaries to be held at the end of the next summer, a large proportion forget all about the matter before the time comes, or, if they remember, will not take the trouble, on a hot afternoon or evening, to go a dozen steps out of their way to reach the voting place. Another percentage, which grows larger every year under the modern conditions of city life in hot weather, cannot attend a primary because during the dog-days they are away from home—in the mountains, on the seashore, in Europe, everywhere except within a short walk of the place where the primary is held. This is particularly true of the so-called "better element"—the men of education, means, and ideals as to public life. On the other hand, the machine men are always on hand. The voters upon whom the organization of either party depends are not men who take long vacations, or short vacations either, at times that will interfere with their work for the organization. This is as true of the generals and colonels and lieutenants as of the rank and file. Croker and Platt never forget the date of the primaries, and if they are not in personal control of the machinery, they intrust its running to men who will not neglect anything. The machine always "attends strictly to business," and in politics, as in every other relation of life, the professional beats the amateur, nine times out of ten.

A popular uprising can still bring the machine to terms, but it seems harder to accomplish this every year. The organization grows steadily more powerful, and the difficulties of building up an effective opposition constantly increase. Power more and more concentrates in the hands of the boss. He dispenses not only patronage, but money, through his relations with the great corporations, his control of contracts, and his influence over business of various sorts. The man who opposes the organization runs the risk of losing his office if he holds any, will find his name put on the black list for the future, may suffer in his business. Revolts are yet attempted, and once in a while they succeed, like that of "Abe" Gruber against Platt in the Twenty-first Assembly District of New York County. But such revolts become increasingly difficult, as has proved the case with the rebels against Tammany Hall under the lead of John C. Sheehan in the Ninth Assembly District of New York, and with the opponents of the McLaughlin ring in more than one Brooklyn district.

Summed up in a sentence, last week's primaries show that Platt controls almost all the delegates to the Republican State Convention from Manhattan, as he does from the rest of the State, and Croker all those to the Democratic Convention from this borough; that the supporters of Coler's nomination were beaten by representatives of the McLaughlin ring in Brooklyn, and that while the delegates elected in that borough will vote for Coler at Saratoga if they "get orders," the indications are that McLaughlin's lieutenants who now run the Brooklyn machine are in alliance with Croker; in short, that the organization in the Republican party can nominate Odell without any opposition, and that the other organization can put up anybody whom it chooses against him. Such is popular government in the Empire State of the Union at the end of the nineteenth century.

THE COAL FAMINE.

In popular discussion, the excessive rise in the price of English coal has been chiefly associated with the rather startling possibility that the soft-coal producers of the United States may enter on an extensive scale the rich consuming markets of Great Britain. This dream, however, is not likely to be realized in the near future. It is possible, of course, that the price of English coal might go so high as to admit of a profit on shipments from Ohio and Pennsylvania, after paying railway and ocean freights. But any extensive movement of the kind would regulate itself. Large new supplies in England would check the rise in English prices. Simultaneously, a really large export demand would raise the American price. Even if a margin of profit on the operation exists to-day—which is doubtful—it could not be sustained in the face of a heavy movement.

To England itself, a very different problem is presented by the rise in coal. Estimates lately published in London reckoned the average export price of English coal at 8.98 shillings per ton in 1897, at 9.92 shillings in 1898, at 10.72 in 1899, and at 15½ shillings for the first half of 1900. Recent export quotations at Newcastle have ranged from 16½ shillings for the second grade to 19½ for the best steam grades. What this enormous rise in cost of fuel means to English industries may be judged from the recent half-yearly reports of the railways of that country, the summary of which shows an increase of 30 per cent. in the cost of coal. On lines with an aggregate semi-annual net revenue of $73,500,000, this single item of increased fuel expenses foots up no less than $2,650,000, and turned an increase in net receipts over 1899 into a heavy decrease. Three-fourths of the companies have had to cut down dividends. What is true of the English railways must obviously be quite as true of the immense manufacturing and shipping industries of Great Britain.

Writing in 1865, Prof. W. Stanley Jevons, after examining the ratio of increase in consumption of English coal from 1781 to 1863, and assuming a similar future ratio of increase, reached the conclusion that "we [the English nation] cannot long maintain our present rate of increase of consumption; that we can never advance to the higher amounts of consumption supposed." "This," Professor Jevons inferred, "only means that the check to our progress must become perceptible within a century from the present time; that the cost of fuel must rise, perhaps within a lifetime, to a rate injurious to our commercial and manufacturing supremacy; and the conclusion is inevitable, that our present happy progressive condition is a thing of limited duration."

We have not space to go over the various arguments by which Professor Jevons reached this gloomy conclusion. In substance, his inferences were based on the assumption that a century of English coal-mining at the estimated ratio of increase in the output would exhaust the mines to the depth of 4,000 feet. But an average depth of 2,000 feet, he reasoned, would result in the doubling of the cost of the product. Hence, it was inferred, the check to English prosperity, based as it largely is upon its cheap and abundant coal, was an early possibility.

It is a rather curious fact that the present price of English coal nearly fulfils Professor Jevons's prediction; the current quotations of sixteen shillings per ton, or thereabouts, comparing with nine shillings for the same grade in 1860. But it should also be observed that this entire rise has been compassed within three years; the average price of 1897, already cited, falling below nine shillings. Such a movement arouses the same suspicion, the same reluctance to rush to conclusions for the longer future, as were excited, for instance, by the rise in iron from $11.25 per ton in August, 1898, to $25 in November, 1899. Few observers of the market looked on the movement as meaning anything more than an excessive upward swing of the pendulum of trade prosperity, and, in fact, to-day the price is down again to $16.50. Sir William Crookes was led by the rise of wheat in May, 1898, to $1.93 per bushel, into some wholesale conclusions of impending famine. Yet wheat sold freely about seventy-five cents per bushel in the autumn of 1899, and is not very much higher now. The market for coal has not been free from similar fluctuations. Mr. Sauerbeck's tables show that the price of English export coal advanced from an average of 9.8 shillings per ton in 1872 to 20.9 shillings in the "boom year," 1873, and by 1879 was back again to 8¾ shillings. Similarly, from 8.41 shillings in 1888, the average mounted to 12.31 in 1892; yet in 1897, as we have seen, it was again selling below nine shillings per ton. Manifestly, some other influence than exhaustion of the mines has been at work on these occasions.

Professor Jevons's estimates, based on an arbitrary increase in ratio of consumption, assumed an English output of 234,700,000 tons in 1891, and of 331,000,000 tons in 1901. As a matter of fact, the actual production of 1891 was forty-five million tons below his estimate, and the recent returns of the British Government's statistical bureau show that Great Britain's mines produced in 1899 less coal by 111,000,000 tons than were fixed for the end of the present decade by Professor Jevons. There have been periods (such as 1884-1887, and 1892-1893 inclusive) when Great Britain's coal consumption slackened materially. In 1893 the output barely exceeded that of 1883, and was less than in 1881—upsetting, at least for that period, the estimates of decennial progression.

Furthermore, current statistics prove unmistakably that it is not excessive English home consumption, nor yet a sudden rise in cost of production, which has forced up so strikingly the cost of coal. The British Board of Trade reports show that export of coal from England, during the calendar year 1899, rose 6,500,000 tons over 1898, the increase being common to a dozen foreign countries. The increase thus far in 1900 has been continuous, though less rapid. As compared with 1890—another year of trade activity in Europe—the increase in last year's coal exports was thirteen million tons. This is a highly interesting factor in the problem, and one with which, in its broader economic bearing, Professor Jevons was as perplexed to deal as a present-day economist could be. It is perfectly obvious, however, that a real excess in this direction will correct itself; for a rise in prices such as has lately occurred must, in the end, be as prohibitory on export trade as the export duty on coal once discussed by English economists. It is in these competitive foreign markets that American export coal will eventually find its largest opportunities—always subject, however, it must be recalled, to continuance of active European demand and relatively high prices for coal.

ON TRANSLATING THE 'ARABIAN NIGHTS.'—II.

So end the attempts in English. The classic rendering of 'The Nights' is still to come. Meanwhile, two translations are appearing in Germany and in France. The one, by a certain Max Henning, otherwise unknown as an Arabist, is in Reclam's excellent "Universal-Bibliothek," and is a conscientious and laborious piece of work. It is as nearly complete as may be, and about half of the verses are rendered after Lane's fashion. The prose is of a happy simplicity, with a sub-flavor of the *Märchen* style; but the version generally cannot lay claim to literary merit. Very different is the French translation. It is by "le Dr. J. C. Mardrus" (also unknown as an Arabist), calls itself "traduction littérale et complète," and is written frankly from a literary standpoint. The Arabic scholarship of Dr. Mardrus is beneath criticism; his version absolutely swarms with the most naive blunders, some of which have descended from Galland, while others appear to be due to a Parisian consciousness guessing text from context. But such evident blunders go only a little way towards exhausting the differences between this *traduction littérale* and its original. On almost every page there are expansions and "improvements." The erotic passages have especially excited the genius of Dr. Mardrus. While other translators make apology, more or less dexterous, for such elements in their work, he indefatigably gilds the gold and paints the lily till the poor 'Nights' themselves grow pallid and dull beside this distant descendant. Yet, undoubtedly, there is much to praise in his recension—such is, perhaps, the politest word which truth will permit. Except where misled by ignorance of Arabic (and Dr. Mardrus seems to have strangely combined much knowledge of the life of the East with little of its language), he has caught and expressed the true Oriental flavor. When he is literal, there is an absoluteness in his literality, a childlike plainness of rendering, which touches genius. He has evidently had delight in his undertaking; and if we could away with his extensions, we might take delight in it too.

In face of this tangled skein of success and failure, how stands the case for the future English translator? What is essentially his problem? What should be his aim? What his canon and test? His is no ordinary task of translation. He must recreate as well as render; 'The Nights' in English are and must be essentially different in spirit and effect from 'The Nights' in Arabic. The lack of a frank recognition of this is the rock on which so many translators have split. They have failed to see that there are three separate 'Nights' as 'The Nights' have three separate audiences. Matthew Arnold pointed out, in his lectures on translating Homer, that our test of a translation of Homer must be the effect which it produces on a modern Grecian—does it work upon him in the same way as the original?—that our test cannot be the emotions produced in Sophocles, say, when he read Homer, for we cannot have any idea what those emotions were. Only thus and so far can there be validity in the canon that a translation must produce on the minds of its readers the same effect that the original does on its readers. So for Homer there are two audiences, one of the ancient Greeks, now passed away and out of our reach, and the other of modern Grecians. But in the case of 'The Nights' the complication is still greater. The mediæval Arab read them or heard them read, and had certain emotions; they are read at the present day throughout the Arabic-speaking world, and produce practically the same emotions. That is one audience and one set of emotions. Next, they are read by Arabists with certain emotions, mostly ethnological, sociological, anthropological, but also, in part, æsthetic. That is another audience and another set of emotions. The third audience consists of all those who read in Western languages and in ignorance of the East. They have their emotions, which are, again, quite different. For each of these audiences 'The Nights' is an essentially different thing, and produces an essentially different effect.

Take as an illustration one phase only, the supernatural element. To the native reader the whole supernatural apparatus, the conception of a second world of Jinn, lying parallel to our world and from time to time mixing in our life, is real and existent. It is a possibility for him at any time that a Jinn might rise from his well or melt through the wall of his room; that in ploughing he might strike an enchanted hoard, with all equipment of magic lamps and rings and gardens of jewels; that his horse might prove an ensorcelled prince, or his wife a ghoul or enchantress. Allah is great, and the marvels of his creation who can fathom! Thus it comes that the effect upon Oriental and Occidental must be different. The true parallel, *qua* effect, to these tales for us is to be found in the modern stories of the wonders of science and pseudo-science which we owe to the ingenuity of M. Jules Verne and his array of followers. Further, what is the attitude of the Arabist and the effect on him? Again the parallel with Homer breaks. The Grecian who reads Homer is separated from the non-Grecian practically by his knowledge of Greek. Every educated man has more or less knowledge of the civilization, the spirit, the religion, the manners of the Homeric age. We are its heirs, and the line of descent is direct. But with things Arabic it is different. The worlds are too far apart. The linguistic studies of the Arabist which enable him to read 'The Nights' teach him also, or should teach him, to know the world of 'The Nights,' a world of which the non-Arabist knows simply nothing. Thus the Arabist stands apart not only by his knowledge of the language, but by his acquaintance with a separate and utterly different civilization. The tendency, then, is for 'The Nights' to become for him, what they became for Lane, a vast storehouse of information on the manners and customs, the spirit and the life, of the Muslim East. He cannot help himself; he cannot read them as the Arab does; he cannot read them as the non-Arabist does. To the non-Arabist their world is out of space, out of time; a land of enchantment whose like has never existed, never can exist. Bagdad is on no map; Grand Cairo is a dream. As the magnificent visions of opium rose to De Quincy at the roll of the words, "Consul Romanus," so to "Commander of the Faithful" the gates of mighty cities unbar, of Balsora and Bagdad. In that fine air their towers are as real, their bowers are as green and fresh, as any that ever gleamed in the Tigris stream or bloomed in the gardens of Damascus. These glorious visions are the most real impossibilities that have ever been.

If, then, 'The Nights' of an English reader can never be 'The Nights' of an Arab, and can be 'The Nights' of an Arabist only in so far as he holds fast by the memories of childhood, any theory of "the same effect" must fall to the ground. The effect cannot be other than different, and what we have seen of the fates of translators proves the difference. The work of three only can stand as literature, Galland, Torrens, and Payne. Mr. Payne's success has been achieved by making 'The Nights' over into a European fairy-book. The peculiar *cachet* of the East has vanished, and that we cannot spare. The secret of Galland and Torrens, far enough apart as they stand in other respects, is illusion; Burton, in the quotation given above, has expressed Galland's value with admirable precision. Illusion must be the whole aim of the translator; his governing conception must be that he is rewriting a book of fairy-tales—fairy in the widest sense. And his atmosphere must be Oriental, effective Oriental, with broad sweeps and bright colors. No word or hint of phrase or idea may come in that suggests the West. Here Burton, in a rough-and-ready way, and Mr. Payne, in a subtle, have made their worst mistakes. Further, there may not be any notes, or, at most, such few and short as those by which Galland showed his infallible judgment. The translation must justify itself by standing in no need of such apparatus of commentary. And if, by chance, anything be left dim or obscure, it will but go to heighten the imaginative effect and give the stuff that dreams are made of. The reading child that reads, and dreams, and wanders in lands of mystery beyond the mountain Kaf, has no need of learned crutches. And, simply for this, the rendering of the prose cannot be too literal. Here Galland and Torrens part company, and we must follow Torrens. As the unidiomatic English renderings of Galland's French—absurdities and all—had their charm of novelty and quaintness, so Torrens rightly felt the character and glamour that lay in his word-for-word experiment. And his lead, too, we must follow in the lyric freedom of his renderings of the verses. That they must sing themselves, and that they must have the plain stamp of easy quotations or light improvisations, is more than all the leather and prunella of exact form and scholarship. And in both prose and verse, how much can be given and how much must be changed or omitted will be the test of the translator's judgment. But, above all, there may be no word from beginning to end that tells of either transformation or suppression. Few things in the often absurd annals of expurgation have been more absurd than the scholarly care with which the decent Lane has told in his notes what he has done in his text. For the child, the book is ruined, and for the rest of us, when we read a draped text, we do not care to be forced to notice it. Illusion, in this and in everything, is the supreme duty of the renderer.

These qualities, then, he must have—the unknown who is yet to come: imagination and the power of stirring it, the lyric faculty, and a judgment to be shown in prudent veilings without hints "we might an we would." He need have little Arabic, but he must know the East; the world of letters can ill afford another such mistake as that of Mr. Payne. He must be an artist in literature, and not a student in language; there has been enough of that. He must be ready to give himself, and yet remain in the background; to be a re-creator, and be reckoned a mechanical. If Mr. Kipling could meet this last condition, he could meet the others. There seems better hope with him than with any one else.

THE INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS OF MATHEMATICIANS.

PARIS, August, 1900.

This year, if ever, we have a chance of realizing the great number of international congresses that are held; for it is said that several hundreds are meeting in Paris under the auspices of the Exhibition. Some of these are simply isolated congresses, others are members in a series meeting annually or at longer intervals, purposely timed so as to bring the congress to Paris in the year of the Exhibition. From some points of view this may have been sound policy, but it is obvious that a good deal can be said against it. So far as the Mathematical Congress, held August 6 to 11, is concerned, it certainly tended to diminish the numbers of those present, though the extreme heat of the preceding three weeks probably had much to answer for.

The exact number cannot be given, as the first list of members—the only one obtainable during the week of the Congress—contains the names of several who had intended to be present, but for various reasons had not carried out this intention, and omits the names of a few who arrived during the proceedings. Approximately, there were 225 full members, accompanied by about 25 members of their families; but, to my own knowledge, some of the meetings were attended by non-members. Naturally France provided the largest contingent, which numbered 90; then came Germany with 25; 45 were evenly distributed among the United States, Italy, and Belgium, and 40 among Austria, Great Britain, Russia, Sweden, and Switzerland, the remainder containing two or three representatives from Denmark, Holland, Portugal, Rumania, Servia, Spain, and South America, and single representatives from Canada, Greece, Japan, Mexico, Norway, and Turkey. The United States representatives came from Austin (Texas), Berkeley, Bryn Mawr, Cincinnati, South Dakota, Evanston, Haverford, Lehigh, New York, Princeton, San Francisco, Vassar, and Washington.

The opening general meeting, held August 6 in the Palais des Congrès, in the Exhibition grounds, was called to order by M. J. Tannery at 9:30 A. M. The veteran M. Hermite, unable to be present, was named Président d'honneur, M. Poincaré being the actual President. The different countries represented were recognized, as far as possible, *by the appointment of their* best-known *members as Vice-Presidents* (Czuber, Austria; Geiser, Switzerland; Gordan, Germany; Greenhill, England; Lindelöf, Finland; Lindemann, Germany; Mittag-Leffler, Sweden; Moore, United States of America; Tikhomandritzky, Russia; Volterra, Italy; Zeuthen, Denmark), and Secretaries (Bendixon, Sweden; Capelli, Italy; Minkowski, Switzerland; Ptaszycki, Russia; Whitehead, England). Two or three of these were, however, not present, but the others took their seats on the platform. After a few words of welcome from M. Poincaré the two addresses of the day, both in French, were delivered by M. Cantor (Heidelberg), "Sur l'historiographie des mathématiques," and M. Volterra (Turin), "Trois Analystes italiens: Betti, Brioschi, Casorati, et trois manières d'envisager les questions d'analyse. Leur influence." The scope of M. Volterra's address is sufficiently shown by the title; it was an interesting comparison of the lines of thought of these three Italian analysts, very clearly delivered. The Italian mathematics of this century has to be taken seriously into account as a very important component in the development of mathematical thought along its present lines; and its influence, not only in matters of pure analysis, but still more in certain regions of geometry, will probably be felt to an even greater extent in the coming century. "Every man has two countries—the one in which he was born, the other Italy," said Henryk Sienkiewicz; and it may be that shortly every mathematician will find that, whatever his attitude towards other foreign countries, he has intellectual affinities with his Italian *confrères*. M. Cantor outlined the development of historiography during the last century and a half. It existed, it is true, some two thousand years before this, as is proved by a fragment that has survived from the history of Eudemus of Rhodes; but as an ordered science, this period, beginning with Montucla, practically covers the whole. Naturally, M. Cantor dealt only with authors no longer living; any attempt to go further would have been obviously inappropriate. His view is that, as regards the development of mathematics in general, there is still something for the historiographer to do on lines already laid down; there is room for discussion and argument. The history of modern mathematics, however, beginning with Lagrange, has yet to be written; and this cannot be treated in the same broad manner. The history of the different branches must be written separately, but then the development of the ideas that they have in common must be traced through these separate histories, and presented in a final volume, the 'Histoire des Idées,' as M. Cantor called it. This is the task for the historiographers of the future.

The papers of less general scope prepared for the Congress were read in the sectional meetings, which were held in the Sorbonne. At Zürich, where only one day was appropriated to this part of the proceedings, the various sections sat at the same hours, with the result that there was a continual passing backward and forward of members anxious to hear papers in different sections. The longer time available in Paris, four mornings and three afternoons, made it easy to avoid this difficulty, as there were never more than two sections sitting at any given hour, and often only one. In Section I., Arithmetic and Algebra (President, M. Hilbert, Secretary, M. Cartan), a noticeable paper was that of M. Padé, "Aperçu sur les développements récents de la théorie des fractions continues"; papers were read also by MM. Hancock, Dickson, Stephanos, and others. In Section II., Analysis (MM. Painlevé, Hadamard), the most interesting communication was M. Mittag-Leffler's "Sur fonction analytique et expression analytique," which called forth an animated discussion between MM. Borel, Hadamard, Painlevé, and the author. In Section III., Geometry (MM. Darboux, Niewenglowski), MM. Lovett, Macfarlane, Stringham, Amodeo, and others read papers of a more or less geometrical bearing. The most important papers belonging to Section IV., Mechanics (MM. Larmor, Levi-Civita), namely, those of MM. Hadamard and Volterra, were read, by permission, at a joint sitting of Sections V. and VI., as through some misunderstanding Section IV. had closed its sittings. Section V., Bibliography and History (Prince Roland Bonaparte, M. d'Ocagne), on account of the unavoidable absence on some days of its President, was united with Section VI., Instruction and Methods (MM. Cantor, Laisant), to the satisfaction of both sections, as their subjects were so closely allied.

The meetings of this division were possibly the most interesting of all. They were opened by a general paper from M. Hilbert on the future problems of mathematics, indicating the lines along which he considers that progress may with most certainty be assured. While problems are primarily suggested to us by experience, as in the case of the duplication of the cube, etc., yet, as the science progresses, it is the logical faculty of the intellect that imposes them upon us, as we see in problems relating to prime numbers, etc. A problem is truly *solved* only when the solution can be obtained by a finite number of logical processes from a finite number of hypotheses furnished by the problem itself. It may happen that such a solution is impossible; the problem then is to demonstrate rigorously this impossibility. In many cases the problem reduces to that of formulating an adequate system of independent and compatible axioms, on which the whole subject shall be founded; this is notably the case in Arithmetic and Physics. M. Fujisawa then gave in English an account of the older Japanese mathematics. The elucidation of this is specially difficult, as so much reliance was placed on oral transmission, with very limited publication. There are about two thousand volumes to be transcribed; in these, valuable work is mixed up with that which is trivial and elementary. One part of the Japanese teaching was derived from the Chinese many centuries ago; this part is unimportant in itself, and lacking in rigor, but it is interesting historically. The other part shows plainly that a special kind of mathematics, now entirely obsolete, had its origin in Japan, and was developed entirely free from external influences; the earliest important name is that of Seki. The value of the ratio of the circumference of a circle to the diameter was found correctly to 49 places of decimals, and a symbol for zero was in use; thus, both in content and in expression, this early Japanese mathematics had passed beyond the purely elementary stage. Other interesting papers in Sections V. and VI. were those of MM. Padoa, Capelli, and d'Ocagne.

A considerable part of the Friday morning sitting was devoted to the discussion of a resolution in favor of the adoption of a special language as the vehicle for scientific publications and communications. The experience of these international mathematical congresses, however, where the four languages—English, French, German, and Italian—are admissible in any communications and discussions, has not predisposed the members to desire the substitution of any one artificial language for the happily limited diversity now allowed; and notwithstanding the energetic support the resolution received from its advocates, these were easily outvoted. By a certain subtle irony, the most forcible arguments against the resolution were made by a Russian and an Italian, both speaking in French.

The second of the two general gatherings, the formal closing of the Congress, was held in the Sorbonne on Saturday morning. It was unanimously resolved that the Congress should accept the invitation it had received to assemble for the next time in Germany, most probably at Baden-Baden; 1904 was chosen as the year, the time to be either the beginning or the end of the summer vacation, as found most convenient by those in whose hands the detailed arrangements will rest.

The remaining two general addresses of the Congress were then delivered. M. Mittag-Leffler, in his narration, "Une page de la vie de Weierstrass," dwelt on the relations of Weierstrass with some of his contemporaries, those who were concerned in the development of the mathematical conceptions that appealed most strongly to him. Extensive extracts from correspondence were adduced in illustration. The address, being rather lengthy, was of necessity somewhat curtailed in the reading, and suffered thereby in the proportion of its parts; hence it did not make so vivid an impression on the whole as its intrinsic interest would have warranted. M. Poincaré read a brief disquisition, "Du rôle de l'intuition et de la logique en mathématiques." His rapid and not very energetic enunciation made him difficult to follow, and consequently but few of the audience were able fully to appreciate his address. This was disappointing, for the opportunity of hearing one of M. Poincaré's broad and stimulating philosophical essays had been looked forward to with eagerness. He took no other active part in the week's proceedings, confining his Presidential utterances to the narrowest possible limits. Some amusement was caused by his curt dismissal of the Congress; he barely gave himself time to gather up the manuscript of his address before remarking, "The session is ended and the Congress is over."

The arrangements were unfortunately very imperfect in many respects. There was no reception committee charged with attention to minute details, such as did so much to insure the success of the Zürich Congress of 1897, and no central meeting-place for members. It was most difficult to obtain the necessary information, for the responsibility was divided between the general secretary of the Congress and the firm of Carré & Naud; the secrétariat appeared at first to have no settled habitation, and in fact to exist only intermittently. Thus, when the hour announced by the management for the first general meeting, namely, 2:30 P. M., was changed by the Exhibition authorities to nine A. M., no notification was sent even to members who had already paid the membership fee of thirty francs, although in some cases a special request had been made for a telegram to be sent in the event of any change; and in consequence of this remissness many, both native and foreign, who were actually in Paris at the time, were debarred from being present. The informal reunion at the Café Voltaire, on the evening before the opening of the Congress, was not known to all members, or the change would have been more widely known. The committee of management, not unnaturally in the circumstances, did not feel able to exercise any control over the living arrangements offered to members; but they made an unfortunate choice of the agency they recommended for this service. Just before the Congress, when exact information was certainly easy to obtain, this agency informed inquirers that it would be impossible to get a room at any decent hotel for less than 15 francs per night; whereas it was easy enough to secure a room at 6 francs, and perfectly possible to obtain satisfactory *pension* arrangements at from 7 to 10 francs per day, room included. There is no doubt that a congress is more difficult to organize successfully in a large city that offers its own distractions than in a comparatively small town; but there is all the more need to guard against the overlooking of any of the important details. It is but fair to add that these deficiencies were felt most in the opening days, and in the secretarial department; they did not affect the arrangements for social intercourse on definite occasions, which were carried out very successfully. The distractions of this kind offered to the members were a reception at the École Normale Supérieure, held on Tuesday afternoon at the close of the sectional meetings for the day, and a soirée given by Prince Roland Bonaparte on Saturday evening. The members of the scientific congresses then meeting in Paris received invitations to this; and, as many well-known scientists had consented to exhibit their own special apparatus, it was an unusually interesting gathering. In addition to these, a certain number of tickets to President Loubet's fête on Friday afternoon, in honor of the Shah of Persia, were distributed among members, as the special fête that had been arranged by the President for Thursday evening was given up on account of the funeral of King Humbert of Italy.

The final act in the proceedings was a very enjoyable banquet at the Salle de l'Athénée-Saint-Germain, at noon on the day following the formal closing of the Congress, when M. Darboux presided; the toasts were proposed by MM. Darboux, Geiser, J. Tannery, Stephanos, and Vassilief. The Congress was most fortunate as regards the weather, which was very pleasant throughout the week. The oppressive heat of July had subsided, and though there were occasional heavy showers, yet they were neither continuous enough nor frequent enough to interfere seriously with any plans.

Correspondence.

A LEADER OF THE UNWILLING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have been a regular reader of the *Nation* almost since 1865, when it started, and not many weeks in all that time have I missed its welcome coming, and so have steadily kept myself under the pleasant and wholesome discipline of its good and worthy teaching. Indeed, in matters political, I have known in the *Nation* a guide, philosopher, and friend that never lowers its ideals and standards, that makes no bargains with the common and ignoble, and is ever strenuous for the things that are truly excellent. With such a political bringing up, it is not strange that I don't find it easy to march to any other than the *Nation's* political music, and that its candidates for the Presidency should also (with one exception) always have been mine. We were on opposite sides in 1896, as in that campaign I stood by Bryan. But even in that lurid contest I did not stop reading the *Nation*, hot and heavy as were its blows against my man and his cause. It was a good experience to make the acquaintance of one's oracle in the capacity of an adversary; I got to know among other things how the "other fellow" must feel under the sting of your adverse criticism.

Bryan's speech before the Chicago Convention, and his remarkable efforts in the campaign that followed, converted me to the belief that in him there had appeared among us a born leader of men, and one whom it would be a gain to the country to place well up at the head of affairs. I am a believer in the uses of great and good men, and that they will ultimately come to their own in the minds of the people. I can't get it out of my head that the day will yet come when the further stages of Bryan's career will convince the American public, regardless of party, that he is splendid as an orator, sincere and noble in purpose, and as brave and strong as the best of our public men. To me he is a man of clear head, honest heart, and strong will, and is, besides, a politician more tactful, masterly, and triumphant than any other at present on the political stage. Men of Bryan's stamp are not given to a country every day, and when they do come I am in favor of profiting by their services to the fullest extent. Of course the *Nation* will ridicule this judgment as the foolish praise of a passing infatuation, but can we not at least say that up to this time our leader has been more of a success than a failure, and, in spite of the strongest opposition, has steadily grown in favor, as a man of ability and character?

A light such as his cannot be hid under a bushel, and when it does shine it must needs be that more and more people will be dazzled. Shall it go for nothing that he is a second time the spontaneous choice of three parties for the Presidency, that the more he says, and the better he becomes known, the less he is feared and hated, and the better he is liked and trusted by the country at large? Four years ago he was a "monster of such hideous mien" that to speak well of him in good society was dreadfully bad form, while now even such men of light and leading as Carl Schurz, Bourke Cockran, George S. Boutwell, and I know not how many more of their order, share his views on the great issue of the day, and are helping their utmost to elect him President. No, the followers of Bryan are not mad and foolish; they know as well as the people of other parties when a great presence is among them, and they cannot but choose to rally to his leadership. We think that the ability and worth he has shown as a party leader mark him out as a fit man for high and responsible position.

Again, however lightly some people may think of Bryan, there are others who know full well what they are about who do not underrate his strength and importance. In this case are the leaders of the opposite party. These know he is a force to be reckoned with. In order to secure his defeat, they have not ventured to rely on McKinley alone, but have brought to his aid that splendid organizer and director, Mark Hanna, and that brilliant man of war, and thoroughly able and admirable Hotspur of Imperialism, Col. Roosevelt.

The Bryan of 1896 is not the same man in the public mind as the Bryan of to-day, and no hue and cry of the Opposition can bring back the earlier figure. Then his name was the epitome of all that was bad and dangerous in a public character, and his cause was held to be a menace to property, and deeply tainted with the heresies of socialism; now he is recognized, to say the least, as a man of high ability, real honesty, and true courage, and the brilliant and powerful champion of a widely popular movement against a dreaded and impending change in the structure and principles of our Government.

So again for the second time the present campaign finds me to some extent out of harmony with the *Nation*. But we are far nearer together than we were in 1896. Then your opposition to Bryan and all that he stood for was radical and uncompromising; now you are in full accord with his "paramount issue," and are hostile only to the man. And I wonder if you may not be mistaken about the man. Anyhow, the man can't be got rid of. He is the chosen and only leader of the Anti-Imperialists, whether they like it or not; without him their cause would get no hearing in the land, while with him it may win, and a new and nobler gospel of "Duty and Destiny" may come to guide the minds and heads of our rulers.

In the midst of a situation so serious, it is too bad that the great Achilles of the Independent voters of the country should, by abiding in his tent, be lost to the cause, when possibly by boldly sallying forth to meet the adversary in the thickest of the battle, the day might be saved for the ancient faiths of the people and the main bulwarks of our political system.

A. R. Cooper.

Louisville, Ky., August 28, 1900.

A FARMER-PREACHER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have read with some interest and much surprise an article in the *Nation* of July 26, entitled "The Discontented Farmer." As I am the person whose temporal and moral status is most particularly set forth in that article, it may not be out of place for me to offer a few words regarding the same.

The contemplation of a clergyman at once a farmer so prosperous and a Populist so discontented seems to have disturbed the equilibrium of your logic, since the conclusions you arrive at seem hardly justified by the statements made by Mr. Spahr in the *Outlook*. It is true that Mr. Spahr has entitled me "The Populist Preacher," and I have been somewhat curious to know how he reached the conclusion that I am an "enthusiastic Populist," since I have ever been so little given to politics that few of my friends have ever known to what party I belong, if to any. If to preach divine compassion and brotherly love is to be a Populist preacher, then I try to be one; or if to place country and principle above changing party is to be a Populist, I can glory in the name; but the simple fact that some years ago a few of the neighbors wished me to act as President of their Alliance, I had not regarded as a call or an ordination to be a Populist preacher. However, many things that I read in the *Nation* and other journals of like repute lead me to think it may be a desirable thing to be a Populist; for I remember that one very high in authority once said, "Blessed are ye when men shall revile you and say all manner of evil against you falsely."

It is also true that I hold 640 acres of land, a part of which was purchased from the Government and the balance from other parties some twenty-one years ago. In your estimate of what you are pleased to call the "unearned increment," you take no account of interest on investment, taxes, or improvements. This 640 acres of land has now cost us for investment, interest, taxes, and improvement upwards of $24,000. You estimate its present value at $19,000. I will sell it at your valuation, and add as a present the whole herd of cows, with horses and machinery sufficient to work the whole farm.

Your reasoning on the business part of the situation is equally unsound. You figure profits from the dairy without taking any account of expenses for feed, etc. Even a Populist preacher will hardly be able to produce 350 pounds of butter per cow from his dairy without feed. The cost of feeding a dairy cow will average not less than $35 per year. Please deduct this with interest, taxes, and insurance on the cows, and see if you can figure out results that ought to make even an editor green with envy. If I am wrong, I trust you will pardon an obscure farmer for not being able to appreciate the full force of your logic, and also if it appears to him that the sarcastic insinuations in your article are hardly becoming in a journal so venerable with age and so exalted in title.

Your sympathies seem to be very strongly enlisted for the railroads, and it may be a relief to you to know that in this Northwest, at least, they have not been without their share of the "unearned increment." Every other section of land in this whole valley in Minnesota has been given to the railroad. The farmers have paid taxes on their land for twenty years, while the railroad paid none on its lands. Every dollar that the farmer spends for improvements adds to the value of the railroad lands as well as his own. Their interests are largely mutual, or ought to be. I do not know that farmers as a class are better than other classes of citizens, but if we are to judge by such articles as the one noted in the *Nation*, they are grossly misunderstood or misrepresented by those who ought to be leaders of thought and information.

Since our private family affairs have been exposed to the public gaze, and by the *Nation*, in an invidious spirit, it seems not unfair to add that we have never operated a dairy of more than two-thirds the size of the one accredited to us; and while it might easily appear that the burden of milking these cows has fallen heavily upon the wife, the truth is, she has never been known to attempt the milking of a cow but once, and that attempt was not regarded as a complete success, although she has ever been a true helpmeet in things temporal and spiritual.

It would no doubt appear to one reading the "Discontented Farmer" in the *Nation* as though this clergyman, with his "little church" and his large farm, had surely reversed the Master's order to "seek first the kingdom of God." Allow me to say that for twenty years he has never had less than from three to ten mission stations in charge, scattered over a large district, and distant from 15 to 100 miles, and at three of these there are now churches and rectories where when he began there was nothing. If he has chosen to dig rather than beg that he might preach the gospel in the waste places of the earth, it is a matter between himself and his Master. Since for twenty years he has spent long hours of labor during the day that his family might have a home, and long hours of thought and study during the night that he might preach the gospel to the poor, he cherishes the hope that as a result there has been some small increment in human hearts of faith and righteousness, whatever the personal increment may have been.

S. Currie.

Euclid, Minn., August 27, 1900.

[Mr. Currie must not blame us for exposing his private affairs to the public gaze, since we but commented on what Mr. Spahr had published in the *Outlook* and in book form, and we mentioned no names. Nor were we guilty of commenting in an invidious spirit, for we assure Mr. Currie that the prosperity of families like his affords us the most unalloyed satisfaction. Nor shall we consider the question of profit and loss with him, although we are confident that if he will offset past profits against interest and taxes, he will feel more content with his lot. We are very glad to hear that Mr. Currie is not a Populist, and that he preaches brotherly love, the lack of which is a Populist failing. But we could wish that he had displayed a little more charity in his letter to us. We fear that the old Adam got a little the better of him; and we must protest against being cudgelled for violations of privacy committed by other people.—Ed. Nation.]

NOT IN FRANCE ONLY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The letter in your issue of August 23, on the dangers of Paris for the American student, may be usefully compared with the advice given by an eminent theologian to young theologians studying in Germany:

> "Aber ich kann nicht umhin, im Anschluss hieran, ein Gebiet zu berühren, dass allerdings nicht ganz leicht zu besprechen ist, das ich aber doch nicht mit Stillschweigen übergehen kann; ich meine die Versuchungen und Gefahren, welche gerade dem Jüngling überhaupt von der sinnlichen Seite seiner Natur kommen. Es hat jeder mehr oder minder damit zu schaffen. Ich weiss

das aus eigener Erfahrung. Und es wird auch Dir bis jetzt nicht erspart worden sein, wenn ich auch von Dir den Eindruck habe—wenigstens wünsche ich es Dir—dass Dir der Kampf dagegen bis jetzt nicht zu schwer gemacht worden sein mag. Ich habe auf der Schule die gewöhnlichen körperlichen Uebungen und Künste des Turnens, Schwimmens, Schlittschuhlaufens, Fechtens und Reitens fleissig geübt und meinen Leib tüchtig strapazirt, bin überhaupt nie gegen ihn weichlich gewesen, sondern habe ihn immer hart gehalten; aber das hat mir nicht erspart, seine Anfechtungen und Versuchungen erfahren zu müssen. Der flüchtige Blick auf ein versuchliches Bild, wie man dergleichen nur allzu oft besonders an den Schaufenstern sieht, konnte in mir einen Sturm der Sinne hervorrufen. Ich klagte einmal noch als Kandidat einem etwas älteren Freunde über diese Erregbarkeit meiner Natur—worauf mir jener Freund mit derselben Klage über sich erwiederte. Es war mir allerdings ein Trost, daraus zu sehen, 'dass dieselben Leiden über die Brüder in der Welt gehen.' Das Gebet Sirach 23, 4-6 und auch die Verweisung auf 3 Mos. 15, 16 kann eine Hülfe gegen trübe Gedanken sein, und ich habe an diese Worte gar Manche, die sich an mich wandten, erinnert. Es is eben leider so, wir tragen einen Sumpf in uns, dessen wir uns schämen müssen, so langs wir in diesem Leibe leben, so sehr auch der innere Mensch über alle Gemeinheit sich erhebt und von ihr nichts wissen will und mit der Sinnlichkeit seiner Natur kämpft." (Luthardt, 'Zur Einführung in das akademische Leben.' Leipzig, 1892, p. 16.)

A good deal of information about Germany from the point of view stated in "C. L. F.'s" letter may be gathered from Wittenberg und Hückstädt, 'Die geschlechtlich sittlichen Verhältnisse der evangelischen Landbewohner im Deutschen Reiche' (Leipzig, 1895). Is there any chance of any American speaking with the same openmindedness as Luthardt does, or will the canonization of this country be allowed to proceed till all the nations of the earth shall join in singing: "Sancta America, ora pro nobis"? O. T. T.

August 31, 1900.

PALESTINE EXPLORATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The *Nation* has placed all those who are interested in the exploration of Palestine in its debt by its clear accounts of the work in its progress, and by its frank comments upon the plans of the Palestine Exploration Fund. No doubt the unusual difficulties met with in this particular field—the reluctantly given firmans for very limited areas, the extremes of heat and cold which arrest the work for a time each year, and the impossibility of ascertaining beforehand the right spot for excavation where no great ruins stand as guides like those of Egypt and Assyria and other lands—have been sufficiently considered by you in speaking recently of "the great disappointment of archæologists and Bible scholars." Indeed, no people are so much disappointed as those who are giving time and money to this work; and the most disappointed of all is our young countryman, Dr. F. J. Bliss, who has not hesitated to say so to the Executive Committee, and to open the way to new arrangements.

The firman for the work at Jerusalem was once extended, and then nothing more could be done, although, going along the southern wall and turning the southeastern angle, Dr. Bliss had just reached the very climax of his undertaking, and it seemed only necessary to follow up the several visible clues to gain at last the tombs of the kings. Considering the fact that these kings all had their chroniclers, and that the Scriptures contain what are confessedly extracts from those chronicles, what is more likely than that the tombs of David, Solomon, and the Judean kings will be found to contain records of vast importance? The same foundation for hope exists as to the kings of Israel buried in Samaria. As in Egypt, so in Palestine, the tombs are our chief quarry, and of them that at Hebron, with its embalmed body, if not bodies, is most promising of all. Mr. R. A. Stewart Macalister, who has been assisting Dr. Bliss, has shown himself a master of epigraphy, and there is every reason to feel that in him the Fund has a "lucky explorer" in its employ.

In response to your kind wish that "the Fund will persist in its search," I may say that our plans are always formed in advance of the expiration of any firman, and that the excavations are as yet only in their beginnings, for we have barely touched the great spaces beneath the Temple pavement at Jerusalem, and done nothing on the site of Solomon's palace, while there is a hundred feet of unexplored débris in the Tyropœon valley, and of two hundred *tells* we have examined only four, and those hastily, and there remain Samaria and Shechem and Capernaum and Jericho, and especially Sodom and Gomorrah, not to speak of a score of smaller places. The work on the surface has been successfully accomplished in our maps, and now excavation must go on for many years, perhaps long after other fields shall have been exhausted.

If the American School at Jerusalem, which was started before it gained its firman, shall succeed, its aid in the work of excavation will become most useful.

T. F. WRIGHT,
Honorary U. S. Secretary P. E. F.

42 QUINCY ST., CAMBRIDGE, MASS., August, 1900.

THE LITERARY TASTE OF PUPILS AND THEIR VOCABULARY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I was glad to see in a morning paper the beginning of quotations from an article by Mr. H. S. Pancoast in the September *Lippincott's*. I am sure that all teachers who have read it would rejoice to see the whole article quoted, even in piecemeal, by newspapers throughout the country.

Although the author addresses the general public, there are two points—one of more general, the other of more specific, character—which are pressingly worthy of the attention of teachers and of all who have to do with the working of schools.

(1.) The cultivation of taste must, it is true, ever remain largely the province of home and of social environment; but it is a question whether principals and school-boards have as yet had any adequate regard for the possible power of schools in developing this vital side of pupils' education. The problem is, of course, most difficult of definite handling. It depends upon the personality of the teacher. If the teacher lacks refinement, lacks taste, lacks good breeding, no amount of cut-and-dried injunction can avail. It seems that in at least one direction of good taste the schools might get better results, namely, in the matter of arousing and fixing a taste for the best literature. Here, also, nearly all depends upon the teacher, but it can be fairly tested, and tested by a written examination, whether or not a teacher has some true literary taste. All schools are professing to teach literature; but is it not evident what a wooden process this must be unless the teacher himself has a real feeling and appreciation, a keen sense and a sure ear, for the true ring of a good book or a great poem? My personal conviction is that a dull, uninspiring, dissecting-room process of dealing with literature is the weakest spot in most of our schools. Far more than knowledge of facts, which can come at any time, is the begetting of love and true taste for that which is fine and ennobling. This sounds well, but we have not accepted its truth. Let it be confessed that the high school has not done its work if its graduates, no matter how much algebra or how many facts of history and chemistry they may know, prefer the literature of yellow journals to Shakspere and John Fiske.

(2.) The second point refers to the meagreness of young America's vocabulary. Any teacher of freshmen can bear witness to the lamentable lack of knowledge of English words on the part of the average young men who are now coming up to college. Their poverty of vocabulary is perhaps especially evident to those of us who have to correct translations, done into English from other languages. It was, however, from a professor of chemistry, who had just looked over some first examination papers, that I happened to hear the last complaint on this score. "These young men," he said, "do not seem to have command of enough words to describe an experiment." So much the greater is their lack, as Mr. Pancoast laments, of such words as belong quite distinctly to literature. Now it is true, as he implies, that "the character and extent of the vocabulary of a child" depend very largely upon "daily association"; yet surely the schools, especially in the upper grammar grades, ought to do more than at present in the way of enlarging the scope and fixing the accuracy of their pupils' knowledge of the English words that are found in the best authors. Indeed, there seems to be retrogression in recent years. One is tempted to think that the general elimination of such old books as "The Scholar's Companion," or even of the much-despised study of the dictionary, may prove to be, in default of fitting substitution, a distinct loss.

J. H. DILLARD.

August 28, 1900.

SHAKSPERE'S USE OF THE BIBLE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Prof. Bright, in *Modern Language Notes*, volume xiv., p. 372, suggests a new interpretation of the passage in "Lucrece," vv. 137, 138, where Tarquin for a moment "justly controls his thoughts unjust." In the lines,

> "Then looking scornfully he doth despise
> His naked armour of still slaughtered lust,"

he takes *still* as a predicate adjective with the participle *slaughtered*, and understands the words to say that the king now sees and despises the flimsiness of his argument in favor of lust; "his naked armour" referring to his naked argument. But "still slaughtered" in the sense 'killed so that he will lie still' is not only awkward Elizabethan syntax, it also does not suit the context, for Tarquin's conscience-scruples are only temporary.

The whole passage becomes clear and apposite if taken in connection with Romans xiii, 12 (I quote from Tindale's version):

> "The night is passed and the daye is come nye.
>
> "Lett us therfore cast awaye the dedes of darkness and let us put on *the armour off light*, lett us walke honestly as it were in the daye light: nott in eatynge and drynkynge *nether in chamburynge and wantonness*, nether in stryfe and envyinge, but put ye on the lorde Iesus Christ. *And make not provision for the fleshe to fulfull the lustes off hit.*"

As armour means 'weapon' in Elizabethan English as well as 'defensive protection,' may Shakspere not have had in mind this so apposite Biblical passage when he wrote "armour of still slaughtered lust"? He has just spoken of Tarquin's having drawn his falchion (p. 176) with which to strike the flint to light his candle. Instead of 'armour of light' he thinks of the naked sword as 'armour of lust,' *i. e.*, weapon of lust. The epithet "still slaughtered," the reading of the Quartos, is especially fitting in connection with v. 168, "lust and murder wakes [=watches] to stain and kill." Such adjectives as *slaughtered* with the -ed in the sense of 'full of,' and equivalent to a New-English active participle in -ing, are so common in Elizabethan English that this one scarcely deserves remark. One need only recall "a custom more honoured [*i. e.*, honouring] in the breach than in th' observance." "Still" will then have its usual Elizabethan sense of 'always,' and the whole passage will run: "He despises his naked weapon of lust (which ever wakes to stain, and kill), and for a moment puts on the 'armour of light,' abhorring the provision he has made for the flesshe to fulfull the lustes off hit."

It seems to me so difficult to give Shakspere's words any other interpretation that I should add this passage from the "Lucrece" to the numerous others to be found in his works which go to show his familiarity with Bible phraseology. MARK H. LIDDELL.

EAST ORANGE, N. J., August 20, 1900.

Notes.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co.'s autumn list presents the 'Autobiography of a Journalist,' by William J. Stillman, in two volumes; 'Theodore Parker, Preacher and Reformer,' by the Rev. John White Chadwick; 'A Century of American Diplomacy,' by John W. Foster, ex-Secretary of State; 'The United States in the Orient: The Nature of the Economic Problem,' by Charles A. Conant; 'Numbers and Losses in the Civil War in America, 1861-1865,' by Major Thomas L. Livermore; 'The *Monitor*, and the Navy Under Steam,' by Lieut. Frank M. Bennett, U. S. N.; 'The *Mayflower* and her Log, July 15, 1620—May 6, 1621,' by Azel Ames M.D.; 'An American Anthology, 1787-1899,' selections, by Edmund Clarence Stedman, illustrating his critical review of American Poetry in the Nineteenth Century; a new edition of the Works of Thomas Wentworth Higginson, in seven volumes; a new edition, enlarged to date, of William I. Fletcher's 'Index to General Literature,' and, from the same hand, an abridged edition of 'Poole's Index to Periodical Literature,' confined to thirty-six leading periodicals from their beginning to January 1, 1900; 'Counsel upon the Reading of Books,' University Extension lectures by H. Morse Stephens and others; 'The Fields of Dawn, and Later Sonnets,' by Lloyd Mifflin; 'Orpheus: A Masque,' by Mrs. James T. Fields; 'The Prodigal,' by Mrs. Mary Hallock Foote; 'The House Behind the Cedars,' by Charles W. Chesnutt; 'The Last Refuge: A Sicilian Romance,' by Henry B. Fuller; 'Petersburg Tales,' by Olive Garnett; 'Russia and the Russians,' by Edmund Noble; the third volume of 'Letters to George Washington,' edited by Stanislaus Murray Hamilton; 'Mountain Playmates,' the story of an abandoned farm in New Hampshire, by Helen R. Albee; 'The Life and Literature of the Ancient Hebrews,' by Lyman Abbott, D.D.; 'The Book of Saints and Friendly Beasts,' by Abbie Farwell Brown; 'Squirrels and Other Fur-bearers,' by John Burroughs; 'The Woodpeckers,' by Mrs. Fannie Hardy Eckstorm; 'The Biography of a Baby,' by Miss Milicent W. Shinn; 'Fact and Fable in Psychology,' by Prof. Joseph Jastrow; 'A School History of England,' by J. N. Larned; Henry James's 'Little Tour in France,' in a new edition, illustrated by Joseph Pennell; an illustrated edition of John Fiske's 'Old Virginia and her Neighbors'; a "Cambridge Edition" in one volume of the Complete Poetical Works of Elizabeth Barrett Browning; and a new cabinet edition of Keats's Poems in one volume.

Six of the projected "Century Classics" will be issued in October by the Century Co., beginning with Bacon's Essays, with an introduction by Prof. George E. Woodberry.

McClure, Phillips & Co. will publish this month an authorized translation of Leroy-Beaulieu's 'Rénovation de l'Asie.'

'The Art of Translating,' by Dr. Herbert C. Tolman of Vanderbilt University, is soon to be issued by Benjamin H. Sanborn & Co.

A series of letters describing Taku, Tientsin, Pekin, and other leading Chinese cities, composes 'The Attaché at Pekin,' by A. B. Freeman Mitford, nearly ready from the press of Macmillan, from whose superabundant autumn list we make the following further selections: The first volume of Russell Sturgis's illustrated 'Dictionary of Architecture and Building,' A—E; 'French Sculptors of the 18th century,' by Lady Dilke; 'Eighteenth-Century Color Prints,' by Julia Frankeau; 'Van Dyck and his Works,' by Lionel Cust; 'Botticelli and his School,' by G. N. Count Plunkett; 'Fra Angelico and his Art,' by the Rev. Langton Douglas; 'Frederic Lord Leighton,' an illustrated chronicle, by Ernest Rhys; 'Roman Art: Some of its Principles and their Application to Early Christian Painting,' by Franz Wickhoff; 'German Bookplates,' by Count zu Leiningen-Westerburg; 'The Beginnings of Poetry,' by Prof. Francis B. Gummere of Haverford College; 'William Shakspere: Poet, Dramatist, and Man,' by Hamilton W. Mabie; 'Studies and Appreciations,' by Prof. Lewis E. Gates of Harvard; 'The Clergy in American Life and Letters,' by the Rev. Daniel D. Addison; 'The Hoosier Writers,' by Meredith Nicholson; 'More Letters of Edward FitzGerald,' edited by W. Aldis Wright; 'Coventry Patmore, his Family and Correspondence,' by Basil Champney; 'Rulers of the South: Sicily, Calabria, and Malta,' by F. Marion Crawford; 'The Venetian Republic: Its Rise, its Growth, and its Fall, 421-1797,' by W. Carew Hazlitt; 'A History of Rome,' for high schools and academies, by George Willis Botsford of Harvard; 'South Carolina in the Revolution, 1775-1780,' by Edward McCrady; 'Stage-Coach and Tavern Days,' by Mrs. Alice Morse Earle; 'Along French Byways,' by Clifton Johnson; 'Spanish Highways and Byways,' by Katharine Lee Bates; 'The Antarctic Regions,' with maps and illustrations, by Karl Fricker; 'The Peace Conference at The Hague, and its Bearings on International Law and Policy,' by Frederick W. Holls; a 'Dictionary of Philosophy and Psychology,' in three volumes, edited by Prof. J. Mark Baldwin; 'The Crisis,' by Winston Churchill; and 'Richard Yea and Nay,' by Maurice Hewlett.

Brentano's catalogue of forthcoming works embraces 'The Idea of Tragedy in Ancient and Modern Drama,' by Prof. W. L. Courtney; 'Tales from Tennyson,' by the Rev. G. C. Allen, with photogravure illustrations; a new translation of Henri Mürger's 'Bohemian Life'; 'Impressions,' essays by Pierre Loti, with an introduction by Henry James; 'James VI. and I.: A Royal Rhetorician,' his treatise on Scottish Poesie, etc., edited by Robert S. Rait; 'Old London Taverns,' by Edward Callow; 'The Story of an Ocean Tramp,' by Capt. Charles Clark; 'The Mind of the Nation: A Study of Political Thought in the 19th Century,' by Marcus R. P. Dorman; and Erasmus's 'Colloquies,' in three volumes, and 'In Praise of Folly.'

'James Martineau: A Study and a Biography,' by the Rev. A. W. Jackson; a 'Life of Francis Parkman,' by Charles Haight Farnam; and an edition of Omar's 'Rubâiyât,' containing the versions of FitzGerald, Whinfield, and McCarthy, edited by Jessie B. Rittenhouse, are announced by Little, Brown & Co., Boston.

Among the relatively popular works in preparation at the Clarendon Press are 'Celtic Folklore: Welsh and Manx,' by John Rhŷs; 'British Jurisdiction outside the United Kingdom,' by the late Sir Henry Jenkyns; 'Legislative Methods and Forms,' by Sir C. P. Ilbert; 'Studies in History and Jurisprudence,' by the Rt. Hon. James Bryce; 'English Etymologies,' by W. W. Skeat; 'An Historical Primer of French Phonetics,' by Margaret S. Brittain; 'The Civil and Criminal Procedure of Cicero's Time,' by A. H. J. Greenidge; and 'The Polyphonic Period of Music,' by H. E. Wooldridge.

Of hopeful origin is Dr. Edward Leigh Pell's 'The Bright Side of Humanity,' "the first serious attempt that has been made to present the distinguishing noble traits of all races," forthcoming from Richmond, Va., through the B. F. Johnson Publishing Co.

'Yawps and Other Things,' poems by William J. Lampton, is to be published by Henry Altemus Co., Philadelphia.

'The House of Commons,' by Sir Richard Temple (New York: M. F. Mansfield & A. Wessels), is a small volume intended to give an idea of the English lower House as it exists to-day. The author was a member of Parliament from 1885 to 1895, and he offers some account of the House considered as a club; the precincts and buildings; life in Parliament; the manners and customs of the House; leading figures in Parliament, etc. Some of the information in the book is not to be found elsewhere, *e. g.*, that relating to the hours of Parliamentary sittings, "questions," and to the peculiar system of "cheering," organized and unorganized, which has grown up in the House of Commons and probably exists in no other Parliamentary body in the world.

'The Nicaragua Canal,' by William E. Simmons (Harpers), is an illustrated volume, treating not merely of the canal, but of the people of Nicaragua, and their country, government, and history. It is this latter part of the book which makes it valuable, the author having studied his subject on the spot. The mixture of the Spanish and Portuguese with the native races throughout Central and South America has produced at once a general type and local varieties. The Mexicans differ from the Brazilians, and the Venezuelans or Chilians from both, though, to the Anglo-Saxon eye, the specific differences are not at once apparent. The Nicaraguans, according to Mr. Simmons, are remarkable for their politeness, kindness, hospitality, good-nature, and joviality. These are traits, however, of Indians and half-breeds; the Spanish creoles are different. The half-breeds seem like a gentler and more amiable Spaniard—evidently an inferior race, specially fitted by divine Providence to be bullied and "assimilated" by their betters.

We had occasion to praise, on its first appearance eight years ago, Mr. Edward Q. Keasbey's novel treatise on 'The Law of Electric Wires in Streets and Highways,' which now enters its second edition, enlarged and revised (Chicago: Callaghan & Co.). This is a consideration of a purely modern branch of law, of which the most recent development has come from the multiplication of electric surface railroads. Mr. Keasbey was, we believe, the first writer to collect and classify the law and precedents on this subject; and his work continues the leading authority. The new edition pays special attention to the power to grant franchises, the nature and extent of municipal control of the use of streets for electric wires, and the condemnation of private rights.

Mr. John H. Ingham now gives us a text-book even more novel in one respect, that the subject he treats of is as old as the law itself. 'The Law of Animals' (Philadelphia: T. & J. W. Johnson & Co.) in his hands becomes a serious and dignified consideration of the great mass of law relating to animal life that has been hitherto very much neglected. That the offspring of cattle belong to the owner of the dam, but the swans to the owners respectively of cock and hen because the marital fidelity of the male ennobled him above other beasts, that a dog "is entitled to one bite," and a few like legal curiosities remain in the memory of the average student. The announcement in court, "If your Honor pleases, this is a cow case," never fails to arouse an idle interest in the spectators; but we are here made aware for the first time of the immense interest modern law takes in animals. The statute against cruelty to them at once opens up a wide field to the imagination. Another may be guessed at from the revolution in transportation which has put the freighter in place of the drover. Few law books are in themselves entertaining. This has a real interest for the lay reader, and is capable of easy comprehension by any one, while being well arranged, well annotated, and well indexed for the practitioner.

'The Organization and Management of Business Corporations,' by Thomas Conyngton (New York: The Ronald Press), is intended by the author "as a handy work of reference for the lawyer and a manual of information for the non-professional man," especial attention being given to a comparison of the respective provisions of the laws of New York, New Jersey, Delaware, and West Virginia. Such a book is in one way labor lost, for the great pains spent in the analysis are nullified at each legislative session. Otherwise this will be found suggestive in many ways, and not least of all to practising lawyers.

'The American Business Woman,' by John Howard Cromwell (Putnams), addresses itself entirely to women, in an endeavor to teach them in a serious but readable way how to handle bank accounts and to deal with real and personal property, giving cautious advice as to the general principles of investment. The author laments the ignorance among many women of an even elementary knowledge of these matters. Attentive perusal of the book could not fail to improve the mind and capacity of any woman who desired to learn.

'La Vie Judiciaire à New York,' by M. Émile Stocquart, Avocat à la Cour d'Appel à Bruxelles (Brussels: Alliance Typographique), is an address, in pamphlet form, delivered in that city after an eighteen months' sojourn in this country. An abounding good-will towards our bar should disarm criticism of the author's failure perfectly to understand our legal system or to summarize what is most noteworthy in it. His references to our Bar Associations are especially polite—doubtless affected by the recollection of the hospitality of the American Association, of which he and his associates were guests at Buffalo, where he was assured that Belgian banknotes would not pass current! The following observation, however, were it made by any one else, would seem ironical: "L'influence du Barreau sur le choix des juges est considérable. À fin d'empêcher la politique de se mêler de choses qui doivent lui rester étrangères, il est devenu d'usage de donner à la *Bar Association* presque un droit de présentation; elle dresse un liste, désigne ses candidats, et, chose plus importante, réussit à les faire nommer"!

'A Naval War Code,' prescribing the laws and usages of war at sea, has been compiled by Capt. C. H. Stockton, U. S. N., President of the Naval War College, approved by the President, and promulgated by the Secretary of the Navy. It is packed in twenty-three pages of open print, and is brought down to date, as is evidenced by art. 3, prohibiting the launching of projectiles or explosives from balloons for five years, in accordance with the Declaration at The Hague, this country assenting. Compression has perhaps been carried too far in the closing sentence: "This rule does not apply when at war with a non-contracting Power [which attempts such balloonery?]." Article 5 deals with the treatment of submarine telegraphic cables.

The *Studio* issues a special summer number, devoted to 'Modern British Water-Color Drawings,' with a slight text by A. L. Baldry, and numerous illustrations in black and white and in color. The excellence of the reproduction only accents the more sharply the essential lack of distinction of the originals, of which no one seems to strike any high or fine note. They show a good deal of ability of the sort common in magazine illustration, but little more, and on the whole their effect is that of a monotonous and depressing mediocrity.

'Through Africa,' the most noteworthy article in the *Geographical Journal* for August, is mainly an account by Mr. E. S. Grogan of the region just north of Lake Tanganyika, through which he passed on his way from the Cape to Cairo. It is interesting for both political and geological reasons: political, on account of the encroachments of the Germans on the Free State territory, their post on the south point of Lake Kivu, according to our traveller, being "at least forty miles over the treaty boundary." The geologic interest consists in the numerous evidences of a comparatively recent upheaval of the region, while "the old lake bed is rendered impassable by pits of fire; and huge jets of smoke, shooting up from all directions, bear witness to the extent of the volcanic activity." The last eruption was some five years ago, and so great that the lava-stream was fifteen miles in width and piled in places with huge blocks of lava and ash to a height of thirty feet, and so sudden that "whole herds of elephants were destroyed; I myself saw the bones of one that had been forced up to the top by the edge of the stream." In the plain to the north of the group of six volcanoes—two are active and two are so high that nearly every morning there was snow on them—owing to the porous nature of the ground "there is no water; yet in spite of this there is an enormous population, the necessary water being obtained by tapping the stems of the banana palms." The forests on the slopes of the volcanoes are so wildly luxuriant that an elephant could not be distinguished at a greater distance than six feet, making the hunting them not only extremely dangerous, but almost impracticable. On one occasion, when just entering the great Nile swamp, the prodigious number of elephants "formed a serious impediment to our march, as they refused to move out of the way. Nearly every morning we wasted an hour or two shouting and throwing stones at solitary old tuskers and herds of younger elephants." Among the inhabitants of the Kivu region was a tall race "with the long arms, pendant paunch, and short legs of the ape, pronouncedly microcephalous and prognathous." They are held in great contempt by the other natives, and are decidedly nearer the brute than the pigmies of the great forest.

Volume ii. of the Annals of the Lowell Observatory has recently been published. The first part is devoted to researches relating to the form, rotation, surface detail, and general phenomena of Jupiter and its satellites. The observations were made at Flagstaff, Arizona, in 1894, by William H. Pickering, who devised the methods of these special researches upon the Jovian system, and in 1895, by A. E. Douglas, who carried through the mathematical and analytical part of the investigations to definite results. They constitute the first long series of physical observations of Jupiter's satellites yet published. The latter portion of the volume contains a report of observations of Mars made in 1896, at Flagstaff, and in 1896-97 at Tacubaya, Mexico. It begins with an account of the polar caps, the most conspicuous and significant objects on the planet, and then presents the micrometric measures of diameters and positions of markings. Lists of the canals and oases seen during the opposition follow, and, finally, there are several chapters bearing upon the meteorological condition of the planet. The observers were Percival Lowell and A. E. Douglas, assisted by Miss W. L. Leonard and D. A. Drew. The volume is copiously illustrated, most of the plates being facsimiles of drawings by the different members of the staff, and is accompanied by a new map of Mars.

A large amount of what is known of the Resources of the Sea is to be credited to the reports of the Fishery Board for Scotland. The investigations and experiments instituted by this board have been of such character and such extent, and have been conducted in such a manner, as to demand the attention of fishery interests everywhere. And in addition to the discoveries and records of importance in direct connection with the fisheries, science has been enriched by many of the more technical contributions outcoming from the ordinary duties of the *Garland*, or other vessels under the Board's control. The Eighteenth Annual Report, for 1899, is divided into three, the General Report, the Report on Salmon Fisheries, and that on Scientific Investigations. The last is itself an octavo volume of 407 pages, with many illustrations, and is filled with accounts of the influences of trawling, of net and of line-fishing on the abundance of the fishes, with treatises on the parasites and on the fauna generally, and with notes on the life histories of various forms, on the currents, statistics, and other matters pertaining to the interests of the fisheries, the fishermen, and the consumers.

While English scholars have produced a practically perfect map of the cis-Jordan districts of Palestine, the Germans have now undertaken the same task for the territory east of that stream. For several years Dr. G. Schumacher, a civil engineer of Haifa, under the auspices of the German Palestine Society, has been making the necessary surveys, and in the last issue of the Society's *Zeitschrift* (vol. xxii, No. 4) is found the first sheet of what promises to be the classical chart of the trans-Jordan country. The scale is 1:152,000. This first sheet of the series bears the special title "Dschōlân und Westlicher Haurân," and covers both the historical and the present period. Its wealth of details is remarkable, but readily understood when we are told that the beginnings of the researches of which the full fruits are here given go back to the year 1885. An illustrated descriptive article by Schumacher accompanies the chart. Both map and article contain an abundance of new material.

The Strassburg *Post* has compiled complete statistics of the attendance of women at the universities of Germany. The total for the last winter semester was 664, and for the summer term now closing 618. This seeming decrease is owing entirely to restrictions enforced in Berlin, where the attendance of women at present is only 293, while during the preceding term it was 431. The total at the other universities is 325, while it was 258 in the winter. In Switzerland the total woman contingent is 937, and of these 555 are full-fledged candidates for degrees. The largest number, namely, 353, is furnished by Russia, followed by 65 from Switzerland, 53 from Germany, 25 from Bulgaria. Only 7 are from the United States. Switzerland has ventured upon a noteworthy innovation by permitting women docents. At the University of Geneva Miss A. Rodrigue recently acquired the right of delivering lectures in the natural-science faculty, and in the Academy of Neuenburg Mrs. M. Zebrowski has announced two courses of lectures for the next term in the literary department.

—*Scribner's* for September has an interesting "Personal Retrospect of James Russell Lowell," by W. D. Howells. To any one who knew Mr. Lowell, this portrait will bring him vividly to mind. It is drawn with all Mr. Howells's delicacy of literary touch, reinforced by a strong sentiment of friendship, and we may, perhaps, say veneration. The article is specially valuable as being written by one who did not sympathize with Lowell at all points. Mr. Howells, coming to Cambridge from that newer America of which Lowell liked to dream, but of which he really knew very little, judged him in his own way, and hence this paper is utterly different from anything that could have been written by a New England friend or neighbor. It is the tribute of a friend, and of a friend who felt all his greatness; but there is less "locality" in it than there could have been in any similar attempt by a New England admirer. Mr. Howells says in conclusion: "He did not, indeed, make one impression upon me, but a thousand impressions, which I should seek in vain to embody in a single presentment." This sketch is virtually the reflection of impressions of an intimate sort, so that a great part of Lowell's essential variety—inherent power, always showing itself in some new and unexpected form—is not made evident. Mr. Howells's interest is not in his friend as a public man—if it had been, we should not have had the present paper; but what he says might be supplemented and reinforced, if there were any one equal to the task, by some account of the manner in which Lowell seemed to tower above his fellows when he made some memorable appearances in public. If, for instance, he presided at a public dinner, what lingered in the memory was what he said, the witty way in which he called people up to speak, the completeness—possibly in the minds of some of the others, wishing also to cut a figure, too thoroughgoing—with which, through his wit and capacity, he dominated the whole affair. On one occasion, when he went before a Congressional committee to be examined as a witness on the subject of international copyright, it was amusing to see how all the functions of the court and jury gradually embodied themselves in the witness, so that everybody felt, when he had finished, that he not only had testified to the great distinction and entertainment of everybody present, but had also decided the cases. We have no doubt that other instances in plenty might be recollected; and when they had all been gathered together and compared with Mr. Howells's reminiscences, the total result would only fortify the statement, that he made upon those with whom he came into contact a thousand impressions, and that we shall not again "look upon his like."

—Prof. John Perry, in *Nature* of August 2, has opened a discussion which ought to prove important. His 'Calculus for Engineers' was a pretty radical departure in mathematical teaching. It was difficult to approve of teaching only such fragments of mathematics as the engineer could not possibly dispense with; but one must acknowledge that it was a work of thought, of something like power. Now, in a page and a half, he considers the general principles that ought to govern mathematical teaching, and then proceeds to draw up in a page of fine print a scheme of instruction headed "Practical Mathematics: Elementary Stage." He solicits criticism from three classes of persons: first, from those who think his method fit only for evening classes; second, from those who think it should be adopted in every school; third, "from other persons." We cannot disregard the summons in this third clause to testify concerning this universal interest. Let us say, then, that the destructive part of Prof. Perry's doctrine, vigorous as it is, is not a bit exaggerated. No other subject ever was, from the beginning of the world, so absurdly taught as mathematics in the old schools; and the new pedagogical methods have in this department been at their worst. In Professor Perry's constructive proposals, there are excellent features; but they relate to details into which we have no space to enter. He belongs to the generation of those who think that the final end of education is to enable students to make money, and who look upon pure science with some contempt, except so far as it may subserve that great aim of life. Such, at least, is the general impression his various writings have left upon us. In his last article, for instance, he says: "Those engineers who can most readily apply mathematics to engineering problems, almost invariably descend to the position of teachers and professors in schools and colleges." This may be taken as a statement of the obvious truth that those who delight in the exercise of intellectual powers more than in the business side of the profession with its rewards, attach themselves to positions where they can enjoy their preference. But the word "descend" applied to a passage from money-making to the cultivation of mathematics betrays Professor Perry's opinion about a fundamental question of ethics. Men of science of the old school will say that here is the worm at the root that threatens the decadence of the twentieth century.

—Still, the most elementary mathematics ought, no doubt, to be taught in a practical spirit, mainly. More pertinent, therefore, is another general objection, namely, that Professor Perry's scheme is a mere piece of tinkering, not professing to ground itself upon any thorough analysis of the evil it seeks to remedy, not by any means erected as an engineer like Professor Perry would construct a real suspension bridge, resorting to every light of science, but rather in the old no-method by which dark ages built that crazy structure that the very asses balked at, the *pons asinorum*. Broken up into educational junk, it would afford some valuable half-ideas and lesser fractions. We can only give a single example of what we mean. Professor Perry is quite right in protesting against the notion that logarithms should not be taught until their theory is first mastered. One might as well forbid people to take photographs until they perfectly understand the molecular actions involved. But the other half of this idea is, that you should never teach the theory of logarithms until interest has been excited by seeing what marvels they will accomplish; and, in general, you should try not to teach any theory, especially if it be one requiring a good deal of effort to comprehend, until the subject it explains has been, as far as may be, brought out of cloudland, so that there may be an intellectual incentive to seeking the why of it. This is particularly important all through mathematics. Not only is it permissible, as Professor Perry demands, not to keep the Pythagorean proposition a secret until it is proved, but it should be suggested and applied to measurements of some triangles in such a way as to create a doubt as to its exactitude. Then the demonstration will mean something.

—An interesting summary of the information regarding the northeasterly portions of the American continent which was obtainable in England at the end of the sixteenth century, is provided by the facsimiles of the more important English maps drawn between 1578 and 1600, which illustrate Mr. Miller Christy's 'The Silver Map of the World' (London: Henry Stevens, Son & Stiles, pp. 71 and 10 maps). Mr. Christy has written a very suggestive treatise on a silver medallion which appears to have been designed to commemorate Drake's circumnavigation of the globe, by the same hand that produced the beautiful map dedicated by "F. G." to Richard Hakluyt, and published in the latter's edition of Martyr's 'Decades,' issued in Paris in 1587. Mr. Christy finds a cartographic test in the representation of the discoveries made by Frobisher on the Labrador coast in 1576-78. Frobisher and the map-makers who worked under his immediate inspiration realized the actual relations of the various points of land which he encountered, and succeeded in rearranging the previously accepted cartography so as closely to approximate the real geography of Greenland, Iceland, and Labrador. A generation later, however, the cartographers began to find difficulty in distinguishing between what Frobisher had seen and what he had surmised. The result was confusion in the whole subject, which ended in the location on the maps of Frobisher's Straits in Greenland, making an island of the point of that peninsula. This cartographic error persisted, despite the explorers and the whalers, on maps drawn within the last forty years, and was not permanently done away with until the publication of Mr. C. F. Hall's discovery of the remains of Frobisher's settlement and arctic gold refinery, in the bay north of Hudson's Straits. In elucidating the origin of this error, Mr. Christy uses the evidence of the contemporary maps, of which the originals are available only in the larger libraries. Two of these maps are placed within the reach of students outside of London for the first time. He has secured a projection of the North Atlantic portion of the Molineux globe, which is sometimes mentioned in geographical discussions, but very rarely examined, and he also reproduces an extremely interesting working sea-chart drawn by William Borough for the use of Frobisher in 1576, which had not before been known.

—Of more than ordinary "presence," in its large-folio dress, and of content to justify so expensive setting—which includes fifty-five large full-page illustrations from Rinehart's admirable (if rather "galleried") Indian photographs—'The Indians of To-day,' by George Bird Grinnell (Stone), is a worthy contribution to our too-small catalogue of *Indiana;* and, in its due subdivision, a large contribution. It is not, indeed, "scientific," in the severe sense. It harbors more inexactitudes than ethnology, strictly applied, could excuse; and its pitch is not critical, but soberly "popular." But, unlike much that is "popular," it—deserves to be. Its whole point of view is from that height of tolerance taught not by "mere learning," but only by knowledge—knowledge, not alone from intelligent reading, but from a personal experience few modern writers upon the American aborigine have equalled and still fewer have surpassed. Written straightforwardly and unaffectedly, from broad comprehension and no mean insight, this presentment is most readily classified as a "common-sense, matter-of-fact" view of the surviving Indian. The only structural criticism to be made is that the writer's deep familiarities are with the nomad Plains Indians; as to the sedentary (and nomad) tribes of the Southwest, his equipment is rather palpably hearsay evidence, and not always from the most authoritative witnesses. If, "when the white men first set foot in America they found it inhabited by any people who were absolutely primitive," that was not the character of its aboriginal population on the average. Nor is it at all true that "all used movable tents or lodges." An overwhelming majority of the natives in America did not use any such devices, and even in what is now United States a very large population did not. There were hundreds of ancient "cities" here, stone-built, castellated, many-storied, so long abandoned that they were a mystery even in the folk-lore that was vital when Columbus was born; and hundreds of others still occupied. But, for these superficial flaws, and too much acceptance of the Southwestern tribes from the reports of agents neither scientific nor acquainted, Mr. Grinnell largely atones by a generic comprehension of Indians anywhere. Nothing could be more quiet or more true than his arraignment of our "Indian system" in general, and particularly of the great print-factory schools, remote from home, where Indian children are spoiled as Indians and not, of course, converted into whites—the same philanthropic, stupid, far-reaching tragedy of which Zitkala-Sa has so naïvely yet so poignantly drawn a simple personal outline.

—With parts 28-32 the important 'Dictionnaire Général de la Langue Française' of MM. Hatzfeld, Darmesteter, and Thomas (Paris: Ch. Delagrave) comes to an end. It makes two large octavo volumes of 2,272 double-column pages, besides introductory matter of 28 pages, and a supplementary Treatise on the Formation of the French Language in 289 pages. As is well known, M. Darmesteter died early in the course of publication, but his colleagues have maintained the high authority of the work, which has been a boon to the editors of the Oxford English Dictionary. A severe compression has been exercised, but the Dictionary abounds in illustrative quotations, dated and located with particularity, the collection of the "Grands Écrivains" being as a rule referred to when the author cited is found in it. The pronunciation is indicated, and the etymologies in brief, with little or no discussion, though this is the scholarly feature *par excellence.* To the admirable Treatise we may return hereafter. We shall here only direct attention to it for the sake of some convenient lists (sometimes exhaustive) of words derived from Latin, Greek, Gaulish, English, Germanic, etc., etc., and of the principal adverbs, prepositions, and interjections; for the detailed examination of affixes and prefixes; for the history of pronunciation, etc. The English list just mentioned is confined to words which appear to have been definitively naturalized in France; the editors regretting that their countrymen's love of novelty has not caused them always to stand out sufficiently. It begins with *abolitioniste* and ends with *yacht,* while intermediate are *ballast, banknote, bifteck* and *rosbif, boston, boxer* (v.), *cab, club, cold-cream, confort, drawback, gentleman, hourra, jockey, jury, lunch, macadam, meeting, pamphlet, pouding, reporter* (s.), *revolver, schooner, snob, speech, sport, steeple-chase, tunnel, verdict, vote,* and other forms more or less calculated to make the French Quintilian stare and gasp. But they form a curious politico-sociological chapter. "Job" is not in this list, though the French still have the thing if not the name, as one of their statesmen lamented.

—*Yacht* occurs in Part 29 (which contains, by the way, all of W and X, filling but a third of a page each, and Y, half a page; while U, in Part 28, owing to the fact of our prolific negative un- being unknown to French, needs but six pages). The pronunciation is far from established, with a choice between "hyakt," "hyak," and the English "hyot." *Tramway* has its pronunciation unaltered, and this may partly account for its admission by the Academy as early as 1878 along with *tomahawk* (pronounced as in English but without the aspirate), which, nevertheless, figured in Chateaubriand's 'Atala,' and the indispensable *truisme.* The same year witnessed the tardy recognition of *vendetta* from the Italian. On the whole, the English borrowings are but little modified or assimilated in spelling—not more than the German *Vermut* in *vermout* or *Wiederkomm* in *vidrecome;* less than the Dutch *wimbelkin* in *vilbrequin.* By the dropping of the hyphen, *coaltar* becomes, in a French list, almost unrecognizable. Five-sixths of the substantives are masculine, and those which are feminine would seldom fail of being distinguished by one familiar with French rules of gender. From the Slav a very small group of vocables has been taken over, and we may write *tsar, tzar,* or *czar, ukase* or *oukase. Veto,* from the Latin, is pronounced as if the *e* had the acute accent. *Vif-argent* sounds the *f* like *f* or like *v.* In *vide-bouteille* the first word becomes dissyllabic in verse, as happens in other like instances. Numerous compounds of this sort occur in the parts before us. Those beginning with *tire* (from the verb *tirer*), which go back as far as 1549, are still being multiplied, whereas the *traine* series is quite obsolete and uncreative. In conclusion, we are glad to record the fact that this Dictionary has, in addition to the Grand Prix Jean Reynaud, of 10,000 francs, awarded by the Institut, just received the Grand Prix of the present Exposition.

RECENT POETRY.

It is possible that the best memorial of what is called "Home Week" in our older States may turn out to be in volumes of dialect poetry which will preserve, better than any other monument, the traditions of the founders. Many such attempts will doubtless fail; they will be as monotonous as Bret Harte, or as bewildering as Kipling when he picks up phrases from all parts of the United States and mingles them all in the dialect of his 'Captains Courageous.' It is hard even for a modest and accurate man to write dialect without affectation; and, moreover, mere dialect soon palls or coarsens. It cannot be said that Mr. Holman F. Day, in his 'Up in Maine' (Boston: Small, Maynard & Co.), has wholly escaped these ills, but it is only fair to say that he has achieved unusual success in his effort to meet the pilgrims of "Old Home Week" and give them a taste of the vernacular. It is true that he awakens distrust at the outset by his title 'Up in Maine,' for if Maine is not "*Down* East," what becomes of the traditions of the fathers? It is true, also, that the preface of the Hon. C. E. Littlefield is so forced and labored as to make the reader wonder if this be the orator who took Congress by storm. But the lyrics themselves are so fresh, so vigorous, and so full of manly feeling that they sweep away all criticism; and the most commonplace things in the farmer's life take hold upon the human heart when the poet sings this winter song (p. 35):

THE STOCK IN THE TIE-UP.

I'm workin' this week in the wood-lot; a hearty old job, you can bet;
I finish my chores with a larntern, and marm has the table all set
By the time I get in with the milkin'; and after I wash at the sink,
And marm sets a saucer o' strainin's for the cat and the kittens to drink,
Your uncle is ready for supper, with an appetite whet to an edge
That'll cut like a bush-scythe in swale-grass, and couldn't be dulled on a ledge.
And marm, she slats open the oven, and pulls out a heapin' full tin
Of the rippin'est cream-tartar biskit a man ever pushed at his chin.
We pile some more wood on the fire, and open the damper full blare,
And pull up and pitch into supper—and comfort—and taste good—wal, there!
And the wind swooshes over the chimbley, and scrapes at the shingles cross grain,
But good double winders and bankin' are mighty good friends here in Maine.
I look 'crost the table to mother, and marm she looks over at me,
And passes another hot biskit and says, "Won't you have some more tea?"
And while I am stirrin' the sugar, I relish the sound of the storm.
For, thank the good Lord, we are cosey and the stock in the tie-up is warm.

I tell ye, the song o' the fire and the chirruping hiss o' the tea,
The roar of the wind in the chimbley, they sound dreadful cheerful to me.
But they'd harrer me, plague me, and fret me, unless as I set here I knew
That the critters are munchin' their fodder and bedded and comf'table, too.
These biskits are light as a feather, but, boy, they'd be heavier'n lead
If I thought that my hosses was shiv'rin', if I thought that my cattle warn't fed.
There's men in the neighborhood 'round me who pray som'w'at louder than me.
They wear better clothes, sir, on Sunday—chip in for the heathen Chinee,
But the cracks in the sides o' their tie-ups are wide as the door o' their pew,
And the winter comes in there a-howlin' with the sleet and the snow peltin' through.
Step in there, sir, ary a mornin' and look at their critters! 'Twould seem
As if they were bilers or engines, and all o' them chock full o' steam.
I've got an old-fashioned religion that calkilates Sundays for rest,
But if there warn't time, sir, on week days to batten a tie-up, I'm blest
I'd use up a Sunday or such-like, and let the durned heathen folks go
While I fastened some boards on the lintel to keep out the frost and the snow.
I'd stand all the frowns of the parson before I'd have courage to face
The dumb holler eyes o' the critters hooked up in a frosty old place.
And I'll bet ye that in the Hereafter the men who have stayed on their knees
And let some poor, fuzzy old cattle stand out in a tie-up and freeze,
Will find that the heat o' the Hot Place is keyed to an extra degree
For the men who forgot to consider that critters *have feelin's same's we.*

But the whole vigor of the strain does not come until the poet arrives in the wilderness, sings of "Drive, Camp, and Wangan," and celebrates that carnival of strength and daring which awaits the gangs of loggers in the Maine woods. It is the "head of a drive" who himself sings, who gives you words not to be found in the dictionary—such as "wangan," "peavy," "cant-dog"—and launches you upon adventures which need no Kipling to tell their tale: the "Rear o' the Drive," for instance (p. 142).

It is a curious fact that whereas, a year or so ago, the poets were all singing the praises of the Spanish war, there now appear on our table no less than five volumes of verse to urge strenuously the side of peace, and not one on the other side. First comes 'Liberty Poems, inspired by the Crisis of 1898-1900' (Boston: West), full of stirring lays against war by Henry Labouchere and Richard Le Gallienne in England, with William Lloyd Garrison, Ernest Crosby, John W. Chadwick, Hezekiah Butterworth, Edward Robeson Taylor, and many others in this country. Such a volume always shows great variety of excellence, with some inevitable mediocrity, as indeed does any miscellaneous collection; but it well preserves for future readers the wholesome reaction from a warlike period. Then come two volumes equally sincere, but of less average poetic ability, the one, "Advent of Empire," by the well-known labor reformer, Morrison I. Swift (Los Angeles: Ronbrooke Press), while the other is 'Chants for the Boers' by Joaquin Miller (San Francisco: Whittaker & Ray Co.). It is to be noticed that both these volumes are from the Pacific Coast, usually represented as the most warlike region of our country, and that the latter comes from an author whose first laurels were won in England, and who has always retained warm relations with his friends made there.

Still another Anti-Imperialistic volume is 'America, and Other Poems,' by Bernard Shadwell (Chicago: Donnelley). So eager is this writer to plant his moral that he puts the title-poem even on the title-page:

AMERICA.

A refuge for the oppressed. Now, God be praised,
Here they may live at peace. By her just laws
All men are free and equal. No more wars
For greed of gold or land. No standard raised
Driving armed hordes, by bloody fever crazed,
To deeds which, calm and sane, the mind abhors,
Sending their souls, in an unrighteous cause,
Naked before God's judgment seat, amazed.

Such was this country; but within the hour,
False creed of conquest luring her to ill,
She is become an armed, imperial power,
Crushing a weaker people to her will.
Let freedom's banner, then, to earth be hurled,
And raise the despot's flag of the grim Old World.

But England takes her share in the condemnation, and this is Mr. Shadwell's "Marching Song, on the Road to Kimberley" (p. 74):

We are marching to relieve you,
Cecil Rhodes,
Honor will not let us leave you,
Cecil Rhodes.
Seven thousand men in khaki—
Gunners, horse, and foot—but, hark ye,
Do you know the price we're paying,
Cecil Rhodes, Cecil Rhodes?
All the lives and all the treasure,
Cecil Rhodes?

Do you hear the rifles calling,
Cecil Rhodes?
Brave and honest men are falling,
Cecil Rhodes.
Bursting shell and shrapnel flying
Strew the earth with dead and dying.
Do you think that you are worth it,
Cecil Rhodes, Cecil Rhodes?
Is their blood upon your conscience,
Cecil Rhodes?

With these various Anti-Imperialistic poets may also be classed the late Mrs. Hilda Johnson Wise, whose fine face looks from the frontispiece of 'The Optimist, and Other Verses' (privately printed), with the affix, "Obiit December 13th, 1899." She thus deals with the pending questions of Expansion:

BALLADE OF EXPANSION, 1899.

Time was he sang the British Brute,
The ruthless lion's grasping greed,
The European Law of Loot,
The despot's devastating deed;
But now he sings the heavenly creed
Of saintly sword and friendly fist;
He loves you though he makes you bleed—
The Ethical Expansionist!

He loves you, Heathen! Though his foot
May kick you like a worthless weed
From that wild field where you have root,
And scatter to the winds your seed.
He's just the government you need;
If you object, why, he'll insist,
And on your protest "draw a bead,"
The Ethical Expansionist.

ENVOI.

Heathen! You must, you shall be freed;
It's really useless to resist;
To save your life you'd better heed
The Ethical Expansionist!

Mr. Robert Loveman's little 'Book of Verses' (Philadelphia: Lippincott) is by an author who earned from critics, by a previous volume, the perilous title of a "carver of cameos." The title is perilous, because it tempts an author to imagine every stone a cameo, and to feel that he is sure of fame in inverse ratio to the quantity he gives the public. Books of proverbs are not necessarily wiser than books of psalms; and books of gospel may be better than either. On the whole, Mr. Loveman has borne well the test of the cameo-carver, and if his little gems are rarely of great price, they are seldom worthless, though sometimes trivial. He is, perhaps, at his best, because simplest, in writing for children; and he does not altogether fail of impressiveness when he strikes a bold and deep note, as in this (p. 38):

THE SECRET.

Of one great secret Omar knew
Little as I, as much as you;
And Shakespeare's soul and Milton's brain
Perplexèd paused at death's domain.

Dear God, who gave us thought and breadth,
Divulge the mystery of death!
What suns shall light, what waters lave
The mystic shores beyond the grave.

Mr. Loveman furthermore reveals one of his sources of example in a tribute to Emily Dickinson (p. 32):

PROCLAMATION.

Robin in the red cravat,
When winter days are done,
A memorial meeting to
Emily Dickinson.

The humming-bird and butterfly
Will tell of her and weep,
But she can never heed them,
"Being just asleep."

Yet, after all, the young poet who seeks condensation is on the safer path. Leigh Gordon Gittner, for instance, in 'The Path of Dreams' (Chicago: Revell), is safe when she touches briefly, in a single verse, the perpetual problem of the unexplained kinship between flowers and the butterflies which haunt them (p. 92):

BUTTERFLIES.

As if a bed of bloom had taken wing—
Bright marigold, nasturtiums, zinnias gay—
They breast the breeze, or, lightly poising, cling
To other flowers not animate as they.

But when she deals with subjects more amply, she at once finds room for florid

Studies in John the Scot (Erigena): A Philosopher of the Dark Ages. By Alice Gardner. Henry Frowde. 1900. 16mo, pp. xii, 145.

An American scholar, writing for a small cyclopædia, thought it sufficient to describe Scotus as a "translator and author at the court of Charles the Bald." Could any good thing come out of the ninth century? Why inquire too curiously as to what any one had to say at a period when the few who tried to think could exercise their wits only upon high themes which they did not understand, and the finest spirits were dimly groping toward purer conceptions of what everybody professed to regard as most important? Yet a dark age may enjoy some glimmerings of light, and Erigena is supposed to have had as much light as any one had then. A new country, a new science, a coming civilization, need pioneers; such was John the Irishman, working so far ahead of his contemporaries that they knew not what to make of him.

Nor are modern critics always agreed as to his place, though his repute has grown. One poetic theory makes him a personage almost beyond human limitations, a splendid skeptic, who "sat as God, holding no form of creed, but contemplating all." Maurice calls him "one of the acutest metaphysicians of any century." Miss Gardner, with careful moderation, sums him up as "a devout agnostic, an eclectic philosopher, a recipient of the influences of the past, who, in many ways, anticipated the most fruitful ideas of the present age." The term agnostic, as we understand it, seems hardly justified. John's devoutness is as obvious as his independence; he quotes Scripture frequently, but always puts his own interpretation on it; his ideas are his own and nobody's else, and he seems satisfied with them, though he knows too much to push them too far. He has the eminently unmediæval idea of notional truth; it is useless to inquire, in supermundane matters, what absolutely is or is not, but proper to ask what we may most suitably think (since we must hold some opinion) on the subject—"not how things are either eternal or created, but for what reason they may be called both created and eternal."

He was out of touch with his age not only by the superior depth and breadth of his mind, but by its strongly Greek bias; without that, he could hardly have been a metaphysician. He was a transcendentalist and a mystic; and their mental processes are not always easy to follow. He had a "natural tendency to speculative thought, and the loose interpretation of dogma which naturally accompanied it, with a disposition to soar after ideals rather than to lay down laws." He held "that what we call evil is merely a privation of good, and has no positive existence." He thought that beasts have souls—here, in Miss Gardner's words, is a point for the S. P. C. A.—and "some measure of participation in the divine life, which they cannot eternally lose; and that the contrary opinion has only been preached as a warning to men prone to degrade themselves and become like the beasts that perish." "He possessed the energy of mind to think out a spiritual theory of the universe in a grossly materialistic age," and regarded "the preference of the material to the spiritual as being at the root of all mischief." Here is a passage of his (not cited by Miss Gardner), which must be read in the light of Spinoza's famous saying about knowing Christ after the flesh and in the spirit: "Nothing else is to be desired except the joy which comes from truth; and nothing else is to be shunned except His absence, the sole cause of eternal sorrow. Take from me Christ, no good will remain to me, and all torments affright me. The loss and absence of Christ is the torment of the whole rational creation; nor do I think there is any other." Such is his much-talked-of pantheism.

One wishes that so original a mind could have had a better teacher than the pseudo-Dionysius, whose works formed his "chief spiritual and intellectual diet." This Greek of the fourth or fifth century was on the right side, but his arguments—as in the startling passage on the non-materiality of Deity—are apt to be chiefly rhetorical: "He is neither soul nor mind. He has neither imagination nor opinion, nor word nor thought. . . . He is not skill, nor is He truth, nor dominion, nor wisdom. . . . He is neither darkness nor light, neither error nor truth"; and so on. More important than John's translation of Dionysius are his own writings, especially 'De Divisione Naturæ,' which was condemned by the Pope in 1225. His treatise against Gottschalk caused a small earthquake. (Maurice, in his 'Mediæval Philosophy,' p. 56-79, has an analysis of this). Prudentius of Troyes found 77 heresies in it, but was distanced by a writer of Lyons who raised the number to 106. Besides this predestinarian controversy, John took part in that concerning the sacraments, but if he wrote a tractate on this subject it has perished. Miss Gardner reasonably thinks that he ought not to have entered into these wordy wars; people could not understand him, and he, as an abstract philosopher, was in a false position when defending one side, even that of comparative rationality, against relative or absolute foolishness.

It is a pity that we know so little personally about this sturdy thinker. He was born in Ireland, probably after 800, and educated there; he went to France about 847, and till 872 lived at the court, esteemed by the King, and doing more or less teaching. His enemies, including Pope Nicholas I., strove to have him displaced, feeling in a general way that he was a dangerous man and liable to give his pupils new ideas, than which nothing could be worse; but the King seems to have stood by him, thereby atoning for many sins. We need not believe too firmly in the joke about sot and Scot and the table between—though on this John's fame in some quarters seems to be largely based; nor in the legend that he went to England when old, and was murdered by his scholars with their pens at Malmesbury. But after his patron's death (in 877) he must have been comparatively friendless and unprotected; he held no benefice or definite post, and his name was a synonym for heresy. A few centuries later he might have been burned with his books. As it was, the evening of his life can hardly have been serene, and nobody, it seems, had sense enough to note his death-date.

His greatness, as Miss Gardner says and shows, lay in this, that he was a spiritualizer as against the materialists and traditionalists of his time, a free-thinker as against the "musty schoolmen" who followed him; a soldier of the Lord and of liberty, standing alone for principles which nobody but himself apprehended, and which it was left for far-distant ages to develop and popularize. As such he claims our respectful remembrance. Here, in a momentous sentence, is the root of the matter: "Authority proceeds from right reason, not reason from authority. Rightful authority seems to me nothing else than truth discovered by the power of reason, and committed to writing." And here is a sufficiently modern sentiment: "Let each one make the most of his own views, until that light shall come which turns into darkness the light of those who deal falsely in wisdom, and turns to light the darkness of those who discern things rightly."

On the Theory and Practice of Art-Enamelling upon Metals. By Henry Cunynghame, M.A., of the Home Department, with illustrations. Westminster: Archibald Constable & Co. 1899. Pp. xvi, 136.

The author of this book is announced on the title-page as being in an employ not exactly identified with artistic manufacture, and one is sorry for this apparent classing of him among outsiders. The book itself reads as if it had been written by one who knew much of the practical side of the art. Whatever the words quoted may signify, they do not seem to point to the position of a master-workman, which is what the preface and introduction and the phrasing of the book itself would lead one to think the writer. The preface contains a plea, all the more touching and serious because of its brevity, for the fast diminishing number of artist workmen who have been accustomed to work for themselves, in their own lodgings, and with some independence of method and design. He thinks that there are many such in Paris even yet, but that in London there are few who work in any way "out of the common." The introduction, thirty-three pages long, contains a very interesting historical sketch of enamelling upon metal, and a rather careful statement of the differences between enamelling in the proper sense and those modern processes which go by the name of enamelling, but with obvious misuse of the term.

If one expects to find uniform accuracy in such a chapter, he will generally be disappointed; and accordingly it is impossible to admit the statement on page 2 that enamelling will not adhere to brass, which indeed is contradicted by a statement on page 10; and yet this contradiction and this error are rather apparent than real, and it appears that the writer was thinking first of one process and then of another when these statements were written down. It is, of course, an error to say that the pointed arch was invented in the twelfth century, for it had been known long before, and was in no sense created by the first Gothic architects. It is also hardly within the author's scope to dwell, as he does, upon the "didactic character of mediæval sacred art," as on page 14; and the discussion on page 23 of the lack of interest for the ordinary mind of classic or pseudo-classic subjects is probably contradicted by historical evidence. The writer evidently understands that splendor of color and beautiful composition in line and in color-masses are what artists in enamelling are seeking; but in his capacity as an English writer for general reading he is unable to maintain that too boldly, and thinks it essential to deal with the "subject" in its literary or its moral and religious aspect. These comments apart, the useful criticism and description contained in this introduction are really surprising in amount and in quality. It is incomplete only in the sense that it is brief, and any person interested in the subject should read this chapter with care, and more than once. It is, however, to be regretted that it is only of European art that our writer treats, and that the two final paragraphs of his introduction, devoted to Japanese and Chinese enamels, are as misleading as possible, both in fact and in critical tone.

The rest of the book is divided into chapters on the choice of a style; on Limoges enamels and their make; on cloisonné enamels, and imitation gems; and on the practical making of the enamel colors themselves. Although the writer says that he hardly expects enamellers to make their own colors, he evidently thinks that they had better do so if they want to be well treated.

The English Income Tax. With Special Reference to Administration and Method of Assessment. By Joseph A. Hill, Ph.D. Published for the American Economic Association by the Macmillan Company, New York. (Economic Studies, Vol. IV., No. 4-5.)

Considering the importance of the English income tax, both as a source of revenue and as an adjustable means of effecting a balance of income and expenditure in the annual budget, one might expect to find comprehensive treatises upon its establishment, administration, and method of assessment, written by English economists familiar with its practical working; but no such treatises have been written, and it has been left for an American to work over the excellent material buried in parliamentary documents, in reports of commissions, and in the annual budget speeches and debates extending over a period of more than half a century. This work is thoroughly well done by Dr. Joseph A. Hill. It may be observed, in passing, that the indifference of English economists itself bears witness to the satisfactory character of the tax and to general efficiency in its administration in that country.

Dr. Hill devotes a brief introductory chapter to an historical account of the tax, and to a consideration of some of the general reasons for its survival as a fiscal resource. A tax on income was levied under Pitt, at the end of the last century (1798), and assumed its present form early in this century (1803). As a war tax, it continued to be levied until the end of the Napoleonic wars, when it was discontinued, to be revived by Sir Robert Peel, in 1842, "partly to provide for a deficit in the budget, and partly to enable him to make certain reductions and reforms in the complicated system of protective import duties." In spite of "complaint on the part of taxpayers and adverse criticism by statesmen, politicians, and writers on finance," and in spite of efforts on the part of the early Chancellors to avoid continuing the tax, it has been renewed from year to year for more than fifty years, the rate being adjusted to current needs; and it is to-day, "although still, in form, a temporary tax, requiring for its continuance an annual renewal by act of Parliament, in all probability as firmly established and as permanent as any part of the revenue system." The tax yielded approximately $90,000,000 in the year 1898-99, and Dr. Hill is led to observe, regarding it, that, "besides constituting an important part of the permanent or ordinary revenues, the tax has repeatedly proved to be a valuable resource for an emergency; through its instrumentality, more than one Chancellor of the Exchequer, under conditions of more or less difficulty, has succeeded in maintaining that close adjustment of revenue to expenditure which the excellent traditions of the English system of finance required of him."

Although the general principle of progression is nowhere recognized, the tax, in its practical working, is, in consequence of certain abatements and exemptions allowed, progressive on all incomes of £700 or less. Incomes of £150 are altogether exempt from taxation. On incomes of from £150 to £400, an abatement of £160 is allowed; and on incomes of £400 to £500, an abatement of £150; £500 to £600, an abatement of £120; £600 to £700, of £70. As a consequence of these abatements and exemptions, a tax of 8d. in the pound is graduated on incomes below £700 by an easy progression from complete exemption on incomes below £150 to an amount equivalent to a tax of 3 1-3 per cent. on the total income, where the income is above £700. The allowance of exemptions and abatements of the tax on small incomes involves a knowledge of the amount of the tax paid by the individual, as well as of the amount of his property or income. Under any system of indirect taxation the amount ultimately paid by the individual cannot be determined or regulated; and consequently no abatement of the tax can be made.

The obscurity attaching to the incidence of all forms of indirect tax, while it facilitates the payment of taxes and avoids friction, has, nevertheless, one unfortunate consequence in that it breeds popular indifference to the action of legislative bodies in voting away public moneys for miscellaneous purposes. The cost to the taxpayer is obscured by indirectness in the assessment of the tax. This tendency to extravagance is one of the chief dangers attaching to indirect forms of taxation. It is fostered in the popular indifference regarding the employment of public revenues. Considering the services performed by his Government, an American pays more out of a given income than he would have to pay were he living under any one of the European governments. He delights in free, extravagant, even wasteful, expenditures; delights to see public works undertaken, wages paid freely for incompetent service, and men employed in great numbers as needless supernumeraries—because all this seems to occur at nobody's expense. An equitable assessment of direct taxes, in a form which should enable each citizen to estimate the cost to him individually of this lavishness, would constitute a wholesome check upon public disbursements. The taxpayer needs to feel that he ultimately earns the wages paid out to idle supernumeraries in the employ of the Government. If the tax could be levied upon him directly in a lump sum which should increase with the extravagance of the Government, the inconvenience of paying it would undoubtedly dissipate his indifference to its amount, and so arouse in him a keen interest in true economy.

In England, taxpayers have always guarded jealously the right of the Government to assess taxes upon them, keeping careful account of amounts granted to the crown, and requiring careful account of their expenditure. English practice and experience are particularly instructive on this point. There is no confusion regarding the sources of public revenues, no confusion of taxpaying with subsidization of industry, no effort to wield the tax-levying power as a means of disbursing political favor, or as a means of keeping wages high. These notions have been outgrown. The English taxpayer regards the payment of a tax as a reduction of his personal income, and looks to receive an account of its expenditure.

It may be observed, however, that, in the assessment and collection of the income tax, as is not uncommonly the case in English experience, the original intent and purpose of the statute has been materially modified in practice, so that the effectiveness of the tax, under the present method of assessing and collecting it, is a consequence of administrative experience and of common usage, rather than of ingenuity on the part of legislators. As it stands on the statute-book, the law is an evidence of the Englishman's ability to think concretely if not clearly, while the successful working of the law is an evidence of his capacity for solving concrete problems practically, if unintelligently. In his study of the subject Dr. Hill has, therefore, wisely not confined his researches to the legislative aspects, but has given due consideration to common practice in assessing and collecting the tax at the present time. In view of the recent effort to establish a tax on incomes in the United States, this study of the English income tax is particularly apropos, whether Congress is likely or not in the future to make other attempts looking to the direct assessment of incomes.

Dictionary of National Biography. Edited by Sidney Lee. Vol. LXIII. Wordsworth-Zuylestein. London: Smith, Elder & Co.; New York: Macmillan. With Indexes to vols. i.-xiv. 1900.

The completion of this noble enterprise offers several grounds for congratulation. One is, that it has been steadily prosecuted for eighteen years, a volume appearing after the first (in 1885) "with unbroken punctuality on every successive quarter-day." Another is, that it has been thus persevered in by the London publishers in the face of a certain and heavy deficit. And a third, that (omitting a supplementary volume or two) the close of the century sees the end of the job. At the outset, Mr. Leslie Stephen alone appeared upon the title-page as editor. With volume xxii. Mr. Sidney Lee's name was joined to his; with volume xxvii. Mr. Lee remained alone and so continued, though Mr. Stephen did not cease to be a most important contributor, and has two significant articles, on Wordsworth and on the poet Young, in the concluding volume. A patriotic disinterestedness has thus been combined with sound physical endurance and with uncommon good luck.

Mr. Lee's Shakspere has been thought worthy of separate publication, and some others of these biographies, nearly as full and elaborate, would merit a like distinction; but it has been less the plan of the Dictionary to make a finished appreciation, literary or historical, than to supply a faithful chronicle of leading facts and incidents in each career. Add to this a scrupulous indication of sources and authorities, which is one of the prime values of the work. Notoriety as well as fame has been a ticket of admission, and even criminals have their place beside saints and heroes. In the volume before us, we pass from Wycliffe, Wordsworth, and Young, from Elihu Yale, to Worth, the Parisian dressmaker, and to the Quakeress, Mrs. Patience Wright, a native of Bordentown, N. J., who was a wax modeller of the last century, and one of Franklin's spies and correspondents in England. The theatrical profession has been carefully looked after from the first, along with artists, inventors, poets, novelists, men of science, warriors, and philanthropists. As the latest discussion of a great many historical personages, the Dictionary is certain to be resorted to for years to come, but its enormous utility consists in snatching from oblivion hundreds if not thousands of untitled persons, honorable middle-class ancestors to unborn generations who will long resort to this record for genealogical origins. Numbers of these had earned the gratitude of mankind, yet had made little noise and must have escaped the ordinary biographical dictionary. Again and again the family is cited as the chief if not the sole source of information. Finally, in the case of writers, the bibliographic details are as convenient as they are precious; and much attention has been given to portraiture.

Another function of the Dictionary is incidental, but it is not small. The writing of brief biographies for such a work is an art for which few are naturally fitted, and which few can learn by apprenticeship. No doubt the editorial control here has been constant and efficient, and the product a joint one. Even so the articles are worthy models of compression. Mr. Stephen, however, may be singled out as exhibiting an ideal capacity as editor and contributor. His articles are extraordinarily compact of information, while relieved of all dulness and enlivened by a pithy humor that has no equal. His characterizations, more or less sparingly indulged in, are likewise masterly and preëminent. Nor does his well-known style suffer from the constraint of space and matter-of-fact narration. Every notice that bears his initials deserves careful study on the part of those who would excel in one of the most difficult branches of literature, usually given over to hacks.

The volume which elicits these remarks is prefaced by a statistical account of this unrivalled Dictionary, whose inception we owe to Mr. George M. Smith, head of the London firm, and whose monument, *aere perennius*, it is. We learn here that the series contains notices of 29,120 men and women, comprehended in almost exactly the same number of pages. A tabular attempt is made on this basis to weigh the comparative worth of the centuries in which the subjects flourished, and there is much other curious matter concerning the most numerous surnames, etc. While Smith is still at the front, and Jones next, but at a considerable distance, and Brown only fifth, Robinson is at the tail end. The contributors have numbered altogether 653, and show not a few of the summits of learning and intellect in the British Isles. The early settlers in America have been looked after by that student, Mr. J. A. Doyle, to whose department we have constantly called attention in noticing the successive volumes. Mr. Goldwin Smith is the only cis-Atlantic contributor mentioned, we think, except Mr. H. Morse Stephens, who, perhaps, ceased to write on coming to this country to reside.

Some Colonial Mansions, and Those Who Have Lived in Them. With genealogies of the various families mentioned. Edited by Thomas Allen Glenn, Member of the Historical, Genealogical, and Colonial Societies of Pennsylvania, etc. Volume I. Philadelphia: Henry T. Coates & Co. 1898. Also, Second Series. 1900.

This work consists of separate essays, some of which are signed by Henry T. Coates, one by Kate Mason Rowland, and one by Samuel Troth, while the greater number are not signed at all. The chief purpose of the editor has evidently been to preserve the records of the ancient families, the Stocktons, the Van Rensselaers, the Carters of Virginia and the Carrolls of Maryland, the Brandons and the Randolphs, the Washingtons and the Jeffersons, the descendants of Mad Anthony Wayne and of the elegant Gen. Schuyler. Twenty-one ancient estates, with their manor-houses and the families which inhabited them, are described and discussed in what seems a trustworthy fashion. Each chapter, moreover, is followed by a genealogy of the family with which it had been concerned; and whether these genealogies are more accurate than the famous English ones of Burke and his congeners is a question which it is better not to raise. As they are much shorter, with no great chance for romancing about crusaders and Irish kings, and as they are the genealogies of the very few notable families among a crowd of nobodies, they may be more trustworthy than the famous combinations of assumption and falsehood which make up the books of European gentlefolk; but it would be unsafe to assert this as a fact. What is attractive about the work is the close identification of the family life in each instance with the house itself in which that life was led. To have given plans of that house would have been, perhaps, to come too near to the family life, and would have been in any event an expensive and troublesome job; for the draftsman who knows how to "measure up" an old house is not the same man as he who carries the camera, and it appears that in America, at least, he is hard to come by.

The architectural value of this work is, however, considerable. Each of the old houses is given in a very satisfying process-print, and usually in more than one, in separate inserted plates; and besides these there are a good many photographs of interiors and exteriors, reproduced in half-tone and printed with the text. Family portraits, of course, are reproduced in considerable numbers, and there are also cuts of arms in sketchy but apparently accurate drawing. Thus, to take an important instance, the Carters of Virginia, to whom a double essay, or one divided into two parts, is devoted, have, by way of illustration, nineteen photographic views of their buildings, and the same number of family portraits, not counting heraldic achievements; and some of the views of the old mansions are really of surprising interest, and more valuable hints for the architects of our day who are trying many a book which architectural subjects. There houses more attractive in their external aspect or more important than any of these, and one of them is certainly the great mansion of Doughoregan Manor, which was the seat of Charles Carroll and his successors, the family which gave by their social and religious influence so remarkable and special a character to the colony of Maryland.

The character of the first series is well kept up in the second, with, perhaps, the additional attractiveness of providing a somewhat larger scale for the illustrations. None of the houses given in the second series are quite as important as one or two of the first lot, but they are equally instructive to the student of our earliest architecture—that of the "Georgian period."

A Study of the Greek Pæan. By Arthur Fairbanks, Ph.D. [Cornell University Studies.] Macmillan.

Dr. Fairbanks's thesis is an interesting and thorough investigation of the origin and development of the pæan—a word used with a range almost as wide as the word hymn, and more specifically to designate a hymn to Apollo, and also as an epithet of Apollo and less commonly of other deities. In English usage we constantly apply the term to a hymn of victory, and we associate this meaning with it almost exclusively. Was it primarily a song of thanksgiving, as some distinguished German scholars have maintained, or a song peculiar to the worship of Apollo and Artemis; or are these uses secondary and derivative, or transferred from an earlier and restricted application to a special god whose function was later merged in the powers of greater deities of the pantheon? Dr. Fairbanks's answer to this question has, on the whole, the merit of consistency and a satisfactory logical development. He assumes the existence of an old deity, Pæan (Παιάν), who in Homer is the physician of the Olympic deities, and the patron of human physicians, a minor god of healing. In Hesiod, this deity is expressly distinguished from Apollo, and his individuality seems clearly attested in passages of Solon, of Aeschylus, and of Pindar. Later he seems to vanish into a shadow of Apollo, or to become merged and identified with Asclepios. His ghost faintly reappears from time to time in inscriptions or epithets or ceremonial usage. We can hardly doubt his existence as a local deity anterior perhaps to Apollo.

But it may be plausibly suggested that this deity is simply a name born of the refrain used in the worship of Apollo. Such a whimsical genesis we are quite certain has taken place in several cases, notably and assuredly in the following. There is no question that the youth Linos, who was lamented in the Linos song, got his name and his existence from the Semitic refrain *ai lenu* (woe to us!), which the Greeks borrowed in their refrain αἴλινον. Adonais is manufactured somewhat similarly from the foreign refrain *Adon ai*; and many epithets of Bacchus and other deities arise simply from the cri with which they were invoked in prayer an worship. Hence the god Pæan might be simply an echo of the cry pæan; and the hym may be anterior to the god.

There are very good reasons, however, believing the reverse. He appears in Ho as an independent being, and he never totally disappears from the pantheon. "The pæan is a healing song because it is addressed to the god of healing." If we grant this, it must be admitted that the other meaning and uses of the pæan flow very smoothly and consistently; if we start with the assumption made by Schwalbe and others, that it was originally a song of praise and thanksgiving to Apollo, our course is jolting and up hill. The pæan was chanted before battle, it was sung after a victory, it was used with sacrifices before important undertakings, it was used in the ordinary worship of Apollo (or, later, of any other deity), it was sung with a libation at the banquet or symposium, it was sung at marriages. How are we going to reconcile these diverse uses; how, especially, with the supposition that it was primarily a thanksgiving? In the opening of the "Oedipus Tyrannus," we are told that "the pæan rises loud, mingled with groans of distress." Such a passage is very awkward if the pæan is necessarily a thanksgiving. The key to the various meanings is really quite simple if we take the unanimous definition of the scholiasts, the "pæan is a hymn sung for relief from plague or evil," and, hence, assume that it is primarily a prayer for freedom from illness or distress, addressed to the Healer. This is exactly the situation in the "Oedipus," where the people are praying for deliverance from the visitation of the plague. With a wider application, it is used to avert any future or imminent peril. When *Iphigenia* is trying to escape with her brother, and their ship is suddenly driven back by wind and tide towards the inhospitable coast of the Taurians, she chants a prayer for help to Artemis, and at the same time a pæan is responsively sung by the sailors.

In like manner, we find the pæan, as a rule, joined with the sacrifices that preceded any important undertaking: for example, when the Athenian fleets weighed anchor for the Sicilian expedition, it forms one of the features of the striking scene described by Thucydides, and one of the elements of contrast in his artistic picture of the ruin that followed. Naturally, therefore, it was chanted before joining battle; on such occasions, it is always preceded by a libation and by sacrifices, and followed by the battle-cry as the soldiers rush to the attack. The symposium can hardly be reckoned an "important undertaking"; but it was an occasion on which libation was offered and the presence of the gods was recognized. The pæan which *Iphigenia* was represented, with pathetic contrast, as having sung, with "fresh, virginal voice at her father's table," was only an extension of the original use of the hymn. At a very early date it became associated with the worship of Apollo. Nothing could be more natural, as Apollo was preëminently ἀλεξίκακος, the averter of evil. It was easily transferred later to his son Asklepios; the pæan of Isyllos, found at Epidaurus, is addressed equally to Apollo and to Asklepios, the god of healing. Next the scope of the hymn is widened to include other deities; at the banquet, it is often addressed to Zeus, the Saviour. The marriage feast is simply a variety of the symposium. The pæan of victory is an altar-hymn, or a processional accompanying the festal sacrifice by which a triumph was celebrated. Dr. Fairbanks is very particular in maintaining that this was an expression of joy and never a thanksgiving. But if it was primarily addressed to a certain Pæan as a petition for deliverance from ill, what prevents its being converted into a thanksgiving to the same deity for salvation actually bestowed? It would, on the contrary, be strange if the divine Physician never received his fee of incense and gratitude.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bardeen, C. W. Continuous Contracts for Teachers. Syracuse, N. Y.: C. W. Bardeen. 50c.
Barr, Amelia E. The Maid of Maiden Lane. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Brady, C. T. Recollections of a Missionary in the Great West. Scribners. $1.25.
Bryden, H. A. Animals of Africa. London: Sands & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.
Buehler, H. G. A Modern English Grammar. New York: Newson & Co. 60c.
Bury, Prof. J. B. A History of Greece to the Death of Alexander the Great. Macmillan. $1.90.
Champion, R. The Princess Ahmedée: A Romance of Heidelberg. New York: Godfrey A. S. Wieners.
Clark, Dr. C. C. P. The "Machine" Abolished and the People Restored to Power by the Organization of all the People on the Lines of Party Organization. Putnams.
Cobban, J. M. An African Treasure. New Amsterdam Book Co. $1.25.
Corelli, Marie. Patriotism—or Self-Advertisement? A Social Note on the Present War. Lippincotts.
Dawson, A. J. African Nights' Entertainment. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Dickens, C. The Cricket on the Hearth. Cassells. 10c.
Flattery, M. D. A Pair of Knaves and a Few Trumps. A Novel. New York: The Abbey Press. $1.
Gaboriau, E. The Honor of the Name—The Mystery of Orcival.—Monsieur Lecoq.—Other People's Money.—File No. 113. New ed. Scribners. 5 vols. $1.25 each.
Gilchrist, R. M. The Courtesy Dame: A Novel. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Herrick, Christine T. First Aid to the Young Housekeeper. Scribners. $1.
How to Box to Win, etc. New York: Rhode & Haskins. 25c.
Larned, J. N. A History of England for the Use of Schools and Academies. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Lewes, Prof. V. B. Acetylene: A Handbook for the Student and Manufacturer. London: Archibald Constable & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $7.
Macray, W. D. Catalogi Codicum Manuscriptorum Bibliothecæ Bodleianæ, Partis quintae fasciculus quartus. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde. Fasc. III., 21s.; fasc. IV., 15s.
Malet, L. The Gateless Barrier. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Mallock, M. M. The Economics of Modern Cookery, or, A Younger Son's Cookery Book. Macmillan. $1.
McCulloch, H. Men and Measures of Half a Century; Sketches and Comments. Scribners. $2.50.
Newson, S. C. Selected Poems from Shelley and Keats. Macmillan. 25c.
Nisbet, J. Our Forests and Woodlands. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $3.
Paget, J. O. Hunting. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $3.
Places I Have Visited. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.
Potter, Margaret H. Uncanonized: A Romance of English Monachism. Chicago: McClurg. $1.50.
Quercus, A. The Silly Old Dragon, and Other Fables. New York: Straight Edge Press. 10c.
Scripps, J. L. Life of Abraham Lincoln. New ed. Detroit: The Cranbrook Press.
Scudder, H. E. The Book of Legends Told Over Again. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 25c.
Seven Gardens and a Palace. By "E. V. B." John Lane. $1.50.
Shuckburgh, Evelyn S. The Letters of Cicero: The Whole Extant Correspondence in Chronological Order. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. Vol. iii. $1.50.
Strain, E. H. A. Man's Foes: A Strange Tale of a Siege. New Amsterdam Book Co. 50c.
Sutton, Adah L. Mr. Bunny: His Book. Illustrated by W. H. Fry. Akron, O.: The Saalfield Publishing Co. $1.25.
Taylor, Prof. J. M. Elements of Algebra. Boston: Allyn & Bacon. $1.12.
Thayer, Prof. J. B. A Selection of Cases on Evidence at the Common Law with Notes. 2d ed. Cambridge: Charles W. Sever & Co.
The Nuttall Encyclopædia: Being a Concise and Comprehensive Dictionary of General Knowledge. Edited by J. Wood. 20th thousand. London: Frederick Warne & Co. $1.25.
The Travels of Sir John Mandeville: The Version of the Cotton Manuscript in Modern Spelling. Macmillan. $1.50.
Walker, Dr. J. Anatomy, Physiology, and Hygiene. Boston: Allyn & Bacon. New ed. $1.20.
Wallace, E. Writ in Barracks. London: Methuen & Co. 3s. 6d.
White, G. The Natural History and Antiquities of Selborne in the County of Southampton. Macmillan. $1.50.
Whitman, W. Leaves of Grass. Including a facsimile, autobiography, variorum readings of the poems, and a department of Gathered Leaves. New ed. Philadelphia: David McKay. $1.25.
Wildman, R. China's Open Door: A Sketch of Chinese Life and History. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Co. $1.50.
Will, A. S. World Crisis in China, 1900. New York: John Murphy Co. $1.
Wilson, R. B. Until the Day Break: A Novel. Scribners. $1.50.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 13, 1900.

The Week.

The Republican platform adopted at Saratoga on September 5 is a formidable document. It is nearly as long as the Governor's annual message to the Legislature, and it deals with as many subjects. It is apologetic in tone, and is lamentably lacking in directness of thought and expression. In a literary point of view it is a failure. As a definition of political principles, it betrays the vagueness of men who are doubtful whether they have any. Their uncertainty is at once disclosed in the treatment of Imperialism. They first deny that there is any such sentiment in the United States, but say that, if there is any, it exists among the Democrats, because they deprive the negro of the ballot in the South. They say that the policy of the Republican party concedes to the inhabitants of the Philippine Islands every measure of self-government consistent with the maintenance of American sovereignty. As there is no standard by which this concession to the Filipinos may be tested, this is saying that we give them as much self-government as is good for them, which is just what Spain said in respect to both Filipinos and Cubans.

There are only two or three topics of State policy in which the public just now take any interest. One of these is the Franchise Tax Law. This was the most meritorious act of the Roosevelt Administration. It was also the one which made Roosevelt's renomination as Governor impossible, in the eyes of the Republican machine politicians, because it prevented them from getting their usual supplies of cash. It was supposed until the last day that the Platform Committee would leave out the Franchise Tax entirely, but, when the delegates came together, it was found that public sentiment throughout the State was too strong to be ignored. There was a danger that if the subject were wholly omitted, some delegate would offer an independent resolution which might be dangerously strong, both in its terms and in its popularity in the Convention. So an insipid resolution was adopted at the last moment which declares that "the taxation of corporations enjoying the use of public property will continue to be, as it has been in the past, a policy of the Republican party." Everybody knows that the party, *i. e.*, the Platt machine, was bitterly opposed to the Franchise Tax Law, and supposed that it had killed it, and would have done so had not Gov. Roosevelt made it the subject of a message of urgency to the General Assembly just before the adjournment of the session of 1899. According to the newspapers, Mr. Platt's son was at Saratoga opposing any reference to the Franchise Tax in the platform.

Gov. Roosevelt let us into a precious secret last week by telling us how much he was indebted to Mr. Odell for help in securing useful legislation during his own term of office. Upon this subject he said:

> "First, as to our candidate for Governor. During my two years of service, Mr. Odell has been not merely my close and stanch friend, but my trusted helper and adviser in every crisis."

This puts Mr. Odell in an entirely new light. There have been three legislative crises, and three only, in Gov. Roosevelt's Administration. One of these was the passage of the Civil-Service Law which repealed Gov. Black's anti-starch bill. Another was the passage of the Franchise-Tax Law. A third was the struggle at Albany over the Ramapo bills proposed by the Merchants' Association. If Mr. Odell was the trusted helper and adviser of the Governor in these crises, the public have been greatly misinformed. Mr. Odell's services in behalf of civil-service reform have never been suspected before, and we think that Gov. Roosevelt owes it to the public, as well as to Mr. Odell himself, to give us a more particular account of them. His aid in securing the passage of the Franchise-Tax Bill has been equally concealed from the public eye. At the time when this bill was pending there were public hearings, both in the Legislature and before the Governor, in which men of prominence figured from day to day, but the name of Mr. Odell was not among them. The services of this trusted helper and adviser were strictly private. Here the Governor has the advantage over his critics, for he knows exactly how far he relied on Mr. Odell in this matter, and nobody can dispute him. We observe that he does not give us any particulars here, although he does tell us how Mr. Odell helped him in promoting the Ramapo legislation.

As to Ramapo, the Merchants' Association prepared two bills which were taken to Albany by its representatives with an urgent petition for their passage. One was a bill to repeal the charter of the Ramapo Company or to take away its extraordinary powers for condemning water-sheds—powers which ought never to have been committed to a private corporation. Another was to confer upon the city of New York similar powers of condemnation to those conferred on the Ramapo Company. Neither of these bills passed. The Merchants' Association found the words "No Thoroughfare" posted at the head of every road they attempted to follow, showing that the Ramapo Company was stronger at Albany than any force opposed to it. The conduct of the Governor himself was very puzzling to the Merchants' Association. They did not get the help which they expected from him. It turns out now that the Governor was consulting with Odell on the Ramapo question, and that Odell was his "trusted helper and adviser" in this matter, if in no other. And what was Odell's contribution to the assembled wisdom? A bill was passed which required the written approval of the City Comptroller to any contract between the city and a private company for additional water supplies. To this bill was added the following paragraph:

> "All proceedings relating to the making or approval of any such contract may be reviewed by the Appellate Division of the Supreme Court, in the First or Second Department, on the application of any resident taxpayer."

This the Governor declares to be "the vital provision of the bill," and for this he says we are indebted to Mr. Odell. He thus enables us to estimate the value of Odell's services as an adviser in every crisis. What is implied by the power of the Supreme Court to review all proceedings relating to the making or approval of any such contract? Evidently it means the power to pass upon the regularity of the proceedings, not upon the expediency of the contract. If the proceedings have been regular, the court has nothing more to say. For this boon we are indebted to Odell. But we are indebted to Roosevelt for the information that he was consulting with Odell on this subject.

The returns from the Vermont election of September 7 show that the Republican vote this year varies but slightly from 48,000, while the Democratic is about 17,000, and the Republican plurality not far from 31,000. In other words, the Republican vote is almost the same as in the Septembers of 1880 and 1888, when the party, a few weeks later, carried the nation, while the Democratic is more than 2,000 short of what had been recorded in the three contests before 1896. On the other hand, the Democratic vote is considerably larger than it was four years ago. Apparently about half of the recalcitrant Democrats of 1896 now accept Bryanism, while the other half refuse to vote at all so long as the party clings to it, instead of supporting the Republican ticket, as they did four years ago. The moral is that the Republicans may carry the country for McKinley in November by hard work, but they cannot repeat the "scare" of 1896 and frighten a host of Democrats into supporting their candidate. Bryanism is still so odious that the more independent-minded men who also oppose McKinleyism are content to let the Republicans beat it once more, though they do not expect or desire that the Administration shall be endorsed by any such phenomenal Republican majorities as were rolled up four years ago.

The result of the Maine election justifies the indications of the canvass. That developed nothing like the interest or enthusiasm on the Republican side which existed four years ago, and it was correspondingly hard to get voters to the polls. On the other hand, while the Democratic machine was in much better running order than four years ago, and lists could be printed of prominent Democrats who had returned to the fold, it was clear enough before election day that a large number of life-long Democrats would not support the party so long as Bryanism stands for Democracy. The real moral of the result in Maine, as in Vermont, therefore, appears to be that whether the financial question be the "immediate" one, as McKinley puts it, or Imperialism the "paramount" one, as his rival claims, the real issue with the masses of voters is what all recognize as Bryanism. While that stands for Democracy, many partisans who believed in the principles of Tilden and Cleveland will stay away from the polls, while most Republicans, however much they dissent from McKinleyism, are ready to accept it as the only way in which they can escape what they detest still more. Enough returns have been received to show that the total votes cast on Monday last will not vary materially from 75,500 Republican and 42,000 Democratic. This would be a Republican plurality of 33,500, as against 48,377 in 1896, 12,522 in 1892, 18,048 in 1888, and 19,851 in 1884.

The charges of fraud in the Arkansas election of Monday week take a pretty definite form. The election machinery which was originally contrived for handling the negro vote has been operated this year, as in other years, against the white Republicans. Goebel is said to have taken the central idea of his Election Law for Kentucky from the Arkansas statute, omitting, however, some of the more drastic provisions of the latter law. There are seventy-five counties in the State, and the law provides that there shall be a board of three Election Commissioners appointed for each county by a State board composed of the Governor, Secretary of State, and Attorney-General. These officers are always Democrats, and have run as candidates to succeed themselves, while having sole power of appointing the county boards of election judges. This year the Attorney-General was the Democratic candidate for Governor. The charges brought this year against the State board have been much the same as those which were made by Republicans in 1896. The law provides for one Republican member on each county board, but he is commonly regarded by the two Democratic members as a figurehead. In many of the precincts the county boards have ignored requests and nominations of Republicans in appointing judges of elections, and have appointed in their stead as Republican judges negroes unable to read or write. In other precincts no Republican has been found competent, in the minds of the Democratic members, to serve, and the precinct board has been made up entirely of Democrats. These conditions render a comparison of the election returns of this year with 1896 of little significance. The Republicans, however, with the same candidate in the field as in 1896, and a weaker man to oppose in the Democratic nominee, seem to have made distinct gains, especially in those white counties where they were able to secure a fair count.

Not the least among the ulterior results of the destructive Texas storm are those which bear on the cotton industry. The flood which not only wrecked most of the Galveston storehouses, but practically laid waste a good part of the farms of southern Texas, came at a most inopportune moment for the trade. The Manchester spinners had just made their agreement to hold off from buying until the new American cotton crop should be moving in quantity to market. The movement has begun later this summer than in many years. Last month's receipts of cotton at Galveston from the interior farms were less than one-fifth the receipts of August, 1899. The same conditions prevailing at nearly all other American ports, and warehouse supplies of cotton, here and abroad, having fallen to abnormally low figures, a very unusual opportunity was presented for speculators to engage in forestalling operations. This movement, checked by the decision of the English spinners, received most unexpected aid in the news from Texas. That State produces ordinarily more than one-fourth of the entire American cotton crop, and the new crop of the region was at its most critical stage when the storm of Saturday swept over it. There were 7,600 bales of cotton in the Galveston warehouses at last week's close, and 5,000 bales on shipboard in the harbor. Considering that the arrival of Texas cotton in market had been reckoned upon as the first means of breaking the speculative deadlock, the dismay into which the cotton-consuming community has been thrown by the Galveston news is not hard to understand. The best to be hoped for is that the area of damage to the crop will turn out to be less extensive than early estimates have indicated. Meantime we are glad to learn that New York cotton-market interests are taking ground against further operations in the direction of cornering the American supply.

Every impartial reader must have been struck by the dignity and good temper of the statement sent out by the Executive Board of the United Mine Workers on Saturday. Not only was there an entire absence of passionate and threatening language, but this Executive Board declined to heed the petition of the anthracite miners in Pennsylvania who desired to strike at once. They postponed final action in order that the employers might have further opportunity to avert the strike, and in order to avoid the enormous loss and confusion which must fall upon the industries of the Atlantic seaboard States from an interruption of the coal supply. The principal grievance of the miners is that of insufficient pay for their work. "Wages of miners," says the Executive Board, "have not kept pace with the cost of living, and in some instances have been reduced; they have been required to deal in company stores and accept the services of the company's doctor; they have been required to accept wages based upon an antiquated sliding scale that invariably slides downward; they have had their wages reduced by an arbitrary and exorbitant system of dockage; they have been compelled to wait for their pay weeks after the time specified by law." All these grievances are susceptible of proof or disproof; and while it is not possible for even the most liberal and fair-minded employer to raise wages by his mere volition, it may sometimes be necessary for him to show to the satisfaction of the public why he cannot do so. When a great calamity is impending which involves the wellbeing of the whole community, every person who is concerned in producing it is put upon the defensive. All are bound to show that they have justice on their side, or at all events that they are powerless to avert the threatened danger. These considerations point to the need of some arbitration of the questions in dispute which shall satisfy the public mind. The Mine Workers' committee say that they have sought arbitration and that it has been refused.

The investigation by the Police Commissioners into the charges of brutality on the part of the police towards negroes during the recent race troubles on the West Side began on Friday, and was conducted in exactly the way that was to have been expected. The Tammany chairman who conducted the proceedings was arbitrary and overbearing in his attitude towards the colored man who was clubbed and kicked in a station-house; and the Tammany Chief of Police did his best to intimidate subordinates who might have testified to the facts. Altogether the performance was transformed from its nominal purpose to fix the responsibility for a shameful breach of duty, into a hardly concealed attempt to whitewash the New York Police Department, and hold up to ridicule anybody presumptuous enough to question its immaculate purity. Such a performance ought to shock and surprise the city, but the people are too much accustomed to this sort of thing at the hands of Tammany to get excited over it.

Washington dispatches indicate that the Administration is now inclining towards the policy of withdrawing from Pekin, let the other Powers go or stay. This is a veering of the weather-cock towards the right quarter. When the Russian note stated that "the purpose for which the various Governments have coöperated for the relief of the legations in Pekin *has been accomplished*," and that the next thing to do was to recall the troops, our Government replied effusively that it was in "accord" with "the frank declarations of Russia." It did, indeed, add something about "a general withdrawal" being desirable, and said that "we shall give instructions to the commander of the American forces in China to withdraw our troops," unless there developed "a general expression of the Powers in favor of continued occupation." This left us comfortably pointing north by south, and the needle has since swung between "No scuttle!" and "America stands alone!" We do not know what influences now move the President to press on evacuation. Be they partisan or patriotic, however, they are urging him in the direction of sound policy. Every day that we stay will make departure the harder and more improbable. It is said we must remain in Pekin to provide against remote contingencies. But in such matters, as Sir George Lewis said of the English occupation of Egypt, "Cure is better than prevention." As he warned English statesmen then, so may we now say to American, "By providing in advance against all possible evils, you saddle yourselves with unnecessary and crushing responsibilities, instead of leaving yourselves a free hand to meet each evil as it arises."

Criticism of the Kaiser is risky enough, and the German press reviews his sermons and orations under the shadow of a very palpable penalty for *Majestätsbeleidigung*. Under such circumstances, it is interesting to note how generally the more independent German editors have expressed disapproval of their sovereign as a homilist, and how insistently they have urged upon him the grace of silence. No subtler criticism of the Emperor as orator has appeared than that of the Liberal leader, Dr. Theodor Barth, in *Die Nation*. In view of the Kaiser's continued activity as an orator, the nation, says Dr. Barth, must assume a definite attitude towards its sovereign in that capacity. The doctrine of royal infallibility, he asserts, is defensible only through the interposition between monarch and people of a responsible Ministry, freely open to criticism. Any expression of opinion made otherwise than through the Ministry or without its prior consent is, on the Kaiser's part, extra-imperial, and merely personal. To such "heart-to-heart talks" the nation must, out of courtesy, lend a respectful and sympathetic hearing, with the reservation, however, of all rights of criticism and of dissent. In a word, Dr. Barth feels that the Kaiser, in his various speeches and sermons, puts off his awful and inviolable majesty, and becomes simply the frank and outspoken friend of the people. The analogy with the doctrine of papal infallibility is obvious. Leo XII. *qua* Pope can do no wrong, though as plain Signor Pecci he is liable to error, like the rest of us. Wilhelm II., with his Hohenzollern notions of the divine right of kings, will hardly relish this doctrine. It is to be hoped, however, that Dr. Barth's very amiable theory may not constitute cause for a prosecution for *lèse-majesté*.

Belgium had the best will in the world to get into the Chinese imbroglio; and with good right enough, for she had large commercial interests at stake, and, like the other Powers, a Minister in peril. It was natural, therefore, that she should set about raising a volunteer legion for service in China. The recruiting of this legion was complete, and the volunteers' last farewells to some thousands of Flemish maidens were in progress, when a diplomatic note from the German Minister for Foreign Affairs dashed all Belgian hopes of treading the path of glory in China. Herr von Bülow pointed out that the Powers really stood in no need of Belgian reinforcements, implying that Germany would do the Attila business handsomely herself, and that little neutralized Powers like Belgium had better keep out of the mess entirely. The Belgian Government broke the news somewhat tardily to the volunteers, which was most impolitic; for emotions keyed up to red war now find vent against an Administration which lacked the grace to let its heroes down easily, and the Ministry must answer the volunteers in Parliament. It is undoubtedly a sentimental hardship that a nation eager to bear the white man's burden should be snubbed in its dearest aspirations, but as the concert of the Powers more and more jangles out of tune, the feeling may grow among the concerted Powers, even, that Belgium is well out of it all.

The Boers go on showing a most inconsiderate disregard of Mr. Chamberlain's electoral plans. If they would only lay down their arms and promise to be good, he would have Parliament dissolved and a general election under way in a trice. But the art of graceful surrender seems to have died out of the world. Capital after capital of Boer, Filipino, and Chinaman has been taken, yet the obstinate beggars pay no attention to the rules of war or to the wishes of their conquerors. This is really an unneighborly course. How can you live at peace with people who keep on fighting after you have them thoroughly whipped? Especially how can elections be carried in a blaze of military glory if the "pacified" Philippines will insist upon fresh insurrections, and if the Transvaal burghers, beaten in one city, flee to another? There will have to be new rules of international law to the effect that when a victorious general asks his opponent to surrender unconditionally, so that the "party" may be helped to carry an election, the request may be refused only on peril of outlawry. In Canada, Sir Wilfrid Laurier has to wait only to see if the crops are good before he dissolves and goes to the country. This, however, is simplicity itself compared with the labor of appealing to the electors on the strength of complete victory in South Africa or the Philippines, and then having that victory all the while flitting like a will-o'-the-wisp to the next mountain or morass.

The latest budget of "King Dick" (not an American boss, but the Hon. Richard Seddon, Prime Minister of New Zealand) shows a surplus of $2,500,000, the total receipts being estimated at $38,000,000. His exposition of the financial status of his commonwealth of less than a million souls shows that its practice of state socialism for the past seven years has neither ruined the country, as some predicted it would, nor yet brought on the millennium prematurely. Mr. Seddon himself does not now predict so many and such sweeping benefits from the programme of "practical socialism" as he did in 1893. If the laws for the protection of labor and the regulation of wages and the prevention of strikes have not frightened capital away from New Zealand nor killed industry, they have not, on the other hand, extinguished discontent among the working classes, or essentially changed human nature. Like most legislative panaceas, socialism by statute in New Zealand is found, after a period of years, to leave things very much as they were. It is always to be remembered, too, that experiments in a new state, with a scanty population and vast reserves of land, do not necessarily prove anything for older countries. One of the best fruits of New Zealand institutions is Prime Minister Seddon himself—a man who, from the lowliest origins, has risen by sheer force of ability to the head of the state—"King Dick," as he is affectionately called.

MR. M'KINLEY ON THE DEFENSIVE.

The President, in his letter of acceptance, shows that he, too, considers Imperialism "the paramount issue of the campaign." Gov. Roosevelt contemptuously dismisses it as a bogey with which to frighten children; President McKinley devotes to it three-quarters of his long and labored letter. He is too shrewd a politician to write six and a half columns about an issue if it were really, as his leading supporters have gone up and down the land asserting, non-existent. Here, then, is one result of Bryan's bold and eloquent speech at Indianapolis. It has stung McKinley into a reply—that is, it has drawn him out of his intrenchments to give battle on the ground where his opponent prefers to fight. Whatever strategic advantage lies with the candidate who makes and forces the great issue, is tacitly accorded by the President in this campaign to his antagonist. Mr. McKinley begins his fight with an apologia which will dismay his most ardent followers by its enormous length.

Singling out only a few of the points in it which challenge comment, we must begin by sweeping away all that the President says about "duty." That word, in Mr. McKinley's mouth, all the world now knows to mean one of two things. He sometimes uses it of the thing he would like to do, provided it hurt nobody's feelings; sometimes of the thing he was compelled against his will to do. He gives us a handy glossary of his usage of the word in this very letter. His instructions to the Paris Commissioners were, he says, to the effect that our national "moral obligation" was, in settling the terms of peace with Spain, to avoid all "ambition of conquest." There was "duty." But how did the Commissioners understand it? One of them, Senator Frye, in a public speech in Philadelphia on March 18 last, said that he went to Paris determined on "taking all we could get." He added that when the Commissioners telegraphed to the President their ultimatum to the Spanish members, "he cabled back a reply that it was eminently satisfactory to him." It is a great help to the correct understanding of McKinleyese to have it thus certified that, in the President's vocabulary, "duty" means "taking all we could get."

Mr. McKinley affects an air of great frankness in citing from some official documents not hitherto published. He is going to "show to my countrymen what has been and is being done" in the Philippines. To this end he quotes from his instructions to the Peace Commissioners. When the Senate asked for these instructions, they were refused, on the ground that it would be "incompatible with the public interest" to make them public. Now, in party interest, they are unveiled—but in what form? Evidently in a garbled form. The marks of hiatus and omission are upon the face of the printed version. Why did not the President, professing to make a clean breast of it with his admiring and confiding fellow-countrymen, tell the whole story? Was it because his first instructions were not to take the Philippines? It has been openly asserted, and never authoritatively denied, that such was the tenor of his original policy. The mutilated document which Mr. McKinley now gives out looks very much as if this were entirely true; as if the President were as sure in August, 1898, that "plain duty" required us to get out of the Philippines, as he was in December, 1899, that it commanded us to give Porto Rico free trade; and as if powerful commercial interests turned him about in one case, as in the other.

At any rate, the President's publication of such parts of the secret archives as suit his partisan purposes, serves to remind us once more of the studied care with which full knowledge has been kept from the people. The Administration has all the cards up its sleeve, and plays only those that it chooses. Just think of it—the foreign correspondence of 1897 and 1898 has not yet been published! The country is in the throes of an election over the results of the war with Spain, and has not yet been permitted to read the diplomatic notes which preceded it! Some extracts were published in Madrid, and they were enough to make Americans hang their heads at the incredible duplicity or unequalled weakness which was revealed in our Government. But the whole story has not yet been set forth. Why not? Why did not the President publish his instructions to the Paris Commissioners in full? His suppressions invite the worst interpretations. They certainly show that his pretence of taking the people into his confidence is hollow. Bent on giving the Filipinos only so much liberty as he thinks is good for them, he is apparently determined to give Americans only so much information as he thinks will be good for them—and for him.

A large part of Mr. McKinley's defence is an iteration of twice-told tales. Into these we cannot follow him in bestowing his tediousness upon the reader. Some of his new ingenuities of misstatement about the Philippines we shall have to leave for later exposure. But what a lamentable showing the whole story is, he himself being witness! What Mr. Olney has bitingly called Mr. McKinley's "stupid and tactless" policy in the Philippines, forces itself through all his smooth and plausible words. A war of humanity turned into cruelties greater than those against which we took up arms; blunder upon blunder; a long record of hope deferred and prophecies unfulfilled; the American name made a hissing where it had been the symbol of hope; even Spain jeering at us for mistakes huger than her own; the Republican party compelled to writhe under the whip of Republican professions and watchwords of other days now applied to its own back—this is really the great ugly fact that Mr. McKinley tries to cover up with a deluge of words. Has he not, by his renewed assertion that Destiny is responsible for all this pitiable record, this indelible shame, taken his rank with those "modern prophets" described by Meredith, "who summon Destiny to strike without a preparation of her weapons or a warning to the victim"?

THE THIRD-PARTY PROTEST.

The gentlemen who put a third Presidential ticket in nomination in this city on September 5, were under no illusions concerning the immediate practical result of their action. They leave to politicians the mouthing of great claims. It is not numbers but a principle for which they stand. Be the votes many or few, there is their profession of political faith, there is the cause to which, whatever others may do, they give hand, heart, and suffrage. Nor, on the other hand, are they afraid to be few. They are not of those who are "ever strong upon the stronger side." All purely moral movements begin with Isaiah's "remnant," and whereunto they may grow their first promoters do not stop to inquire. In the face of enormous numerical odds they are as light of heart as the Welshman, David Gam, who, when asked by King Henry at Agincourt how many French there were in the field, stoutly answered, "Enow to be killed, enow to be made prisoners, and enow to run away!"

If there seems to be more morals than politics in this third-party movement, so much the worse for politics. The Philistines of either party will jeer at a handful of college professors who resolutely say they will have neither part nor lot in the mixture of issues, good and bad, and the repellent personalities put forward by Democrats and Republicans; but don't they wish they might enlist such earnestness and enthusiasm? The very sneer is a confession of the base condition into which the two great parties have brought American politics this year. If the party managers could point, as they have been able to in other days, to the best minds and finest moral zeal of the land arrayed with them in a noble passion for political reform, they would not be so distressed at the sight of a small band of intellectual men parting company with them. They know in their hearts that the few stand for many; that the expressed disgust of the manœuvrings and trickery of the two great parties is representative of a vastly greater unuttered disgust; that the competition in evil which has come to mark partisan politics has created widespread and profound dissatisfaction. A flood of unsolicited letters which have come to us from some of the bravest and best of the land, have witnessed to the extent and depth of the feeling among honest men in both parties that they have been betrayed by politicians, who would deliberately shut them up to a choice of evils.

It is as a way of escape for the righteously discontented that the third ticket has a good part of its serviceableness. Here is a *tertium quid*, here is an articulate moral protest, a welcome alternative to that entire abstention from voting which would otherwise have been the only refuge for many who refuse to be taken in the snare of either McKinley or Bryan. It is something to have given such men an opportunity to exercise the freeman's right. It is an achievement to have offered a positive good as a substitute for the politician's choice of evils. If the bosses have their way, voting will soon be reduced to a smelling-match to see which egg offered to voters is the least addled. A great many citizens would like political food good in itself, not simply by comparison.

It may be said that the platform of principles adopted by the third-party movement is not so precise and trenchant as it should have been. To this it might well be replied, in the words of the Parliamentary orator who was called to order, "The Speaker failed to appreciate the force and the energy, the justifiable force and energy, of the language which I kept back." Only general principles, only condensed assertions of policy, could advantageously be adopted. The principles are perfectly sound, and include precisely the ones in demand by those who rebel at the hopeless assembling of contradictories in the two party platforms. The recovery and reaffirmation of a republican form of government; the gold standard and a sound banking system; civil-service reform and the abolition of all class legislation—right worthy ends are all these. Out of the jumble of party deliverances, the platform of the new National party seizes all that is good and rejects all that is bad. If to assert such a political profession of faith is to injure either Democrat or Republican, whose fault is it but their own?

And we must not fail to notice one great difference between this latest platform and those which have preceded it. In Senator Caffery we have a man whose character is a guarantee that the thing which he says, that he will perform. He has sacrificed his political career to his convictions. Against his party, against his State, he has stood firm for what he believed to be right. Such a man would not treat a party platform as a juggler's hat, out of which, in the manner of McKinley, to draw all sorts of surprises. He would not go about the country making declarations which would leave his hearers in doubt, as Bryan does, if his passion for liberty were not simulated, or unconsciously histrionic. What we have long needed is character in the candidate to match and assure the promises of the platform. No one can deny that we have such a happy combination in Mr. Caffery and the declaration of principles upon which he is nominated for the Presidency.

Considering the movement, then, in the light of a moral protest, in which clear-eyed and strong-hearted men may join with cheerful assurance of that practical defeat which has so often meant ideal victory, we cannot but commend it. It is a sign that the political conscience is not seared. For the present a protest merely, it may in the future prove a great hope. That we must leave to the future, certain only that it is always right and wise to assert the truth and do the duty which lie next to hand in the present. And of the ultimate triumph of liberty over those who would subvert it, either at home or in distant islands, we can have no more doubt than Emerson, who, aristocrat by intellect and democrat by sympathy and conviction that he was, recorded his belief that

> "He that worketh high and wise,
> Nor pauses in his plan,
> Will take the sun out of the skies
> Ere freedom out of man."

PLATT AND ROOSEVELT NOW.

Brushing aside all minor and unimportant features of the Republican State Convention, its main outstanding result is the triumph of the Platt idea over the Roosevelt idea in the Republican politics of New York. The boss, in other words, has completely extinguished the influence of the reforming Rough Rider. All those quasi-promises made at Philadelphia to Roosevelt's friends that his successor in the Governorship should be a man after his own heart, are now shown to be the dicer's oaths that the discerning perceived them to be at the time. What blunt and honest men will now say all over the State, in view of the dénouement of the farce which Platt has kept on the stage for three months, is simply this: "Well, it was true, then. Platt had determined to get rid of Roosevelt. He wished a Governor whom he could say that he owned, body and breeches. Such a man he has now nominated."

We do not blame Platt for scheming to make himself supreme. He is simply acting after his kind. It is of the nature of a tyrant to brook no dissent or opposition. Not every arbitrary ruler, however, has Platt's astuteness and patience in waiting for the hour to strike to free him from an insubordinate servant. If it is genius to do the best possible with the material in hand, then Platt is a boss of genius. He put up with Roosevelt's eccentricities of reform with infinite long-suffering. The reason was that he could afford to smile grimly and wait. Roosevelt was placing his popularity at the service of the machine, and it was only a question of time when the machine would be strong enough to crush him. If Platt has had any one guiding thought during the past year, it has been to stamp out Roosevelt and all his works. He could explain his conduct as Victor Hugo explained his votes in the French Chamber: "I am guided by this little gentleman in spectacles facing you. As we are invariably of a different opinion, I remain seated if he gets up, and when he remains seated, I get up on trust." Steadily opposed to all that Roosevelt and his friends stood for in the Republican party, Platt has steadily worked to compass their undoing. That is now assured. The last taint of independence and reform is removed from the Republican party in New York. "The party? 'Tis myself," says Platt openly.

To show what a terrible flouting the reforming Republicans have received at Platt's hands, it is necessary to take only their own account of the case. Roosevelt himself said last May that his good work in this State was but begun. He needed another term as Governor to advance it. Therefore, it was his "duty" to refuse the Vice-Presidential nomination. But he had made party fealty a higher obligation than mere duty, and Platt cleverly manipulated things so that the Governor had to take the nomination which he had sworn he would not, or else incur the (to him) frightful odium of not being obedient to party. But even after that first successful trick was played on Roosevelt, he and his friends continued to talk about the bright outlook for a continuance of reform Republican politics in this State. Gen. Greene or President Low would succeed Roosevelt at Albany. At any rate, a "man of his type" would lead the party. Roosevelt's newspaper organs were sure of this. They entered upon that comic phase, so regularly to be observed in them six weeks before the Convention, of reasoning with Platt, expostulating with him, even solemnly warning him of the danger of defeat if he nominated a machine Governor. But the boss let all these legions thunder by, and went on quietly maturing his own plans. What he was all along aiming at and working for is now revealed to all the world, and is, as we have said, a Republican party boss-owned and boss-ridden, with every snivelling reformer cast into the outer darkness.

The incredible thing, however, remains to be told. Roosevelt not only is dragged at Platt's chariot wheels, but professes to like that position in the boss's triumphal procession. He has the effrontery, for we can call it no less, to ascribe Odell's nomination to the "irresistible" demand of Republican voters.

In an ordinary politician, standing for office, we might excuse this—might pass it by as one of the recognized modes of "supporting your party" by inventing fictions in its behalf which impose upon nobody. But Gov. Roosevelt is an educated man, professing to be bound by the highest standards of truth and honor. As such, it is his duty to see the thing as it is, and to declare what he sees. And he must know, as everybody knows, that his "irresistible demand" for Odell is a gross exaggeration. If he means the demand of the "organization," it is true. If he means the demand of the citizens upon whom the party relies for its majority in the coming election, it is not true. Mr. Odell has, indeed, the qualities that go to the making of a party boss of the prevailing type. He is the man who would naturally step into Platt's shoes if Platt were out of the way. He is a man of the machine, in whom all the lesser machine men have perfect confidence. The men who "run" conventions never had a candidate more to their liking. A ludicrous illustration of his power among them was afforded in the Convention when the presiding officer called on Senator Depew to nominate the candidate for Lieutenant-Governor before the Convention had voted on the nominee for Governor. It was assumed that Odell was nominated without taking a vote. While all this is true, there has been no irresistible demand for Odell in the sense that Roosevelt implies, or in the sense that there was for Roosevelt himself two years ago. In the latter case the demand came from the voters in such strength that the machine dared not oppose it. Now the demand comes from the machine, and the great mass of the voters are either suspicious or indifferent.

To all thinking citizens of the State, Platt's success in sloughing off Roosevelt and what he has represented in the way of better politics, will seem a huge calamity. But they will not think to the best effect if they do not reflect on Roosevelt's own share in his expulsion from the office he really desired, and in which he might have been an eminently useful servant of the State. It will be a woful falling off from Roosevelt to Odell, but the one man who might have prevented it is Roosevelt himself. With more real civic courage to lead the people in a fight against the boss—a courage, we may add, of a finer and higher sort than that required to charge up a dozen San Juan hills—he might not only have remained Governor, but have been that champion for whom Americans are looking in the fated struggle against the tyranny of machine politics.

REGULATION OF THE LOBBY.

The question of the lobby and its relation to legislative bodies is again brought before the public, through the nomination for Governor by the Connecticut Republicans of a man who was openly charged on the floor of the convention hall with "well-known activity in the lobby of the Legislature." In his protest against the selection of such a candidate one speaker asked, "Can any one with candor in his heart say that his connection with the legislation of this State for the past fifteen years, with its dark and still unwritten history, is such as to make his candidacy other than a source of grave peril to the whole ticket?" The fact that Mr. McLean has had a great deal to do with legislation without being a member of the Legislature is conceded by his friends; their defence is that such connection was legitimate.

Every session of Congress brings fresh complaints of lobbying, which increase as the closing days come on. All good citizens agree that there is much which is discreditable and even disgraceful about lobbying, as it is now practised, whether at Hartford or in Washington; yet some of the best men in Congress are of opinion that a lobby of the right sort is a useful and convenient adjunct to legislation in these days of overwork and hurry. No less distinguished a lawmaker than ex-Speaker Reed of Maine, when he was in the House, used to say that there were no terrors for him in a call from a lobbyist, and that he was always willing to go out and see one, unless he had reason to believe the man a rascal. "If any person can tell me more about a pending bill than I know already," he would ask, "why should it be my duty to shun him?" All Mr. Reed insisted upon was that the lobbyist should be clean-handed, stick to his legitimate business, and hold his interviews with Congressmen outside of the legislative chambers.

Fifty years ago there may not have been any need of even such a lobby as Mr. Reed had in mind, since the task of legislation was then far less complex. But the continual increase in the number and variety of topics with which Congress has to deal, makes it impossible for any member to keep abreast of his work with only his personal store of knowledge to draw upon. The number of bills which explain themselves is comparatively small, after one leaves the domain of mere routine legislation. There are boundaries to be rectified, where a public survey has trespassed upon private property; there are taxes to be returned, after erroneous collection; there are sometimes righteous distinctions to be drawn between the individual beneficiaries or victims of general legislation. On all these points the most intelligent members welcome guidance, and no discredit need attach to the work of instructing them; and, besides being shown what to do and how to do it, they need frequent prodding to keep them up to their duty.

The worst feature of existing lobby conditions at Washington is the lack of any visible distinction between the reputable and the disreputable lobby. The only recognized definition of a lobbyist is a person who, from the outside, tries to influence legislation concerning a private or special interest. It is hard to say by just what test we shall distinguish, from a legislative point of view, between a general and a special interest. And since not every special interest before Congress is bad, or every general interest worthy, each case must be judged on its own merits, and the same discrimination should be exercised between the lobby champions of both classes of measures. The lobbyist who, for a fee, will work for a bill which he believes to be bad, stands upon the same plane as the attorney who makes mere merchandise of his license to practise before the courts. But we do not disbar a lawyer because, where he does not consider that any taint or wrong attaches to a case, he accepts a retainer for presenting its best side to judge and jury.

Here we touch the real essence of the lobby question. Why should not Congress, for its own protection, if for no other motive, establish a legislative bar, with standards as high in their way as those of the bar of the Supreme Court of the United States? The State of Massachusetts enacted in 1890 a law "relating to the employment of legislative counsel and agents," and has once or twice since amended it. The President of the American Bar Association, in his address at its recent annual meeting, endorsed this statute, and commended the action of the last Maryland Legislature in passing a law modelled upon the Bay State's example. The essence of the Massachusetts law is publicity. It requires the sergeant-at-arms to keep two dockets. In one must be entered the names of counsel employed to appear before committees, as well as of those who make a specialty of certain branches of legislation; in the other, the names of the agents employed for any general purpose in promoting or opposing legislation; and in both must be given the names and addresses of employers and employed, the date and term and character of the employment, and other important particulars. If a person combines the work of counsel with that of agent, he must advertise the fact by appearing in both dockets. Counsel and agents must file, in connection with the entry of their names in the dockets, credentials for their authority, signed with the full names and business addresses of their employers. Punishment for wrongdoing by any counsel or agent involves disbarment for at least three years, together with a fine of from $100 to $1,000; and any employer who fails to meet any of the provisions of the law, including a sworn statement of the expenses incurred by him in promoting or opposing legislation, is subject to a similar fine.

The testimony of disinterested critics, who are in a position to watch the working of the Massachusetts law, is that it has operated in the interest of clean legislation, and that it has diminished the number and raised the grade of men constituting the "third house." Its chief fault, according to the same authority, is that it does not reach far enough; for it provides no initiative on the part of the State's officers to call to account persons who are suspected of illicit dabbling in legislation from the outside, and it is also open to evasion in various ways. The puzzle is how to make the law more effective without infringing upon the rights of the public. Still, no one can deny that it gives reputable men an opportunity to engage in a useful pursuit which many now avoid for fear of inferentially smirching their good names. The man who, in defiance of such a law, plies his trade as a lobbyist without registration, brands himself as at least a potential rascal. The statute may not furnish the police authorities with the means of punishing him; but he cannot escape the moral pillory, and his disgrace will be shared by every legislator who is seen in his company.

THE RUSSIANS IN MANTCHURIA.

HARBIN, June 23, 1900.

The Chinese Eastern Railway is already almost an accomplished fact. It is not three years since that its survey was commenced. At the present time trains are running over more than a thousand miles of its various lines, and the remaining eight hundred are well along towards completion. The rapidity of its construction is the marvel of modern enterprise. Its completion means the ultimate possession by Russia of the fairest portion of the disintegrating Chinese Empire and the firm establishment of the Muscovite power on the Pacific Coast. Vladivostok is ice-bound during the winter months. Port Arthur is one of the finest naval stations in the world, and commands the entrance to the very capital of China.

I have just made the trip over the section of the railway from Port Arthur to Harbin, a distance of 600 miles. For four hundred miles we availed ourselves of construction trains. For the remaining two hundred we were driven to the use of Chinese carts drawn by mules. From Port Arthur to New-Chwang, at the head of the Gulf of Lao-Tung, the road runs along the southern base of the range of mountains forming the Lao-Tung peninsula, of which Port Arthur forms the nose. The mountains are bare of verdure, and have the general bluish-gray color so predominant in the Rocky Mountains. The peaks rarely rise more than 3,000 or 4,000 feet above the sea, and uniformly reveal the outlines of long-continued erosion. Conical forms abound, and the entire sky line is graceful and picturesque in the extreme. The arable land is fertile, and the occasional glimpses of the sea add a charm that for tourists will make it rival in attraction the ride from Florence to Genoa in Italy.

From New-Chwang to Mukden, a distance of about one hundred miles, the railway runs along the eastern margin of the fertile valley of the Lao River. This valley is about one hundred miles wide, and forms an extension of the Lao-Tung Gulf, which has been filled by the rich sediment brought down by the river during long geological ages. Being well watered, its fertility is of the highest order. To the east of this plain the mountain chain continues without interruption and with all its varied beauty of outline. North of Mukden the valley narrows to a width of about forty miles, with a low range of mountains skirting the western horizon. Otherwise the scene remains substantially unchanged for thirty miles until reaching Te-lin, the present terminus of the completed portion of this section of the railway. But here, for the first time, the mountains become covered with green, indicating a region of greater and more equable rainfall. Shortly to the north of Te-lin, also, the western mountains disappear, and one looks out in that direction upon a plain which merges insensibly into what is marked on the maps as the Eastern Gobi Desert. But it is far from being a desert. Throughout, it is deeply covered with rich alluvial soil, and along the eastern border traversed by the railway it is well watered, and supports in affluence a dense population.

It was along this unfinished section of the road that we travelled for two hundred miles in Chinese carts. The mountains which had formed our eastern limit of vision for 300 miles still appeared above the horizon, but gradually receded as we approached the Sungari River, until from this point they are a series of blue specks scarcely distinguishable from the sky. We were told by the stately Cossack Colonel at Te-lin that as we went north the country grew more and more monotonous, but the increasing monotony has been that of unparalleled richness and fertility. On passing the low watershed separating the streams running into the Sea of Okhotsk from those emptying into the China Sea, we are evidently in an old lake bed like that in the basin of the Red River of the North, forming the great wheat area of Minnesota, North Dakota, and Manitoba. Alluvium covers everything to a depth of a hundred feet. The scenery is that of the prairies of Illinois and Iowa, and the fertility is in every respect equal. Not less than 10,000 square miles of this prairie region have come directly under our eye, and from inquiry it is certain that four times as much is equally well situated. It is only when one gets more than a hundred miles to the west that the rain is scanty, and even there it is sufficient to make good grazing country.

Every acre of the broad eastern belt traversed by us is under careful cultivation. There are no fences. Everything is planted in rows and kept free from weeds. As we passed through, during the middle of June, the fields were fairly alive with companies of from ten to twenty men at work in a place hoeing the growing grain of various sorts. The most frequent crops are of millet, sorghum, beans, wheat, hemp, indigo, and the poppy. The whole belt is a continuous garden. When the railway is completed, nothing can be more pleasing than a ride through these fields during the months of July, August, and September. Nor is this an exceptional year of fertility. Everywhere there is the appearance of thrift and contentment. Noble groves of trees appear at frequent intervals, enclosing the dwelling-places both of the living and of the dead. The houses are in good repair, and generally supplied with generous stacks of sorghum stalks for wind-breaks and fuel. Sorghum, by the way, is perhaps the most important of all the productions of the region. But it is not the sugar-producing variety. Its seed furnishes food for the working animals, while its stalks are woven into the walls of their houses and laid upon the roofs preparatory to the necessary covering of mud to protect from cold and moisture; and as fuel it is almost as good as wood. At present, indigo and opium form the most important staples of export.

In obtaining practical possession of Mantchuria, Russia has not only won its long-coveted military vantage-ground on the Pacific, but it has acquired one of the richest provinces of the world, already possessing a population larger than that of New England, New York, and Pennsylvania combined. The single district of Lao-Tung has 12,000,000 inhabitants. The total area of the province is 390,000 square miles. But, though the mass of the population is collected in the central portion penetrated by the railways, the extensive mountainous regions on both the eastern and the western borders contain vast undeveloped mineral resources and valuable forest areas. The railway is sure at once to have a large and profitable local traffic. Tens of thousands of mules now engaged in hauling the surplus products of the interior to New-Chwang, over the most horrible roads in the world, will at once resign in favor of the steam engine; new industries will arise as soon as exchange is facilitated; and, if the Mantchus are like the Japanese and the Chinese about Pekin, they will be induced by low fares to crowd the local trains for short trips to and fro upon the line.

As a military measure, the value of the railway is apparent on a slight inspection of the map. By it the Trans-Baikal is brought into direct connection with an open port on the Pacific in the latitude of Washington. Harbin, the "solar plexus" of the system, situated on the Sungari River, is about equally distant from Port Arthur, Vladivostok, and the border of Trans-Baikalia, while good river navigation connects it with the ocean through the Amur during the summer months. From this point the railway is being constructed outwards in three directions, while construction is in progress inwards from the three termini. Within less than a year the whole line will be opened and 100,000 troops could be transferred from Vladivostok, on interior lines, to the vicinity of Pekin in a few days, while within two weeks another 100,000 could be brought into the same field from the heart of Russia. As a land force, Russia will then be supreme in the Far East. As a naval Power, she will also have the advantage of possessing two capacious and invulnerable harbors in close communication with all the internal resources of the Empire.

To this condition of things the philanthropist surely cannot object. For Russia will surely introduce into the region a higher civilization, and in the wake of her rule will spring up better established order and the prosperity sure to attend it. To obtain this position was a part of her national destiny. No self-respecting Russian could think of resting until this end was attained. It is not likely that Russia's ambition will seek for more. G. FREDERICK WRIGHT.

THE PARIS EXHIBITION.—IX.

THE SCULPTURE.

LONDON, August, 1900.

The drawback to art exhibitions, as a rule, is that the artist's work must necessarily be shown under entirely artificial conditions. A painting designed to decorate, perhaps, a dark corner in a church, hangs on the wall of a gallery in the merciless exposure of a top light; a statue intended to ornament the façade of a building is placed among a hundred others in an open court with as much thought for arrangement as there is for the tombs in a cemetery. Again and again you feel the injustice to the artist of criticising either the picture or the statue until you can see it where and how he meant, from the beginning, it should be seen. Now, in Paris, as I have said, this drawback has been done away with to a certain extent. Whenever possible, the artist has adorned the buildings with his paintings, or mosaics, or sculptures. The result is, without question, interesting. But, while it helps one to form some idea of the general character and tendency of the painter's and sculptor's work in France to-day, it often makes the study of individual performance very difficult, and this difficulty I felt especially in the case of the sculpture.

If you enter by the Porte Monumentale, you will find the long avenue leading to the Palais des Beaux-Arts lined on either side by statues. More statues are placed in front of the two palaces, where it is with pleasure you note the prominence given to Mr. St. Gaudens and Mr. MacMonnies. Sculpture forms an important part of the scheme of decoration of both buildings and of the bridge; it completes the design of several of the foreign pavilions along the Seine; it is a feature of the exhibits in other pavilions and in the Palaces of the Industrial Arts. In a word, you can hardly go anywhere in the grounds that you do not come upon examples of the sculptor's art. And not only this: in the Grand Palais, though the large court is reserved for the Decennial Collection, and the charming smaller circular court in the Avenue d'Antin wing of the building for the Centennial, much of the sculpture is scattered through the picture galleries, where it adds materially to the decorative effect, but also not a little to the confusion of the student! It seems impossible not to overlook many things that do not deserve to be overlooked, not to lose something of your sense of proportion in the course of wandering from one end of the huge enclosure to the other—and even further, if you visit M. Rodin's special exhibition. But however much may be missed, however bewildered you may find yourself at times, there can be no doubt of the impression left by the collection, inside and out of the Grand Palais, as a whole. It is one of wonder at the immense skill and facility of the modern French sculptor, and the perverse conception of the end and object of the art to which his technical accomplishment has led him. Surely, since Lessing, in the 'Laokoon,' laid down the law of moderation in xpression, never has that moderation been so sinned against as at the present day. It is the flamboyancy, the exaggeration, the restlessness of modern sculpture that is its weakness.

Classicism, with all its faults, all its chilling influence, at least kept the artist within bounds. It allowed no scope for the expression of emotions, whether sham or real. The little circular court may leave you cold and unresponsive, but the general effect is one of dignity and repose. The Romantic movement, however, made for extremes, it encouraged the emotional. From Barye, with his animals, to Rodin, the sculptor of emotion, as he might be called, there is more and more action and movement. Dramatic feeling begins to be prized above beautiful form, until in the younger men restraint, evidently, would be looked upon as a sign of feebleness. M. Rodin's famous Balzac proved to what mistaken lengths the very greatest may be drawn. In M. Frémiet, as he is represented in the Centennial Collection, you are still more conscious of the struggle; he can be as restrained as anybody in a statue like the dignified little "Porte-falot à cheval, au XV^{e} Siècle," that has much of the charm and distinction of the Jeanne d'Arc in the Place des Pyramides. But in his prehistoric groups, his prowling gorillas and young elephants, he oversteps the line, and seems to be vying with the innumerable artists of the moment who seek applause by violence of action and immoderation of expression. However, what appears to be excessive here, would be reticence itself in the larger court. Probably because space was limited, the earlier work has been chosen with much discretion. All the best-known men of the century—Rude, Barye, Falguière, Frémiet, Rodin, Carriès, Barrias, Mercié—have their place; but the multitude who, for years, filled the huge court of the Palais de l'Industrie to overflowing, are excluded, and, as a result, there is in this Centennial series comparatively little of the exaggeration that elsewhere offends you at every step.

You have but to pass down the wide hall that connects the circular with the large court, to realize the difference. At once, you are in a wilderness of squirming figures and twisted and tortured bodies, all in attitudes that could not be retained for a minute, and all, in defiance of Lessing, fairly screaming and shrieking at you for notice. The truth is, the sculptor is submitted to no less severe a competition than the painter. Notice is what he craves at any cost, and he, too, hopes to win it by turning out his Salon or Exposition *machine*, only in marble, or plaster, or bronze, instead of in paint. Everywhere, on all sides, you are confronted with this same over-emphasis in action, in expression, in composition. Perhaps the competition is really harder for the sculptor, whose initial expenses are heavier than the painter's, but the demand for whose work is less; and the tendency to exaggeration, to eccentricity of one kind or another that shall attract attention to his ability—and he usually is able—grows upon him. The worst of it is, in the end, that all but the greatest are influenced by this new and ever-growing pandemonium of inappropriateness that seems to be mistaken by the modern Frenchman for sculpture. Even M. Bartholomé cannot wholly escape. His monument to the dead, already seen at the Champ-de-Mars, is probably the most solemn work, the most severe in intention, in the entire French exhibit. I have already noticed it in writing of the Salon, and pointed out the grandeur in the very simplicity of the composition: the open door in the centre, with two nude figures on the threshold, the darkness of death beyond, and, on either side, groups weeping and wailing against a wide surface of uncarved stone. There is absolutely no ornament, nothing to break the severity of outline; but, as if in forced concession to public taste, in one or two of the watchers at the tomb grief is so unrestrained that you might fancy Lessing asking what it leaves to the imagination. The evil, however, is not here sufficient to mar the solemnity of the design, but it becomes more pronounced in the case of Frémiet. His "St. George Slaying the Dragon" has a delightful swagger, where the other equestrian statues are only posing and grimacing, but he has chosen the extreme moment of action; the horse rears until you have the unpleasant feeling that in another second he and his rider must topple over backwards into the coils of the dragon. What a contrast to the "Porte-falot" in the circular court! Or, again, look at the "Jeanne d'Arc" by M. Dubois, which also is simple compared to the self-conscious efforts that surround it, but there is discomfort in the very way the maid holds up her sword. The Jeanne d'Arc in the Place des Pyramides is as warlike, as martial, but there is no suggestion of fatigue in her attitude. Again, a similar tendency reveals itself in the work of M. Falguière—his last—and M. Dalou; in the jewel-like arrangements of M. Carriès, M. Rivière, and M. Charpentier, who are almost unduly preoccupied with color and the ornamental value of their materials; and so I might go through the list, adding example to example.

I confess that at moments I felt there must be right in numbers, that, where the majority were of such accord, there must be legitimate reason for doubt. And then, doubt was silenced by two works, not very far apart, that stood out as a reproach, not to all, of course, but to by far too large a proportion of the collection. One was M. Rodin's "Baiser"—for, though M. Rodin has his own exhibition and contributes to the Centennial series as well, he has spared to the modern section one of the most beautiful and simple of all his groups, almost classic in its perfection of form and loveliness of flowing line. The second was Mr. St. Gaudens's "General Sherman," too well known for me to attempt to describe it anew. But though, as seen here, I was still conscious of what seems to me to be a defect in it—the position of the fine Victory, who looks less as if leading the way than as if in immediate danger of being trampled under the horses' hoofs—nowhere have I been so impressed with the dignity and splendor of the statue: the movement expressed by just the right degree of reserve (there is no uncomfortable anticipation of the horse galloping off into space), and the figure sitting so well astride, the figure of a man born to command. As far as the sculpture is concerned, the Exposition is Mr. St. Gaudens's triumph.

The French have amiably given the American sculptors a conspicuous part of the centre of the court, and, towering above the "General Sherman," overshadowing, you might say, the unfortunate monument to

Victor Hugo that is the chief centre of all, are the two groups of horses by Mr. MacMonnies. This is one of the instances when you are more than ever convinced of the necessity of seeing a work of art, not in an exhibition gallery, but on its proper site. Even here, despite the disadvantage, there is no mistaking the astonishing vigor of modelling, the force, the strength of the two groups. But, hemmed in, as they are, by countless other statues and monuments, as florid and flamboyant as can be, they seem a little out of scale, and it is not easy to see them properly from any point of view, though they dominate the court as you come in by the main entrance or look down from the balcony. However, Mr. MacMonnies, with these, and his "Venus and Adonis," "Bacchante," and "Shakspere," among other things, proves himself, as he often has done already, one of the most powerful of modern sculptors. It must be remembered that Mr. St. Gaudens's "Shaw Memorial" is excellently placed at the head of the great stairway, that his "Puritan" is in front of the Petit Palais, and that he exhibits besides a bas-relief of an angel with a tablet, and several medallions. There is also work by Mr. Proctor and Mr. Bartlett, and, altogether, it is astonishing that, restricted in numbers as the American sculpture is, it should make the most impressive showing of all. My one regret was that Mr. French, whose work I do not know so well, should have sent nothing but his equestrian statue of Washington that stands under the portico of the insignificant American Pavilion; and that, to me, was a very serious disappointment—it may be because I expected too much.

Many of the other foreign sections can boast one or more distinguished sculptors. Great Britain suffers from the inexplicable absence of Mr. Alfred Gilbert, but there are, fortunately, characteristic contributions from Mr. Onslow Ford, Mr. Frampton, Mr. Drury, and two or three besides, all of whom, certainly in their decorative work, have had a large influence, not only in England, but on the Continent. Mr. Frampton's most important statue stands just outside the Grand Palais. Mr. Ford's tomb of Shelley is conspicuous on a lower balcony; but it can hardly be said that the English sculptors, as a group, are as impressive or reveal as much originality as the American. Belgium has Constantine Meunier, who, with the chisel, has dignified Labor as truly as Millet did with the brush. Russia has Antokolsky and Vallgren; Hungary, Zala, whose huge Archangel Gabriel and allegorical figure of Hungaria, though still more out of scale in the court of the Grand Palais than Mr. MacMonnies's horses, are so characterized by large simplicity that the chances are, when in their decorative place, they will be effective enough. But, as a rule, in the foreign sections, as in the French, extravagance prevails, and I am not sure that it does not reach its utmost limit in the work of the Danes, who, especially in the case of Willumsen, are as deliberately fantastic in their sculpture as in their painting, or in that of the Italians, more particularly of Biondi, whose "Saturnalians," with the many figures and riotous abandonment of gesture and action and expression, naturally held the crowd spellbound before it. I never passed that it was not besieged.

All this is depressing. But matters seem far worse when you come to consider the sculptures decorating the different buildings. Inside the court, the conditions offer an excuse for any apparent shortcomings. But no such excuse exists for the work that ornaments the two Palaces of the Fine Arts, the new bridge, the Salle des Fêtes, the Château d'Eau, and so many other palaces and pavilions. Statues and groups are in the architectural setting for which the sculptor knew, from the first, they were destined. And yet it is in the sculpture thus put to definite decorative use that the prevailing restlessness, the irrepressible distortions and contortions are most aggressive. Repose or restraint is all but unknown. Moderation is scarcely understood. Every outstretched arm or leg, every flying drapery, is a separate bid for your attention. It is not a mere figure of speech to say that you cannot see the Grand Palais for its decorations. The feverish haste to cover up all the buildings is particularly regrettable in the case of these permanent palaces. Every space has been as hurriedly filled as if speed were the one merit demanded. No great work has ever been done in so headlong, impetuous a fashion, nor was there any reason for this exemplary promptness. The palaces are to remain, and the Exhibition would not have suffered had all the spaces been left empty of ornament until long after its gates have closed. That the work could be finished on time is, no doubt, creditable enough from the standpoint of industry and application. But, though you may never cease to wonder at the many sculptors who are competent and accomplished craftsmen, neither can you help lamenting that, for all their accomplishment, so few should be artists. The French sculptor has the technical ability to do almost anything if only he had the supreme gift of all—the knowledge of the right thing to do. M. Rodin is one of the rare exceptions, and he is not always infallible.

N. N.

Correspondence.

AS BETWEEN McKINLEY AND BRYAN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I do not know that what I wish to say is worth your perusal, but I will offer it.

In your No. 1833 (August 16) you say, in response to a request from Mr. Francis Fisher Brown, "Our way is very simple—to refrain from voting for McKinley, etc., etc." Feeling that this will not satisfy a good many who have the welfare of our country very much at heart, I would give the following reasons for taking your advice, and then ask if it would not be well to go further than you advise and vote for Bryan.

In the first place, Mr. McKinley stands for a high and, in some important cases, a prohibitory tariff. Now, I believe that God has made of one blood all the nations of the earth, and I cannot but believe that it would be pleasing in his sight for all nations to entertain kindly feelings toward each other; that he has given to different sections of the earth different kinds of wealth, and has given different kinds of capacity to the different peoples of the earth; that a free interchange of these gifts to man is a very great promoter of good feeling. So, as a Christian, I am for coming as near to free trade as possible. As a lover of my country I denounce high tariffs as a great cause of corruption at home, enmity abroad, and injustice to the large majority of our people.

Now, as for the financial part. The Republican party is not only responsible for the legal tenders by which a debtor was for years enabled to get free of a debt contracted in good money by paying for the same in a depreciated currency, but also for the rascally use of the word "coin" on many of our bonds. Let any one follow the Republican party in its relation to the legal tenders, remember what the law now is, and ask if a greater financial heresy ever existed in the history of our country.

If my memory serves me correctly, the passage of the bill for enlarging the army was facilitated by the assertion of a member of Congress close to the President that the President would rely chiefly on volunteers, and would not resort to a draft unless compelled to. Now let our people look the matter square in the face. Are we prepared to have a conscription for the sake of holding millions of people on the other side of the earth in subjection for ever, or even until they can establish a *stable* government of their own? A *stable* government! We may flatter ourselves that we have a *stable* government. Wherein is the stability, if not in an exact adherence to the Constitution? Will it do to trust to any one's (however exalted among men) "sense of duty"?

With combinations of capital to shape its course and Rough Riders to carry out the programme, I see no hope for the country in the Republican party. The worst features in the Democratic platform have either their origin or their encouragement in what the Republicans have practised for years.

You may have thought my question about the four hundred million of silver dollars in the Treasury rather an idle one; but if you have perfect faith in their being paid out *only* in redemption of silver certificates, never mind what emergency might arise, your faith is greater than mine.

Yours truly, JAS. B. NOURSE.

WASHINGTON, D. C., September 5, 1900.

IMPERIALISM IN PORTO RICO.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In addition to those you mention, in your answer to your correspondent who asked an explanation of the present government of Porto Rico, some other features of the law perhaps deserve notice in view of the claim, now frequently made, that Imperialism is imaginary.

It is not only true, as you say, that the government of these people, the first subjects of the United States, is in the hands of its President, but the statutory laws of this alien country "not locally inapplicable" have been imposed upon them by section 14. Moreover, not merely a majority, but ALL of the members of the Executive Council are appointed by the President. The strong language of Governor-General Wood quoted in your issue of August 30, emphasizing the injustice of subjecting any people to the "decisions of tribunals composed of persons alien in race and sentiment, administering a system of laws with which [they] are entirely unfamiliar," applies forcibly to the provisions of sections 33-35, whereby the courts and tribunals established in the island by the army of occupation are continued and a court styled "The District Court of the United States for the District of Porto Rico" is created, all the pleadings and proceedings in which must be conducted in the English language.

All of the judiciary of the island are to be or have been appointed by the President or his appointee, the alien Governor. Writs of error and appeals from the Supreme Court of Porto Rico, as well as from the District Court, are taken to the Supreme Court of the United States. In the face of this sample, it is rather surprising to read how glibly the people are assured that Imperialism is a bugaboo, and that Mr. Bryan's speech of acceptance shirked the real issue.

CHARLES B. WILBY.

BIDDEFORD POOL, ME., September 4, 1900.

THE ROUSING OF THE BEAST.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A lively contemporary ironically compliments the Springfield *Republican* upon its ingenuity in discovering a connection between the Akron riots and the Philippine war. I do not know what the *Republican* proves or disproves in the article referred to, but have no doubt that a real connection exists between these two phases of contemporary history. There lies in each of us, buried more or less deeply according to the character and antecedents of the individual, the old animal love of carnage. Civilization may have put this bestial passion to sleep and covered it with layer after layer of æsthetic tastes, social sympathies, and fine manners. Nevertheless, every Darwinian (and most scholars and thinkers are Darwinians nowadays) knows that it is there. It is our inheritance from half-human ancestors. Christianity and civilization have striven for centuries to kill out this passion. Perhaps some day it will perish, as unused organs have done in many forms of life. But meantime it is merely "scotched," and, under fostering conditions, it can waken as thoroughly as did the frozen serpent in Æsop's fable when it was warmed by the peasant's fire.

The worst evil of war (as it seems to me) is its constant appeal to the fighting instinct and to the bestial love of blood-shedding. Every one who has sufficient intelligence to take an interest in the daily papers is being familiarized with the idea of slaughtering his fellow-men. The sanctity of human life is quite forgotten. The love of bloodshed which lurks in hidden chambers of the soul is brought forth and fostered. How quickly it can grow is shown by some extracts from soldiers' letters which have been published in our papers and in Canadian journals. Their absolute savagery is sufficient evidence how soon all the painfully acquired spiritual results of civilization and Christianity can be lost. Young lads whose minds are developing and whose characters are forming, are daily regaled with details of carnage; and the illustrated periodicals especially, with their pictures of charging battalions and bursting shells, have infused every mother's little son with the spirit of battle. It is disastrously easy to arouse this spirit. It is not easy to direct or to restrain it.

The riots in Akron and in New York city and the disturbances in the South are but the natural expression of this aroused spirit, *and, unless the present* scribe is a false prophet, there will yet be similar scenes on British territory as an indirect result of the South African war.

A STUDENT OF BIOLOGY.

"EQUITY" AND THE BOERS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your correspondent "Equity" (in No. 1835) makes some statements about the Boers which ought not to pass without a word or two of comment. He says that they have been treated throughout the war as regular belligerents, and seems to think this a proof that the Transvaal has been recognized by England as a foreign state. I rather think that the Boers have been considered about the same sort of "regular" belligerents as were the Southerners at the time of the secession war, and not used any worse, though in many respects they have behaved far worse.

"Equity's" claim of foreign nationality for the Boers simply begs the whole much bewrangled question of the suzerainty, and cannot be settled by his mere anonymous *ipse dixit.* A state owing its existence to England's authority, forbidden to make foreign treaties without her consent, and peopled at the outbreak of the war in the proportion of about 120 English to 80 Dutch, was hardly in a position to set up for "an independent foreign nation" upon a violent anti-British basis.

"Equity's" assertion that the Boers have observed the laws and humanities of war is contradicted by many well-known facts. Has he never heard or read anything concerning the outrageous and systematic abuse of white flags and red crosses? Of uniformless men claiming to be either soldiers or civilians according as time or place might be convenient? Of oaths of neutrality or allegiance sworn and broken at the swearer's discretion as often as he was allowed to avail himself thereof? Men's lives have often been forfeited for such offences as these with approval by the rules of civilized warfare, and long before the Boers were ever heard of. How might French or German or United States soldiers be expected to act when opposed to an enemy holding and practising such peculiar views of the "laws and humanities of war"? Not much better, I fear, than the brutal English.

Though "Equity's" letter is very short, it would take a long reply to expose all its misrepresentations. I shall only notice one more. He speaks of Boer women and children being turned out to perish. On the contrary, it is well known that, in the course of this war, the wives and children of many Boers have been supported and *kept from starvation* by this same much-maligned English Government, while their husbands were fighting against it. An odd fact in this connection is that, just before the war broke out, several influential Boers living in the Republics sent their families to Cape Town to be out of harm's way, and under the protection of their "brutal" enemy until the war should be over.

L. C. ALLISON, M.B.

ST. JOHN, N. B., September 5, 1900.

TREATMENT OF PATRIOTS AS REBELS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: You say, "Since the proclamation of annexation [in the Transvaal], burghers found with arms in their hands are technically rebels, and subject to hanging for treason."

You surely would not lend your authority to the doctrine that a successful invader, having overrun a country, can, by proclaiming it annexed, entitle himself to treat all patriots who hold out as rebels, and hang them, when he catches them, for treason.

Maximilian, for treating Mexican patriots who held out against his empire as rebels, was himself shot; and though everybody pitied him, his doom was regarded as just.

Napoleon destroyed the patriot armies of Spain and established the monarchy of his brother at Madrid. But Spanish patriots held out as guerrillas, and were accepted as allies by Great Britain in a series of campaigns.

Hofer and the Tyrolese peasantry held out after the annexation of the Tyrol to Bavaria. England sympathized in the most marked manner with their resistance, and the execution of Hofer as a rebel has always been regarded as one of the vilest acts of Napoleon.

Lord Roberts, it seems, proclaims his intention of shooting any burgher of the Transvaal who fails to give him notice of the presence of a patriotic force. What would have been said if such a proclamation had been issued by the German invaders of France?

The British, it appears, are now transporting their prisoners of war, who have every possible claim to the character of regular belligerents, to Ceylon; the families of these prisoners in South Africa being left to their fate.

Are such to be the fruits of the Convention at The Hague? Is American opinion on these questions dead, or has it been bribed to silence by the service supposed to have been rendered to the United States by the British Government at the time of the Spanish war?

EQUITY.

September 8, 1900.

[The context shows that we were merely stating the British point of view, which has, however, far greater justification than our treating the Filipinos as insurgents.—ED. NATION.]

THE SCHOOLBOY'S VOCABULARY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: After reading a letter in the *Nation* of this week from J. H. Dillard, I wish to urge, as one reason for the poverty of vocabulary of many graduates of our schools, the great variety of occupations imposed upon them during their school years—a variety which often limits their study of the English language and its literature to very small proportions.

In the public schools of Brookline, Mass., are taught a number of natural sciences besides drawing, singing, carpentry, domestic science, sewing and dressmaking, all of which necessarily crowd out the technical study of the English language. On visiting a very elaborately equipped schoolhouse in Brookline last winter, I asked a seventh-grade teacher of six or seven years' experience, whether all this table-setting, bed-making, sewing, and dress-cutting did not lower the standard of "book-learning" among her pupils, and she said that such was certainly the case. Now, although a great deal of this teaching is of more practical value to many of the pupils of the public schools than too much literature, it seems to me a great mistake to try to combine the classical and literary school with the industrial school; both lose by the combination, and the study of the English language is often absolutely neglected for a time.

A boy of fifteen, who was transferred last winter from a school in another State to one of our Massachusetts high schools, was not called upon to write anything in the nature of an abstract or composition during the first two months of his attendance; his studies during this time were Roman history, Latin, algebra, drawing, and singing, some time being spent at prayers and gymnastics. Now, if the "daily theme" courses in the colleges are as beneficial as they are considered to be, two months seems far too long a time to allow the very imperfect English of the average boy of fifteen to remain uncriticised. The reaction from teaching exclusively from a text-book to the modern topical method of treating English literature is, to my mind, another evil when the teacher, as is too often the case, has no great love for the best literature, and does his work in a rather perfunctory manner. In some grammar schools which I have known, studying poetry meant studying the poems of Longfellow almost exclusively.

I do not know the "Scholar's Companion," mentioned by your correspondent, but some of the old-fashioned text-books of English literature which give extracts from a variety of authors, would have a far better effect in forming a good English style than such a treadmill routine as this. To obtain good results from many methods of teaching now in fashion, the teachers should be, not only well trained, but endowed by nature with a wonderfully large amount of judgment and good taste; this, it will be said, has always been the case, but not to any such degree as at present, when the text-book, although improving yearly in quality, has, in the teaching of such studies as history and English literature, fallen somewhat into disrepute.

NANCY S. HOOPER.

TAPPAN ST., BROOKLINE, MASS.,
September 7, 1900.

Notes.

Huxley's Life and Letters, edited by his son Leonard, in two volumes, overshadows in interest the rest of the preliminary list of Messrs. Appleton which it leads. We cite also 'The Private Life of the Prince of Wales'; 'The Boers in War,' by Howard C. Hillegas; 'Commodore Paul Jones,' by Cyrus Townsend Brady; 'The Story of the Soldier,' by Gen. G. A. Forsyth, U. S. A.,' in Mr. Ripley Hitchcock's "Story of the West" series; 'Hungarian Literature,' by Dr. Zoltan Beothy; 'The Art of Writing English,' by Prof. J. M. D. Meiklejohn; 'The Individual,' by Prof. N. S. Shaler; 'Some Women I Have Known,' by Maarten Maartens; 'Clearing-Houses: Their History, Methods, and Administration,' by James G. Cannon; an illustrated edition of 'David Harum'; and 'The Brass Bottle,' by F. Anstey.

The Century Company will publish next month 'Dr. North and his Friends,' by Dr. S. Weir Mitchell; 'The Strenuous Life,' by Gov. Roosevelt; 'The Gospel of Wealth,' by Andrew Carnegie; and 'College Administration,' by President Thwing of Western Reserve University.

Further announcements from Little, Brown & Co. are a new volume on Japan, 'Shadowings,' by Lafcadio Hearn, and a new edition of Parkman's 'Oregon Trail,' with seventy-five illustrations by Frederic Remington.

Ginn & Co. have nearly ready 'Apes and Monkeys: Their Life and Language,' by R. L. Garner, and 'Wilderness Ways,' by William J. Long.

'America' is the title selected for Charles Dana Gibson's October book of drawings; 'The Passing Show' for a new collection of Albert B. Wenzell's drawings. Both will be published by R. H. Russell.

Elder & Shepard, San Francisco, will soon have ready 'The Religion of Democracy,' by Charles Ferguson.

Macmillan Co. request us to state that the *Critic* had no foundation for its statement (bolstered by a portrait) that the author of 'Elizabeth and her German Garden' is the Princess Henry of Pless. She "was in no way connected with its authorship."

Two new volumes in Macmillan's "Library of English Classics" confirm the attractiveness of this stately series. One is White's 'Natural History and Antiquities of Selborne,' in faithful reprint of the original (1789) edition, but with the happy conjunction of Dr. John Aikin's compilation from White's papers, published in 1795, under the title, 'A Naturalist's Calendar, with Observations in Various Branches of Natural History by the late Rev. Gilbert White.' Part of this addendum represents gleanings from material already sifted by White, and part is from notes not drawn upon at all. The combination gives an especial distinction to this reissue. The other volume is 'The Travels of Sir John Mandeville,' modernized in spelling upon the Cotton manuscript in the British Museum, which is for the first time faithfully "reproduced, 'warts and all,' save in less than a dozen instances," to avoid nonsense. This has been no light labor for the editor, Mr. A. W. Pollard, who usefully enlarges the volume by appending "three narratives illustrative of Mandeville," namely, Carpini's voyage, William of Rubruck's journal (lately edited by Mr. Rockhill for the Hakluyt Society and noticed by us a few months ago), and Friar Odoric's Journal. So again we have a conjunction that competes with any edition heretofore reproduced—in price as well as in the particulars just set forth.

The extreme rarity of a campaign life of Lincoln, writen by John Locke Scripps of the Chicago *Tribune*, in 1860, and published conjointly by that journal and by the New York *Tribune*, justifies the reprinting of it since it is the earliest in existence. It is a good specimen of its class, and had the advantage of some communications from the subject of it. It is now issued in quarto form, with much mechanical care and general good taste (particularly in the binding), from the Cranbrook Press, Detroit, to the number of 245 copies. Of Mr. Scripps, who owed his prenomen to a family connection with John Locke, there is a frontispiece portrait and a biographical sketch. His father was an Englishman, and, curiously enough, was one of the framers of the Missouri Constitution in 1820; and in that State he himself was born, so that Mr. Lincoln's first biographer was, like himself, a Southerner.

Two more books about "Trusts" are at hand. One, by William Hudson Harper, is entitled 'Restraint of Trade' (Chicago: Regan Printing House), and contains a heterogeneous mass of arguments, opinions, and facts, from which the reader may pick what he wants. The other, by William Miller Collier, is called 'The Trusts: What can we do with them? What can they do for us?' (New York: Baker & Taylor Co.). Publicity is the panacea recommended by this writer; not without some display of knowledge and argument.

It seems a far cry now to Émile Gaboriau, the specialist in what his countrymen call "le roman judiciaire," with its elaborate mystery and its sometimes clumsy gathering up of the threads. Osgood's 1875 edition, in five volumes, of 'Monsieur Lecoq,' 'The Mystery of Percival,' 'The Honor of the Name,' 'File No. 113,' and 'Other People's Money,' has just been revived very presentably, with illustrations, by Charles Scribner's Sons. The titles speak for themselves, and will attract those who are fond of "detective" stories.

We noticed with commendation on its appearance the first part of 'A French-English Military Technical Dictionary,' by Lieut. Cornélis De Witt Willcox, U. S. A. (Washington: Adjutant-General's Office). The work is now completed, in three parts, numbering nearly 500 pages. For an appendix is given the French Revolutionary Calendar, in correspondence with the Gregorian. The work is a very valuable addition to the best of French dictionaries. For example, not one of the six compound expressions under *dé—dé agrafe, dé briseur*, etc.—is to be found in Hatzfeld.

Dr. William Everett's Phi Beta Kappa oration on "Patriotism," not of the new-fangled kind, is placed where it belongs in the forefront of the *Harvard Graduates' Magazine* for September, which for the rest is mainly a record of Commencement doings. Remarkable, however, is the account of the various buildings of novel purpose now in course of erection, which will do more to transform the life of the college than any structures for half a generation. The college fence and gateways are also to be extended and multiplied, and class devotion now resorts to this form of commemoration since the last window in Memorial Hall has been taken. The gifts of the past year have been extraordinary.

The report of the United States Fish Commissioner for the year ending June 30, 1899, just issued from the Government Printing-office, is distinguished from its predecessors by "Notes on the Foreign Fishing Trade and Local Fisheries of Porto Rico." These have been contributed by the Commission's agent, Mr. W. A. Wilcox, who accompanied the *Fish Hawk* expedition to the island in January of last year. The paper is accompanied by photographic illustrations. The remarkable water-color drawings of Porto Rican fish made on this occasion have been beautifully reproduced lithographically by Julius Bien & Co., and will in due time be published by the Commission. A curious chapter on sturgeon fishing in Delaware River and Bay concludes the present report.

The Fifth Annual Report of the Chief Fire Warden of Minnesota (St. Paul) has its moral for communities which either entirely neglect forest conservancy, or pass laws that instantly become dead letters. It is exceptionally well illustrated with process cuts from nature, and makes a strong appeal for a Government Park at Cass Lake. The bulk of the report consists of data concerning European forestry.

A belief has prevailed since ancient times that some trees are more liable to be struck by lightning than others. Extensive investigations have recently been made in Germany with regard to this subject, and the reports, covering a period of seventeen years, present very extraordinary results. The field under survey was the forestry district of Lippe, containing mainly beeches, pines, and oaks, with a sprinkling of larches, poplars, etc. In the course of these seventeen years, about 375 trees were struck by lightning. Of this number, fully two-thirds were oaks, although barely more than one-tenth of the forest tract was made up of that kind of growth. While the beech trees covered a greater area than all the other trees combined, only one-fourteenth of the total numbers of trees struck were beeches. The larches and poplars were relatively great sufferers. It appears to be settled that trees rich in oil enjoy comparative immunity. The presence of dead limbs in the crown of the tree seems to increase the danger from lightning.

The Prussian revised orthography, introduced in 1880, and generally known as the Puttkamer system, has, as appears from a recent circular of the Association of German Book Publishers, gained a remarkable headway over other systems. Of 613 firms which sent in reports, 406 have in all their publications adopted this system, 58 employ only the old, 141 make use of both, while only 8 have the Austrian. Of the 141 using both, 59 state that they use the old only by way of exception, 30 use the old nearly altogether, while 52 employ both promiscuously. The report states that fully five-sixths of all the book publications and three-fifths of the periodicals in Germany are now printed in the orthography of 1880, and uniformity is evidently a question of only a comparatively short time. The most serious hindrance is still the disinclination on the part of officials to adopt the innovation. The great bulk of the political papers have long since given in to it. What expense attends the introduction of a new system of orthography can be seen from the experience of a single firm, which reports the cost of changing the stereotype plates of its various dictionaries to harmonize with the new system at 700,000 marks.

No recent achievement in spectroscopic astronomy has attracted greater attention than the brilliant series of discoveries of binary stars whose components are so close together, apparently, that they can never be observed optically by ordinary means. Capella, the brightest star in Auriga, is among those luminaries whose duplicity has lately been detected by Professor Newall of Cambridge, England, with the fine spectroscope given by the late Miss Bruce, in conjunction with the 25-inch refractor built by Cooke of York. Early in the present year, Mr. Newall having called the Astronomer Royal's attention to the possibility of securing measures of this binary by means of the micrometer, as in the case of optical binary systems, his assistants, Mr. Dyson and Mr. Lewis, began examination of it with the 28-inch refractor at Greenwich on April 4. Both observers agreed that the star was slightly elongated, to the extent of a tenth second of arc, and quite appreciable. Subsequently it was examined on every available night by several observers, who, in spite of the naturally delicate character of the observation, have secured a series of measures which give an orbit for the binary agreeing well with the spectroscopic period of 104 days. The detailed measures have been published in the *Monthly Notices* of the Royal Astronomical Society for June, and they are still in continuance at Greenwich. Capella thus takes the far lead of all optical binaries for rapidity of revolution.

—The *Century* for September has an antiquarian article on "Troglodyte Dwellings in Cappadocia," by Prof. J. R. Sitlington Sterrett, illustrated with drawings by Harry Fenn, after photographs by the author. Professor Sterrett traces the "cones of Cappadocia," and the fact of their having been used as human dwellings, to "the dim distant Hittite period, at about 1900 B. C." But, anthropologically, the record seems to be mainly marked by want of continuity; the present cone villages having little apparent connection with the primitive troglodytes, who sometimes wore skins, and sometimes went naked, and were so irrational as to imagine cattle and sheep to be their parents, and practised free love and euthanasia. Père Didon, the liberal priest and preacher, who died the other day, is made the subject of a sketch by "Th. Bentzon," accompanied by an engraving of what looks like a good portrait. It seems that no biography has yet appeared. Of his devotion to liberality in education and his conception of a teacher's duties, Mme. Blanc gives an interesting example. His weak point consisted in a morbid desire to let everybody know that he was "in the swim"—a consequence of the self-consciousness, or "hypertrophy of the *me*," which Marie Bashkirtseff discovered in him at first sight. The third paper of William Mason's "Memories of a Musical Life" is more entertaining than the first two. It contains a great deal about Liszt, and makes an interesting picture of him. Mr. Mason gives a curious report of the first interview between Liszt and Brahms. All other accounts—of which there have been several—are, he says, inaccurate. It seems that Brahms was so nervous that he could not play, upon which Liszt took up a rather illegible manuscript composition of Brahms, and played it at sight, to the great delight and amazement of the composer. A little later, some one asked Liszt to play something of his own—a request which he proceeded to comply with. In the most interesting portion of the performance, casting a glance at his visitor, Liszt found that the latter was dozing in his chair. Liszt played the sonata through, and then left the room. This account is corroborated by a still living witness. In an article on "The Influence of the Western World on China," Dr. D. L. Sheffield, President of the North China College of the American Board at Tung-Chau, discusses the Chinese question, but, to our mind, fails to throw much light on it. He wants England and America to announce to the world that they will "conserve the integrity" and "promote the reformation" of China, but he does not seem to understand that this means a protectorate of the most responsible character, and therefore that no reasonable man will listen to the suggestion, unless it is clearly proved why we should undertake such a burden. Dr. Sheffield's reasons seem to be that there is a great deal of trade with China, and that a few of the natives have been converted to Christianity. It is an article, for missionary consumption, which is calculated to make the ungodly laugh, and the heathen, if any fall in with it, to imagine a vain thing.

—The leading article in the *Atlantic* is a paper on "The American Boss," by Francis C. Lowell, who undertakes to analyze the causes which produce him. The writer protests against being drawn into any discussion of whether the Boss ought or ought not to be. He *is;* what causes him to exist? The answer given by Judge Lowell is not original; it has been given in substance many times before. In party politics machinery is needed; the operation of machinery requires men. These men must be paid; the Boss is the man who pays them. The argument is reinforced by the consideration that the "machine" in this case is itself a congeries of associations of human beings, acting together for certain ends, such as deliberating, voting, and nominating, or selecting others to transact such matters for them; and in competition with another machine of the same sort, the work of which it seeks continuously and zealously to upset. (This is our very inadequate paraphrase of an elaborate analysis.) The defect which we find in the article is that it wholly fails at the point where the title led us to look for light, viz., in explaining why the Boss is so peculiarly American. The *Boss Americanus* is found in New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, and some other centres of population; but no specimen of the species has been described by naturalists in London, or Liverpool, where party politics are just as rife, or even in the South American republics, where corruption is rife enough, if that were all. One explanation would be connected with our nominating system, wholly different in this country from any other. It is odd, by the way, to find the late Mr. John Forbes invoked in aid of the scientific inevitableness of the Boss system. The requirements of partisan machinery, as he understood and explained them, belonged to a period before the present Boss system began. Magarethe Müller contributes an article on Gerhart Hauptmann, in the course of which the writer has something to say about Nietzsche and Sudermann. She insists upon a connection between these young German writers and such foreigners as Zola, Taine, Ibsen, and Tolstoi; but the bond of union between such various and divergent geniuses is a little too like that which makes us all sinners in the fall of Adam. If all the magazine articles of this sort which have been written on modern literary movements and their authors could be got together, they would present a wonderful farrago of theories and philosophies.

—"Submarine Torpedo-Boats" is the subject of an article in *Harper's* by William W. Kimball; it is illustrated by H. Reuterdahl from sketches made on the *Holland* "while running under the surface and above." The conclusions reached by the writer are that, "with properly manned submarines in the defensive, blockades cannot be held nor bombardments effected," and "in attacking ports they will be useful in countermining the protecting mines, and in entering unseen to destroy ships, dry-docks, and buildings." Thus far they have been of no practical use, for the Confederate torpedo-boat which sunk the *Housatonic* off Charleston, though designed to work as a submarine, made her attack as a surface boat, and then went down with her crew, "as any successful torpedo-boat may expect to do." France, it seems, has grasped the idea of the importance of the new type, and has a dozen submarines on her naval register, and has provided for thirty-eight all told. When her coast is entirely protected by them, "she will be able to send her whole cruising fleet" to attack the enemy elsewhere. But then, it may be added, the enemy will be equally able, under similar circumstances, to do the same thing. Congress has authorized the construction of five more boats of the Holland type. The article is that of an enthusiast; there are critics who still say that there are too many difficulties in the way—the difficulty of keeping long under water, of steering, of light, air, etc. "The Teuton Tug of War" is the title of a belated article of Julian Ralph's, on the war in South Africa, and is dated "Bloemfontein, April 19." His account of the Boers is that they are an incorrigible set of savages—always lying, because they do not "know or like to tell the truth," full of treachery and cruelty. Apparently they are deserving only of extermination like vermin. His account differs so essentially from that of Mr. Selous, who lived among the Boers for twenty years, and who found them a kind, amiable, generous, and hospitable people, and did not notice their propensity to lie, that the two accounts might profitably be compared. The article recalls articles descriptive of the "Yanks" by Southerners, forty years since, and of English descriptions, in war time, of French, Germans, and other foreign tribes. There is really a striking analogy between Mr. Ralph's account of the moral character of the Boers and that given by our Jingoes of the Filipinos.

—The recognized graded division of falsehoods into lies, condemned lies, and statistics leads one to approach very warily collections of the third, whether political or sociological. But, however difficult of correlation, these may include curious facts; and such are found in a quarto Mortality Report of the Mutual Life Insurance Company, covering fifty-six years, to include 1898, and embracing 46,525 deaths. Of these only 1,540 were of women, so that the report, prepared by the Medical Directors, Drs. Marsh and White, and published by the company, is that of the deaths of 45,000 selected adult males. These cannot be employed to illustrate deaths at the same ages in the country at large, for the policy-holders were selected medically, and represent a more conservative and thoughtful class of the community. Among these the general mortality rate does not increase with age as rapidly as one might suppose. Thus, the death rate under 45 years is 30 per cent., but that from 45 to 60 is only 33 per cent. of the whole. A feature not usually appreciated is that while the general mortality increases, the causes of that mortality are very different at one age from those of another. Thus, the percentage of the entire mortality from typhoid to the total mortality was 3.94; but while in those under 25 years of age it was 18.45, in those from 25 to 29 inclusive it was 15.43; and it gradually decreased to .10. The percentage of deaths from heart diseases under 25 years was 1.15, but from 65 to 69 years it was over 18.05. Casualties show a quinquennial decrease from 15.98 to 1.57. Hence there are easily calculated curves of increasing immunity and increasing risk. Tubercular disease (roughly classed as consumption), notwithstanding the presumed exclusive effect of the medical examination, caused 28.01 of the total deaths under 25, and 33.06 of those from 25 to 29 years. Within the last ten years, however, there has been a decided decrease in the mortality from consumption at all ages, and, as this is strongly marked in very mature years as well as in earlier life, more careful physical examination cannot claim the entire credit for the gain. The largest number of such deaths occurs between 35 and 40 years of age, and the highest rate is between 25 and 30; upon which the authors remark that "these numbers do not represent the true relation of the disease to the age periods, for the excessive number of deaths at that period may and probably does represent merely an excess of the number of lives at risk." The deaths from consumption, even among the selected adults who make up the constituency of the company, are more than one in eight of the whole. The alleged increase of cancer is a topic of frequent discussion in professional and other intelligent circles. There is no doubt that the recorded deaths from that disease in tables of general mortality show a steady increase. In an attempt to throw some light on the subject, one table compares year by year for the last twenty years the deaths from cancer with the deaths from all causes in an age group of 50-70 years. The age restriction is used to prevent error that might occur were an excess of young or old persons introduced in either column. The percentage rises from 4.23 in 1879 to 7.59 in 1898, and in a general although not uniform way the increase is gradual year by year. Notwithstanding this increase of 3.36 per cent., the authors are of opinion that it can best be accounted for by greater accuracy of diagnosis. This is a compliment to the discrimination of the faculty at the expense of its clinical efficiency.

—During the past ten years Major Martin Hume has, by the publication of numerous books, associated his name with the study of Spanish history. However, his volume on 'Modern Spain' in the "Story of the Nations" series (Putnams) brings him into contact with a period which he has previously left untouched. Although issued by a different publisher, this work should be considered in connection with the work on Spain which Major Hume contributed to the Cambridge "Modern History" series. The one extended from the Emperor Charles V. (Charles I. of Spain) to Charles III.; the other begins with the death of Charles III. and reaches the present day. It seems rather a pity that, for the sake of convenience, the two volumes should not have come from the same publisher's office. The acquaintance which Major Hume shows with the later period of Spanish history does not suffer by comparison with his writings on the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. Members of his family fought in the Peninsular War, and he has heard their stories. "Near relatives of my own were among the victims of the despotism of Fernando, and expiated in prison and exile their adhesion to the cause of the Constitution. . . . At a later period my own observation commenced, and, as a keenly interested spectator and friend of many of the chief actors, I witnessed most of the stirring scenes recounted in these pages from the revolution of 1868 up to the death of Alfonso XII." Major Hume has no belief in the theory that arbitrary government is the proper solution of Spain's political difficulties. Despite the country's calamities since the beginning of the century, he perceives an upward tendency. He considers Spain "the most naturally democratic country in Europe. 'Hurrah for chains!' will be heard no more, and a return to the days of Fernando, or even of Isabel II., is as impossible now as a return to the despotism of the Philips." Among national leaders, Marshal Prim is Major Hume's favorite, "the only really great Spaniard that the century has produced." The same sympathy with Constitutional freedom is shown in the account of Amadeo of Savoy, and his short reign. Major Hume always writes in a bright and nimble strain. His 'Modern Spain' is an example of the good "popular history."

—The brilliant array of names on the title-page of a volume of addresses, 'Discours aux Étudiants' (Paris: Colin), delivered before the General Association of Students in Paris since its foundation, sixteen years ago, will attract readers who would otherwise not be interested in a book of this kind. Who would not like to know what men like Renan, Pasteur, Jules Simon, Puvis de Chavannes, Jules Ferry, Emilio Castelar, to group together those of the speakers no longer among the living, have to say to young men of twenty or twenty-two? And poets and novelists like Anatole France, Sully-Prudhomme, De Vogüé, Zola, or statesmen like Casimir-Périer and Loubet, also, are not likely to indulge in mere lecture-room oratory. The volume is not free from tedious repetitions, and a superabundance of well-meant counsel is crowded, *e. g.*, into the several discourses of M. Lavisse; but most of the speeches are brief, and the personal note, strongly marked in most of them, is by no means unpleasant. Puvis de Chavannes needs less than two hundred words to acquit himself as President at one of the annual banquets of the Association. Pasteur, on the occasion of his jubilee (December 27, 1892), spoke scarcely more than ten minutes, and another time had to excuse himself after a few remarks to hasten to the "Institute," where poor pilgrims from Russia were waiting to be cured from the bite of a rabid wolf. Renan, of all others, quotes the *Gaudeamus igitur*, and advises the members of the Association to work hard and amuse themselves, confessing, however, that the suggestion, on his part, is "rather theoretical," since he himself has followed only the first half of it. In matters of politics, he hardly knows what to advise, being "a sort of legitimist" who, on the establishment of a new régime, waits a half-score years for the Government to become legitimate, when he finds that it is just about ready to "pack up." But these inimitable passages must be read in the original (pp. 20 ff.). Besides Renan's, the most enjoyable addresses, perhaps, among the thirty-five, are those delivered by Jules Simon and Castelar at the latter's reception, in 1889, in the amphitheatre of the new Sorbonne (pp. 333-342). By a strange coincidence the genial Frenchman had once before, on a state occasion in the Escurial, been called upon to speak when the assembled guests were really anxious to hear the illustrious Spaniard. Reminding his friend Castelar, with felicitous appropriateness, of that event, he quotes his former speech: "Very well, I will make a speech: Gentlemen, I yield the floor to M. Castelar." And, he assures the audience, his success was enormous, "c'est mon plus grand triomphe oratoire." We should like to quote other passages from the volume, some witty, others serious. There is Zola's generous confession: "I have already regretted having been a sectarian, in insisting that art should confine itself to demonstrated truths. The new-comers have reopened the horizon by reconquering the unknown, the mysterious; and they have done well." Then, there are aphorisms, nuggets of thought, scattered throughout the book which more than make up for occasional commonplaces and empty rhetoric.

THE WELSH PEOPLE.

The Welsh People: Chapters on their Origin, History, Laws, Language, Literature, and Characteristics. By John Rhŷs, M.A., Principal of Jesus College, and Professor of Celtic in the University of Oxford; and Dāvid Brynmor-Jones, LL.B., Bencher of the Hon. Society of the Middle Temple, Queen's Counsel, and Member of Parliament. With two maps. The Macmillan Co. 1900.

This is by all odds the most important treatise that has yet appeared on the history and antiquities of Wales. Until a very recent period, Welsh archæology was almost entirely given over to worthy enthusiasts, blissfully ignorant alike of history and philology; and things were solemnly written about the Bards and about Brutus which can be paralleled for absurdity only from the "literature" of Freemasonry. But the progress, on the one hand, of Celtic philology among German and French scholars, and on the other of mediæval constitutional studies in England among what may in a sense be spoken of as the school of Stubbs, was sure after a time to remedy this state of things. On the philological side, the way has been led by Prof. Rhŷs, the occupant of the one chair of Celtic in a British university. Among those who have followed him, Mr. Gwenogvryn Evans deserves especial mention as having at last supplied us with editions of important Welsh texts which are up to the modern level of critical scholarship. And on the historical side, much has been done by the competent knowledge and sober judgment of Professor Tout, among others, in the series of lives with which he has enriched the Dictionary of National Biography. But no attempt has been made before the present volume to take stock of these new acquisitions; and it is because this does so that it will be indispensable to the Celtic student, and deserves a place in the public library of every American town which numbers any considerable Welsh population among its citizens.

It came into existence in an odd way. It may be remembered that the Liberal Government which took office in 1892 was dependent upon a small and somewhat insecure Parliamentary majority. Under these circumstances, the Radical members returned by Wales, forming, as they did at that time, almost the whole of the representation of the principality, organized themselves for the first time as a distinct Welsh party, and proceeded in season, and (as some other Liberals thought) out of season also, to urge their claims upon the Government, threatening in no obscure terms to withdraw their support if they were not listened to. There had for some time been a vigorous nationalist movement in progress in Wales, taking the forms primarily of an increased interest in the Welsh language and of efforts for the establishment of Welsh colleges; and of late there had arisen an agrarian agitation, following, though indeed *longo intervallo*, the lines of that which had been so successful in Ireland. Accordingly, in 1893, the Liberal Government appointed a Royal Commission on Land in Wales and Monmouthshire, only too happy to be able to do anything quite so easy. Let us add that neither this nor the establishment of a Welsh university satisfied the Welsh party in the House of Commons; that it insisted on the introduction of a bill for the disestablishment of the Church in Wales, and thereby contributed its share towards bringing the Liberal party into the uncomfortable position in which it finds itself at present.

When the Commission reported in August, 1896, the Liberal Government had fallen from power, and the recommendations of the Commissioners received but little attention. Their Report contained learned chapters on Welsh philology and on early land tenure; the former evidently from the pen of Professor Rhŷs, and the latter by Mr. Frederic Seebohm, the distinguished writer on agrarian history, who had joined the Commission with the hope of finding new material for his investigations. It contained also accounts of the ecclesiastical and educational history of Wales during the last two centuries, and of rural life among the Welsh farmers of to-day, which were doubtless contributed by another Commissioner, Mr. Brynmor-Jones, one of the leaders of the Welsh Parliamentary party. There was some force in the criticism that, interesting as this matter was, much of it had no appreciable bearing on the problems immediately before the Commission, and that it would find a more appropriate place in a separate volume. Moreover, in spite of the low prices at which British blue-books are obtainable, a blue-book is the last place in which one would publish anything for which one wanted to secure general attention. Professor Rhŷs and Mr. Brynmor-Jones have seen the force, at any rate, of this latter consideration, and in the present substantial volume they have reprinted the historical and descriptive portion of the Report. But they have taken the opportunity to add to them a series of elaborate dissertations on the Pictish question, on Roman Britain, and on ancient laws and customs, together with three chapters on Welsh history—from Cadwaladr to the Norman Conquest, from 1066 to 1282, and from 1282 to the time of the Stuarts. A good deal more than one-half, therefore, of the 648 pages forming the volume before us is altogether new.

The circumstances of its origin, and its composite authorship, will explain the extreme differences of style between the several parts of the book. The later chapters, on the social conditions of to-day, are plain sailing enough for the ordinary reader, though addressed so completely, if quite unconsciously, to a Welsh audience as to need an occasional word of explanation; as, for instance, in the use of the term "cause" for a dissenting religious society (see pp. 462, 470, 473, 477), to which dictionary-makers will please attend. The earlier chapters, on the other hand, are, if anything, a little too severely scholarly. The "Note to the Reader" ends with the remark that "where the two last syllables of a word have been run into one in the more modern stages of the Welsh language, the word is, of course, a perispomenon." We should like to know to how many readers of ordinary cultivation this statement conveys any information. The two words might not unfairly be regarded as typical: the whole volume oscillates between "cause" and "perispomenon."

In the space at our disposal we cannot attempt to criticise the chapters devoted to the mediæval "political" history of Wales. These 267 pages must be regarded as a quarry wherefrom some future historian who has an eye for the salient points, and knows how to present them, will be able to extract and set forth in pages of one-tenth that number all that any reader except the specialist will ever care to remember. We must content ourselves in this place with some observations, first, on the ethnology of Wales; secondly, on Welsh land tenures; and, thirdly, on the present condition of the country.

As to the ethnology of Wales, our authors assert emphatically what has long been known to be Professor Rhŷs's opinion, and was expressed by him a good many years ago in the short-lived *Princeton Review*, viz., that anthropologically, "on the whole, the Welsh of the present day are not Aryan," though they have learned to speak an Aryan tongue. "The Aryan element forms, as it were, a mere sprinkling among them."

> "If a competent ethnologist were to be sent round Wales to identify the individual men and women who seemed to him to approach what he should consider the Aryan type, his report would probably go to show that he found comparatively few such people, and that these few belonged chiefly to the old families of the land-owning class; the vast majority he would only label as probably not Celtic, not Aryan."

The race history of Wales as here constructed is as follows. The aborigines of Britain were non-Aryan. Until evidence is found to the contrary, it will be "a waste of conjecture" to regard them as belonging to more than one race; and this race is represented probably by the Picts of history. Some time about the sixth century B.C. came the first wave of Celtic migration—that of the Goidels (Gaels)—and overran most of the southern half of England. They probably made slaves of the subjugated population, and in process of time a mixed race came into existence, in which the præ-Aryan blood greatly preponderated, though the aboriginal language had disappeared. Then, in the second century B.C. or thereabouts, arrived the second Celtic swarm, that of the Brythons (the Britons proper); and these conquered from the Goidels most of the country which the latter had conquered previously from the aborigines. Among other districts, they took possession of Mid-Wales, leaving North and South Wales to the Goidels. Finally, soon after the Romans left Britain, a Brythonic chieftain named Cunedda came with a band of followers from the North, where he had apparently been defending the Roman wall, and brought practically the whole of what is now Wales under Brythonic rule; thus creating "the political framework of Wales under the aspect which it presents to the historian of the Norman Conquest." The Goidelic dialect may have survived as late as the seventh century in parts of the country; but though the Brythonic dialect took its place, Brythonic blood was very scantily infused into the people anywhere except in Mid-Wales, and everywhere the aboriginal stock continued to form the bulk of the population. If any indignant Welshman is inclined to take umbrage at these conclusions, he may be consoled by the remark of our author that, "taken in the bulk," the people of France are similarly of non-Aryan descent. And lest the "Anglo-Saxon" should exult, he may be reminded that, according to the same authority, "the average Englishman is at most not much more Aryan than the average Welshman."

The chapter on land tenure was written in "greater part" by Mr. Seebohm, as has been already noticed, and it is republished here with his consent. It would have been convenient if the editors had indicated precisely those portions which were added by other hands; but, as Mr. Seebohm signed the Report as a whole, he may be held to have accepted the entire chapter, and for brevity's sake one may speak of it as his work throughout. It is a contribution of the utmost interest to the economic history of Great Britain. Mr. Seebohm begins by a brief and well-written statement of the conclusions as to "tribal" land tenure prior to the Anglo-Norman conquest, which he has already given to the world, five years ago, in his 'Tribal Community in Wales.' Readers of that book will remember the sharp distinction which Mr. Seebohm there draws between (1) the joint occupation of land by undivided kindreds, the *gwely* or *progenies*, characteristic, as he believes, of the free tribesmen, who are described in thirteenth-century Extents as *libere tenentes* or free-holders; and (2) the *register land* of non-tribesmen, non-Cymry, described in the same documents as *villani* or serfs. That much of the land was held in the thirteenth century by these *gwelys* is evident enough; but neither Mr. Seebohm nor the editor (who in other chapters builds largely on his conclusions) has quite overcome the difficulties which arise when these joint tenancies are sought to be connected with the rules of succession found in the Welsh Codes. Mr. Seebohm speaks of "the ordinary tribesman" as "prospectively and by possibility" succeeding to the headship of a *gwely* (p. 399). But if, as he holds, the *gwely* arose from the operation of a rule according to which no final division of an inheritance took place until the fourth generation, the ordinary tribesman could not succeed to the headship unless he was the great-grandson of a *gwely* founder. It is hard to believe that the very symmetrical *gwelys* and *gavels* revealed by the thirteenth-century documents could have been the result of the operation of such a rule of inheritance working through centuries; it looks much more as if the territorial units had become more or less stereotyped at an early period.

What is more novel and probably more valuable is the account which Mr. Seebohm now goes on to give of the transition from mediæval to modern conditions, a transition effected mainly at the end of the sixteenth century. We do not know whether Mr. Seebohm was expected to give his blessing as a historian to the agrarian movement. Certainly we recall a paper of his on "The Historical Claims of Tenant-Right" which was frequently invoked in the early stages of the Irish farmers' agitation. But Mr. Seebohm gives no such countenance to like demands in the case of Wales:

> "The present year-to-year tenants of Wales cannot claim to be the direct descendants of the ancient Welsh free tribesmen. The successors in title of these are still paying their ancient and now trifling quitrents. That more of them have not survived is owing to natural causes, and, perhaps more than all, to their having enjoyed for centuries, like English copyholders, the right of selling their holdings in the open market. On the other hand, if some of the present year-to-year tenants are the successors of the ancient non-tribesmen or *nativi* (serfs), then the most probable general conclusion seems to be that their ancestors have passed through various vicissitudes, out of which, through stages of leases for lives or years (which for some reason were not renewed), they have passed into the position of year-to-year tenants" (p. 437).

It might be made an historical grievance that the descendants of the early serf population did not succeed in obtaining complete security of tenure in the shape of long leases renewable on the payment of moderate "fines." But Mr. Seebohm makes no such suggestion, apparently because year-to-year tenancy has practically meant permanence. The actual result has been one which a whole school of social politicians is wont to regard as the most desirable, the retention of the "peasantry" upon the land.

> "Many causes have combined in producing and afterwards perpetuating what is the marked and peculiar feature of rural economy in Wales, viz., the prevalence of a large number of small separate farms of what may be described as the peasant and family type. So that, on the one hand, the year-to-year tenancy in Wales has not become generally associated as in England with the system of large farms of the more commercial type, nor, on the other hand, has it been associated, as in Ireland and the crofter districts of Scotland, with that excessive subdivision and subletting which leads to the congestion of the rural population upon holdings too small to maintain the occupiers."

We should like to know to what Mr. Seebohm would attribute the difference especially as between Wales and Ireland. As between Wales and England, the explanation is to be found, we imagine, chiefly in the character of the soil and climate, which render tillage-farming on a large scale impracticable. And it may be remarked in passing that the value of this volume would have been greatly enhanced if its authors had given us more information about the physical features of the country so far as they affect farming. There is probably no institution in Great Britain in which agrarian conditions are studied from the point of view of the economist, as they are in half-a-dozen German universities; and the result is that, in a book like this, there is an almost complete dearth of that information which any serious student of the rural economy of Wales should certainly first ask for.

The chapters which come at the end of the book and sketch the present position of affairs, will be of moving interest to Welshmen who have left their native land, and will in some measure enable the non-Welshman to understand the singularly instructive problem of Welsh nationalism. The limitations of the Commissioners' original task justified the omission from their Report of any account of the large industrial and mining population growing up in the North and the South, especially around Cardiff and Swansea. But the omission from this volume is evidently significant: it is in the farming population that the spirit of nationality survives most vigorously, and it is commercial and industrial influences which most endanger it. The Welsh language is spoken by about a million people, and half a million know no other tongue. It is even gaining ground as a second speech, for it is becoming as fashionable as a few years ago it was unfashionable for the landowning gentry to have their children taught Welsh. This, as our authors remark, cannot but tend to greater sympathy between social classes. A serious disadvantage which has hitherto followed from the ignorance of English on the part of half a million of the people is, that they have remained in large measure unaware of the benefits secured for them by English legislation.

> "The most prevalent instance under this head was the ignorance, well-nigh universal in some districts, as to the provisions of the Agricultural Holdings Act, and the Ground Game Act. Almost all the tenant farmers in the Welsh-speaking districts believed that these acts . . . could be totally excluded by means of the contracting out clause. . . . In most districts the act of 1883 was for all practical purposes a dead letter."

But these "ameliorative provisions," as our authors call them, "have of recent years altered in a considerable degree the relationship of landlord and tenants"; and we are perhaps not far wrong when we conjecture that, if they had been generally known, the agrarian agitation in Wales would never have been serious enough to attract the attention of Parliament. The difficulty can, of course, be overcome by the adoption of the common-sense and inexpensive practice of issuing from the Government Printing-Office Welsh versions of all documents likely to be of interest to any considerable number of the people. This is what every little nationality in the civilized world properly insists on—from the French of Quebec to the Flemings of Belgium.

One last observation. The sense of irritation, undoubtedly felt more keenly by the Welsh peasant of late years, must be regarded—so our authors' statements seem to indicate—not as the result of greater physical distress, for the standard of living is everywhere slowly rising, but as the result of the growth of what is commonly called democratic sentiment. The people will not be patronized by the gentry any more; and, with the barrier, not only of language, but also of religion, between churchgoing landlord and chapelgoing tenant, it is natural enough that offence should often be taken where none is intended. Wales has of late years been provided with an excellent system of secondary and collegiate education; and this, together with the further development of industry and trade, may be expected to soften in time some of the sharp lines of social classification. The gentry, if they are to maintain their influence, must learn, as their brethren in England are learning, to act as leaders of the people through the new democratic organization of local government, rather than as rulers. And perhaps it is not past praying for that even the Anglican clergy in Wales may acquire some of that power of acting with people, instead of for them, which their fellows have learned in their work in the great cities of England.

A Critical History of the Doctrine of a Future Life in Israel, in Judaism, and in Christianity; or Hebrew, Jewish, and Christian Eschatology from Pre-Prophetic Times to the Close of the New Testament Canon. Being the Jowett Lectures for 1898-99. By R. H. Charles, D.D., Professor of Biblical Greek, Trinity College, Dublin. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan. 1899. Pp. x+428.

This book is an expansion of the article on Eschatology which will appear in the next volume of Cheyne's 'Encyclopædia Biblica,' and, in part, of the article on the Eschatology of the Jewish Apocryphal and Apocalyptic literature which has already appeared in the Hastings Bible Dictionary. The title, if lengthy, gives a fair idea of what is attempted in the book; the accomplished fact must be confessed to be somewhat sketchy and unsatisfactory. In the space assigned, hardly anything else would be possible, and, also, while Professor Charles is an acknowledged authority of the first rank in Jewish Apocrypha and Apocalypses, his insight is less keen and his touch less certain in dealing with the Old and New Testaments.

The plan of the book is undoubtedly excellent. The stress lies throughout on development and the historical context. The tangled threads are picked out patiently and skilfully. The merging into one of varying ideas, and the separating again of that unity into variety—the movement of the Hegelian dialectic—is traced conscientiously. It is the whole development, too, which we have here; there is no gap from Malachi to Matthew. Prophecy passes into Apocalyptic, and from the soil of Apocalyptic spring the ideas of Christianity filled with its new moral and spiritual life. Why a sketch of primitive Greek eschatology, in which Rohde's 'Psyche' is mostly followed, should be introduced, is not so evident. It is interesting in its parallelism with the older Hebrew ideas, but so far as direct influence is concerned, sketches of the Mazdean, the Egyptian, and the Greek philosophical systems would have been equally in place. The grounds for this inclusion suggested on p. 136 are hardly adequate.

It is impossible in our space to trace in any detail Professor Charles's view of the development. It is "critical"—a word fast becoming almost as beatific as Mesopotamia; which means that it is an honest attempt to get down to the fundamental facts and to state them objectively. The question is not put, Are such and such views correct? but, Are these the views once held as correct? Professor Charles himself is a close follower of Professor Cheyne, though the vacillations—or rapid advances, as you choose—of his guide sometimes land him in painful uncertainty between Philip drunk and Philip sober. Yet he lays stress more than once on the provisional character of many of the results of Old Testament criticism, and in that he is wise. His statements of the varying views of different scholars show how much is still to be done, and his own statements are commendably free from that dogmatism which too often exalts the chance idea of the moment into the perfect chrysolite of fact. The starting-point is the Exodus, and an outline is given of the primitive conception of God and the development of that conception. As is rightly pointed out, such a basis is essential for the eschatological ideas proper; that Yahwé's lordship did not at first extend over Sheol, conditioned all the after development. For centuries the ideas of the people of Israel were drawn from pure Semitic heathenism, and the revealed religion of Yahwé—Professor Charles is emphatic that Yahwism was not a mere natural development—had little effect on them. They were due to ancestor worship; and even after the long conflict with true Yahwism was long over, they lingered in stray details till the final destruction of Jerusalem. Thus we have the one thread, the more or less active future of the individual in Sheol. This was gradually destroyed by Yahwism, which first reduced the existence in Sheol to a mere subsistence, and then began to develop its own doctrine of an individual future through the consciousness of an immediate communion with God. The other main thread was the conception of the immortality of the nation in the Messianic kingdom. The synthesis of the hopes of the individual and of the nation resulted, in the third century B. C., in the doctrine of the resurrection. In the first century B. C., the hope of an eternal Messianic kingdom was abandoned and only an extreme individualism was left. But in Christianity a new synthesis appears—this time of the individual and the race, not of the individual and the nation.

Such, in short, is the development. Special attention may be drawn to the two views of Sheol, heathen and Yahwistic—a fruitful distinction. With this go the varying conceptions of body, soul, and spirit in trichotomy and in dichotomy. Further, to the influence, or rather non-influence, of Greek religious ideas, and the isolated influence of Mazdeism. Professor Charles speaks weightily on both these points. As he traces it, the uniqueness of the religious development in Israel and of the final synthesis and culmination in Christianity stands out with force and clearness. On p 214 there is an interesting note on the Messianic meaning of the phrase "Son of Man" in Ethiopic. The treatment of the New Testament circle of ideas is unfortunately very slight, yet the four stages of Paul's development are firmly outlined.

Criticism of the book must either be very incisive or can apply only to details. To many, the impersonal attitude of the writer will be a stumbling-block. He tells what this book says and what that prophet taught, but not what is Catholic truth. This applies even to the words of Jesus; on p. 331 we are told that an expectation of his was falsified. Yet through it all there plays illusively a recognition by Professor Charles of a special revelation, and our question might come to be, Of what? The book is "a critical history," but the attitude will worry the plain man.

For the criticism of details, we have little space left. On pp. 56 and 155 the term "translation" is applied rather bluntly to the vanishing from human ken of Enoch and Elijah. We use that word with a connotation of theological ideas; what ideas did the Hebrews connect with those two events? Especially if we say that Enoch and Elijah were "translated to heaven," we are going too far. Enoch "was not to be found; for God took him"; Elijah was carried up into the sky—that is all we are told, and all the Hebrews were told. What did they think when they heard or read those things? That is the problem. Again, there may have been a well-defined doctrine of immortality in Job's day; it would not have availed a whit to have solved his problem. He would still have flung the causeless deaths of his children, his own unmerited sufferings, and all the misery of the world in the face of the Almighty; such things, no happiness to come could have blotted out. Or, rather, till the mystery of pain was solved, he could have no happiness here or there. What he demanded was an answer to that question and a vindication of his own innocence. Again, to say that the writer of Ecclesiastes "fell back on unbelief and materialism" (p. 72), is too general an expression. He is an absolute, if we cannot say a devout, theist throughout. On p. 73 it might have been worth while to mention that Wellhausen also does not recognize any allusion to a doctrine of immortality in Psalms xlix. and lxxiii. As a final and infinitesimal detail, we note the most curious use on pp. 162 and 204 of "tory" in the sense "conservative." "The still orthodox and tory view found in the Old Testament," reads very queerly indeed.

We look some time for a very much better book on this subject from Professor Charles; he may even in the future be disposed to think that he has published too hastily. But we receive the first-fruits with gratitude, both for its own sake and as an earnest of what is to come.

History of Enfield, Conn., 1679-1850. By Francis Olcott Allen. Vol. I. Philadelphia: The Author. 1900.

If an "apology" were needed for compiling a local history, the fact that three large volumes could be evolved from the annals of one Connecticut town would be sufficient justification. Mr. Allen's 'History of Enfield,' now in process of publication, is a labor of love and of grateful remembrance for the home and State of his ancestors. He has successfully pursued a high ideal—"a complete transcript of all its [Enfield's] official data which would be studied by succeeding generations with increasing veneration for the Founders." These data comprise attested copies of the "Acts and Grants of the Enfield Proprietors' Committee," of land surveys and lay-outs, of town acts and votes from 1693 to 1850. This exhaustive copying is more valuable from the very imperfect character of many of the early entries, making them practically inaccessible to the ordinary reader. Enfield is fortunate in having an absent son with taste, time, and means for such a laborious and costly outlay.

This remarkable array of contemporaneous record is happily prefaced by a general "Historical Sketch of the Town of Enfield," prepared in 1829 by another of its loyal sons, John Chauncey Pease, M.D., enabling us to view the town in progressive stages of development, and from the standpoint of a past generation. The summary of conditions at the close of the town's first century is especially valuable for comparing past and present. Mr. Allen's preference for a "complete transcript of official data," in place of treating salient features in the town's history, limits the reader to literal facts; yet these bare records give ample proof of the poverty of the age and the difficulties attending settlement and expansion. A spirit of neighborly accommodation was early manifested: "Y^{e} Committee laboring y^{e} best they can to sute and accomadate those that first appeare to settle there, And when a man lys bad in y^{e} first field to indeavor to mend him in y^{e} Next." So, also, in excusing settlers from fencing in "all their house lot, which will be hard at first beginning and may be a while indulged." Town meetings for a time were much occupied with devising laws for the collection and protection of turpentine, persons presuming "to gitt it upon any pretense whatsoever to be warned out of town," and if persisting in trespass, "the selectmen to size al this tirpetine so goten for the yous of the town." The perverse ingenuity of the Enfield spelling was remarkable even for those days. Land was reserved for school as well as for ministerial purposes, but no schoolmaster was hired till 1707.

Enfield was settled by emigrants from Massachusetts, and was held by that province till 1749. Dr. Pease characterizes its "secession" as "very remarkable" and "not sufficiently explained"; but dissatisfaction with existing conditions was shown at an early date. The town twice, at least, "by a close voat, doe yeld themselves to be under conettecoat thir government," and ordered "a list of y^{r} Estates" to be given "to harford cort." Its loyalty to Massachusetts was manifested, however, by prompt obedience to military requisition, Enfield sending a large band of young men upon the Cape Breton expedition of 1745, of whom nineteen perished from disease and exposure.

The remaining volumes of this exhaustive history will comprise records of deeds, churches, probate courts, births, marriages, deaths, graveyard inscriptions, etc., etc. They will doubtless include sketches of Enfield's unique Shaker settlement, and of the development of its large manufacturing interests, and of all that is needful for a "complete transcript" of a town which has evoked such a monument of loyal devotion.

Familiar Fish: Their Habits and Capture. By Eugene McCarthy. New York: Appletons.

A few weeks' preliminary angling might be supposed to be the best preparation for reviewing the book before us; but game fish, with all their fixity of general characteristics, are yet so prone to idiosyncrasy in detail that one can scarcely read a paragraph about them without recalling a half-dozen exceptions to any assertion which may be made. To avoid endless discussion, then, one may simply say that Mr. McCarthy is evidently well acquainted with the kinds of fish that he describes, and what he has to say as to their habits and capture will hold good whenever the particular fish you are after does not take it into his head to introduce variations. The book has many good suggestions for the beginner, but something on the line of 'The Compleat Angler,' 'Little Rivers,' or 'Fisherman's Luck' will be a better companion to one who has already made some progress in the angler's art. The author places the leaping ouananiche clearly in the lead as a fighter, assigning, however, a good second to the black bass, which the enthusiastic Dr. Henshall pronounces "inch for inch and pound for pound the gamest fish that swims." On the much-argued question as to the relative gameness of the small-mouthed and large-mouthed black bass, he puts himself on the side of the former, but the present writer has a very distinct recollection that the two hardest-fighting bass ever brought into his net, initial strength and endurance both considered, were large-mouthed, weighing respectively three and a quarter and three and a half pounds. Perhaps it may be taken as established, however, that in point of endurance the small-mouthed generally excels. The lead which it sometimes seems to possess in agility may be largely explained by the fact that it fights nearer the surface. With very few exceptions it will leap from the water at least once before it is brought to net, while the large-mouthed variety sticks to the bottom almost as regularly as the pike, and, of course, the more line one has under water, the more will his perception of the movements of the fish be blunted.

The manuscript of Mr. McCarthy's work passed through the hands of President Jordan of Leland Stanford University, which is, of course, an acceptable guarantee of its accuracy on the scientific side. We should like to ask, however, whether it is true that the muskallonge is found in the upper Ohio valley, as asserted on page 146. The opinion (page 148) that, with the triple hook usually attached to the trolling-spoon, the fish is more apt to strike one hook and knock all aside than would be the case with a double hook, seems hardly reasonable. We should prefer to see the triple hook opposed, if at all, in the interest of the fish rather than the angler. And as for the gang of ten hooks, described and recommended on page 149, neither the law nor the ethics of sportsmanship should give it any quarter whatever.

The book which the average angler wants, a reliable source of information on the modern technique of the art, and a delightful companion for the dozy hour as well, is yet to be written.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alden, R. M. The Art of Debate. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Bradford, C. B. The Brook Trout and the Determined Angler. New York: The E. P. Grow Publishing Co.
Carter, C. F. The Wedding Day in Literature and Art. Dodd, Mead & Co. $2.
Dunn, B. A. Battling for Atlanta. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.25.
Fricker, Dr. K. The Antarctic Regions. London: Swan, Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $3.
Hillegas, H. The Boers in War. Appletons. $1.50.
Hinsdale, Prof. B. A. The Art of Study: A Manual for Teachers and Students of the Science and the Art of Teaching. American Book Co. $1.
Jordan, Prof. D. S., and Kellogg, Prof. V. L. Animal Life: A First Book of Zoölogy. Appletons. $1.20.
Killikelly, Sarah H. Curious Questions in History, Literature, Art, and Social Life. Philadelphia: David McKay. Vol. III. $2.
Lynde, F. A Private Chivalry: A Novel. Appletons. $1.
Mabie, H. W. Essays on Nature and Culture. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.
Nicoll, W. R. The Expositor's Greek Testament. Dodd, Mead & Co. Vol. II. $7.50.
Oberholtzer, E. P. The Referendum in America, Together with Some Chapters on the History of the Initiative and Other Phases of Popular Government in the United States. Scribners. $2.
Padovan, A. I Figli della Gloria. Milano: U. Hoepli.
Quackenbos, J. D. Hypnotism in Mental and Moral Culture. Harpers. $1.25.
Rose, A. McG. Hoch der Kaiser, Myself und Gott. New York: The Abbey Press.
Smith, Charlotte C. Bob Knight's Diary at Poplar Hill School. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.
Tynan, Katharine. The Handsome Brandons. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.50.
Vincent. Prof. W. R. Word Studies in the New Testament. Scribners. Vol. IV. $4.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 20, 1900.

The Week.

There is no end of noble sentiments in the instructions of the President to the Philippines Commission last April which Mr. McKinley, still on the defensive, deems this the proper time in the campaign to make public. The casual reader who should glance hastily through the columns which it occupies, might be inclined to think that the policy laid down seemed very liberal to the natives. The substitution of civil for military government is what everybody desires, and here apparently is the promise of it, but a careful examination shows that it is only in appearance that any radical change is made. The supreme control is really retained in the military government. Take, for example, those "inviolable rules" which the President says "must be imposed upon every division and branch of the government," and which are copied from the Bill of Rights of the Federal Constitution—as that no person shall be deprived of life, liberty, or property without due process of law, and that there shall be a speedy and public trial of offenders. It was only a few days ago that the dispatches from Manila reported the arrest, imprisonment, and release of a leading Filipino without the observance of any one of these inviolable rules. The truth is, that the government of the Philippines under the Taft Commission is practically as arbitrary as it was before the members of that Commission left the United States.

On minor matters, we observe more adroitness than principle in Mr. Bryan's letter of acceptance. He outbids McKinley in the matter of pensions, saying that

> "The pension laws should be construed according to the generous spirit which prompted their passage. The platform very properly reiterates the position taken in 1896, that the fact of enlistment shall be deemed conclusive evidence that the soldier was sound when the Government accepted him. A certificate given now to the health of a person forty years ago, even if easily obtainable, should not have as much weight as the certificate of the medical officer who examined the volunteer with a view of ascertaining his fitness for army service."

One of the things to be put to the credit of McKinley is that he kept in office a Commissioner of Pensions who construed the laws according to the facts before him, and not according to the "generous spirit which prompted their passage," if anybody knows what that was. On the subject of the Nicaraguan Canal, Mr. Bryan goes much beyond the present Administration in the way of disregarding the rights of other Powers interested in the navigation of an Isthmian waterway, and he especially condemns the Hay-Pauncefote treaty because it seeks to conform to existing international obligations. This is not the language of statesmanship, but rather that of a candidate who is not very particular what he says if it will bring him the support of unthinking voters.

Gov. Roosevelt's letter of acceptance comes out strong on the savagery and general "cussedness" of the Filipinos. It is really a painful thing to see an educated man, of gallant and generous impulses, thus take up a railing accusation against people concerning whom he has no first-hand information. He freely compares them to Apaches and the Boxers. He indulges, in fact, in just such sweeping revilings of an enemy as would fall naturally from the lips of an Apache or Boxer. But they are out of place in the mouth of a brave soldier. Gov. Roosevelt has been studying seventeenth-century literature. He ought to remember Selden's rebuke of braggart soldiers who abuse an enemy. The worst of it is that the Governor sets up his own unsupported authority against the men who do know the Filipinos. He is wiser than Dewey and the other naval officers; than Foreman and Worcester and Schurman.

The New York State campaign has opened in the lifeless way which was to have been expected after such a convention as the Democrats held last week. The minority party might have made it one of the most interesting and exciting canvasses for the Governorship which New York has seen in many years, if it had nominated the candidate whom the majority frankly admitted that they dreaded. But when Croker "turned down" Coler and imposed a Tammany ticket upon the Convention, the heart was taken out of the Democratic campaign. Mr. Stanchfield, Croker's choice for the Governorship, betrayed his own sense of the weakness of his candidacy when he devoted his opening speech to the Trusts, and neglected State issues entirely. Meanwhile there is a notable lack of enthusiasm on the other side Mr. Odell is very popular with the professional politicians of his party, but he is not a man to stir the masses if he were to take the stump, and he will not. The Republicans have the issue made for them by the attempt of Croker to control the government of the State as well as that of the municipality, and it is hard to suppose that the Tammany boss has not given them an easy victory after a dull campaign.

Mr. Stanchfield's address at Lyons on Friday (his first appearance since his nomination) will not commend him to voters who do their own thinking. It was wholly devoted to Trusts, department stores, and other combinations of capital. The usual picture of the evils that beset these combinations was presented to the audience, but no remedy was proposed, except for those which are protected by the tariff. Certainly, department stores are not of this class, nor is the Bicycle Trust or the Tanning Trust, which were particularly mentioned. He was easily answered by Mr. Woodruff, who followed him, and who denounced Trusts as volubly as Mr. Stanchfield himself, and who brought forward the Tammany Ice Trust as a familiar *tu quoque*. There may be a certain amount of prejudice in the minds of the agricultural class whom Mr. Stanchfield was addressing, available for campaign purposes; but unless it can be shown that the Democratic party has a remedy for Trusts and department stores which can be put in force by legislation, no man of sense will cast his vote for a Democrat rather than for a Republican on account of them. All talk about the virtues of competition is idle unless you show how to bring it about. The only remedy for Trusts that Mr. Bryan has committed himself to is a law providing that no corporation doing business in any State shall do business in any other State unless it receive a license from the Federal Government, and that this Federal license shall be issued only on condition that the corporation is not a monopoly. This may be considered the Democratic plan of dealing with Trusts, but even this would not reach the department stores. Mr. Stanchfield's speech at the Wayne County Fair was mainly claptrap and not of a very good kind. It is on a par, however, with the "full dinner-pail" that figures so largely in the Republican campaign.

It is an interesting and significant fact that the Republican Congressman in Maine who made the best showing in the race for reëlection, was the one who opposed Imperialism so stoutly in the House of Representatives during the last session. Mr. Littlefield, the new member from the Lewiston district, who has leaped into national prominence by his bold displays of independence at Washington, received a merited reward from his constituents in running ahead of his party's ticket. Moreover, he was easily the most effective orator on the Republican side during the campaign, while the party also profited much from the speeches of Representative McCall of Massachusetts, who led the movement against the Porto Rican tariff, and Senator Hale of Maine, who has opposed the whole

Expansion movement ever since he voted against the treaty of peace and was defeated by Bryan's successful efforts to secure its ratification. The fact that Hale, McCall, and Littlefield were still supporting the Republican party, helped it more than all that was said by the whole company of Expansion orators who went up and down the State.

The cry for the initiative and referendum has been raised again this year, and there seem still to be a good many people who believe that a large part of our ills could be cured by their introduction. The advocates of the change, however, always fail to explain why they should expect voters to take an earnest interest in the referendum as a regular thing when they pay very little attention to the institution as a special thing. At the recent election in Maine, there was submitted an amendment to the Constitution establishing the office of State Auditor. There had been considerable discussion of the question, and a good deal of opposition in the farming towns, because it was feared that another expensive department would be saddled upon the State, to do the work which the Governor's council is employed to do in auditing State bills. The proposition was defeated, but the significant thing is that very little attention was paid to the matter. Penobscot County is probably a fair illustration; out of 15,000 men who voted for Governor, only 3,536 had interest enough in the auditing question to mark their ballots either way. If the average man will not improve the opportunity of the referendum when it comes rarely, it is difficult to see why he should be expected to bother himself about the matter when a host of questions are submitted to him.

Delaware, which went for McKinley in 1896, has been generally thought likely to go for Bryan this year. The Republican party has been split into two factions—the Unionists, controlled by Addicks, and the Regulars, who have been fighting the gas speculator for years. Each faction has nominated a State ticket of its own, and the leaders of the Regulars have been inclined to make no concessions, but their State Committee met on Friday and agreed upon a compromise ticket which seems likely to be accepted by the Unionists. In 1896 McKinley carried Delaware by nearly 4,000 plurality, and when the two Republican factions united on a candidate for Congress in 1898, they elected him by about 2,500 plurality. Two Senatorships are to be disposed of by the Legislature which will be elected this fall, and Addicks is bent upon getting one of them. If he can come to terms with the Regulars, and all hands will then support the State and national tickets, McKinley should stand the better chance of carrying the State. Addicks has a double motive for putting out his money this year, since he not only has the chance of buying a Senatorship, but also needs to carry the State for the Republicans on the Presidential issue to justify the action of the National Convention in "recognizing" him at Philadelphia.

Gov. Roosevelt on Thursday made public his decision dismissing the charges brought against District Attorney Gardiner, and thus retaining Mr. Gardiner in office. The accusations made numbered no fewer than eighty, and the specifications rose to about 2,000. It was inevitable that a great amount of time should be consumed in the hearing, if it had been pressed with all diligence and no unexpected causes of delay had arisen. As it was, one thing after another occurred to drag the case along, with the result of cooling public interest in the matter. The selection of a Commissioner to hear the charges, too, was not happy. Mr. Wilcox not only refrained from expressing any opinion as to whether the evidence justified removal, but virtually acquitted the District Attorney on every count, so far as any serious misconduct was concerned, in many cases dividing the responsibility between him and the judges. Gov. Roosevelt would have made a grave error if he had not dismissed the charges upon the Commissioner's findings. Yet the attempt to secure Mr. Gardiner's removal is entirely justified by the evidence of his misconduct which has been brought out. On the other hand, Gov. Roosevelt must have been glad to avoid displacing a political opponent, since his motives might easily be misrepresented. The incident shows the inherent weakness of the law invoked against Gardiner.

President Mitchell and Organizer James of the United Mine Workers are active in their efforts to force out the men who are operating the Jeddo collieries. These men have an agreement of long standing with their employers, according to which all differences are submitted to arbitration. The men have made certain demands, and have given their employers ten days for consideration. At the end of this period, according to the standing agreement, any matters which have not been satisfactorily settled are to be submitted to a board of arbitration, made up of two arbitrators, one chosen by the men, one by the employers, and a third chosen by these two in case they themselves fail to agree. The officers of the United Mine Workers fear that these men, by continuing to operate their collieries, may break the force of the strike, and the Association is eager to get them out. In doing this the United Mine Workers are giving another instance of that irresponsibility and disregard of contract agreements with employers which has brought trade-unionism and labor organizations into general disfavor all over the country. The Jeddo men are working under an agreement to settle all differences through arbitration, and this is exactly the sort of agreement which the Mine Workers' Association is urging upon all the operators. It is the cardinal principle upon which the miners have insisted in organizing the present strike. But if an agreement of this sort with employers is to be followed only when it pleases the miners to follow it, and disregarded when they choose to disregard it, operators generally are not likely to accept the principle of arbitration on those terms.

In view of the coal strike here, it is interesting to note the condition of the coal-mining industry in England during the last year and a half. In sharp contrast to other industries, the coal trade during this period has been in a very flourishing condition, and the colliery companies have been taking profits and declaring dividends freely. One company, with a capital of a million pounds, wisely distributed only 20 per cent. on the ordinary share capital, placing £100,000 to reserve fund and devoting about £20,000 to other purposes, while keeping in hand undivided profits amounting to £25,246. Another company reports that its profits for the year ending March 31 amounted to £111,498, by far the largest ever earned by the company in any one year, the next largest being £74,765 in the year ended March 31, 1894. Other coal companies report equally great profits. These ample dividends have in some instances occasioned a rise of 150 per cent. or more in the capital value of collieries. There is every evidence in the present situation that this long-continued heavy profit-taking on the part of the mine-owners has become an embarrassing tax upon British industry. The operators themselves realize that they are enjoying abnormal prosperity, but they are naturally indisposed to forego profits by lowering the price of coal gratuitously.

In putting up the price of coal as high as the market allows, the mine-owners have acted in accordance with a well-recognized business principle. It does not appear at all that they have manipulated prices, or attempted to "bull the market." No charges of this sort are brought against them. They have not even limited their output in order to sustain prices. On the contrary, it appears that the collieries have been working to their fullest capacity, and not the least perplexing feature of the situation is found in the fact that at the present high prices—prices considered to be ruinously high for British industry—the coal-mine operators have been literally swamped with orders which they have been unable to fill. Manufacturers have found themselves caught as in a vise between the rising prices of coal at home and the downward pressure of foreign competition in the markets where they must dispose of their commodities. They have felt generally a narrowing of the margin of profits in consequence of this double movement, and the iron and steel men particularly have been experiencing pretty keenly of late the pressure of American competition. In American markets the price of pig-iron and of steel billets has been and is still steadily declining. At the same time stocks on hand in American warehouses have been increasing, and American producers have been watching European markets eagerly, ready to take advantage of any price movements which should enable them to dispose of their superabundant supplies abroad.

The Supreme Court of Massachusetts has handed down an interesting decision in a case arising out of the struggle for supremacy of two labor unions of the same craft. One union undertook to boycott the other by serving notice upon the "bosses," through its official agents, that members of the rival organization were non-union men. This was understood to be a covert threat that the union serving the notice would order a strike against bosses who should continue to employ members of the other union. The Court enjoins such action, which it characterizes as "intolerable and inconsistent with the spirit of our laws," "malicious," "unlawful," and a "conspiracy." But there is a radical difference of opinion among the judges. Chief Justice Holmes stoutly dissents from his brethren on the bench, and declares that, in his opinion, laborers may lawfully employ such means to secure the unity of organization which is necessary to make the contest of labor effectual. He believes it lawful for a body of workmen "to try by combination to get more than they are now getting, although they do it at the expense of their fellows, and to that end to strengthen their union by the boycott and the strike."

Galveston was a city of some 40,000 inhabitants built on an island something like the sand spits that skirt the Great South Bay of Long Island. The land on which it is situated is from five to ten feet above tide level. It is exposed to the full force of the winds and waters of the Gulf of Mexico. Being near the mainland, it is liable to be submerged whenever a wind of great strength and duration banks up the waters against the coast. The city had been assailed by such dangers before, and it was supposed that the worst that could happen by reason of its exposed situation had already happened. This, it seems, was an erroneous conclusion. The storm of September 8 proved to be a West India hurricane of the most appalling description. The force of the wind appears to have been greater than that which devastated Porto Rico last year. It swept the waters of the Gulf westward and piled them up against the coast. It submerged the foundations of the city to the depth of ten feet in many places. It filled all the wells and cisterns with salt water, and saturated the ground itself with salt. The wind blew down houses and filled the air with their débris, killing and wounding men, women, and children who had escaped drowning. It is impossible to picture the calamity in its awful dimensions. It is needless to say that a great part of the means and implements by which the inhabitants gained their bread have been swept away. The warehouses, the shipping, the churches, schools, and hospitals, the goods, the animals, the railroads (in part), the clothing and utensils are gone, and must be replaced. What had been accumulated by the toil and foresight of half a century for man's comfort and necessities has been engulfed by the waters or shattered by the winds.

The returns from the Cuban elections thus far received show that eleven Nationalists, eleven Republicans, and only one representative of the Democratic Union, the party of annexation, have obtained seats in the coming Constitutional Convention. The list of names includes those of some very able men, among others that of Diego Tamayo, one of Gen. Wood's cabinet, and makes it certain that the protestants against the McKinley plan of having the Convention settle the island's relations to the United States will be well represented, if not in control of the new body. The presence of Gen. Ruis Rivera and of the fire-eating Gen. José Aleman will insure some plain speaking, and as a whole the selections will strengthen the widespread expectation of the Americans in Havana that the Convention will fail to do McKinley's will. That the protests against the unheard-of requirement that a Constitutional Convention shall settle the most important foreign relations of the Government which it is called upon to create, are steadily increasing, is made plain by every mail from Cuba. These protests, as well as the orderly elections, are striking testimony to the ability of the Cubans to govern themselves. The friends of free and independent Cuba might well begin to despair if its people calmly submitted to the "recommendations" of the Military Governor, even though these recommendations are made by a major-general commanding the only troops in the island, and therefore smack of despotism.

Negotiations, now formally concluded, for the placing of a $20,000,000 loan of the German Government in New York, again direct attention to the extraordinary change in this country's position in the world's finance. The floating of these obligations, which appear to be similar in character and maturity to the recent Exchequer bond issue of Great Britain, follows similar accommodation extended to or applied for by Russia, Sweden, and England, and creates a wholly new factor in our investment markets. It must be kept carefully in mind, however, that as yet nothing in the nature of a general movement of small investors to put their money into European Government bonds has developed. Securities of the kind, already floated in our money markets, are not bought and sold on the Stock Exchange. There is, as yet, in Wall Street's phraseology, no "open market" for them. Up to the present time, such European Government bonds as have been placed in the New York market have either been taken by banking-houses, to be disposed of later in the most profitable quarter, or have found their way into the investment fund of the large insurance companies. Even the savings banks, which are among the largest buyers of United States national and municipal bonds, are unable under the law to include foreign securities in their assets. Large, therefore, as is the sum of capital already invested or pledged to these European loans—the total to date, including this German issue, not falling much below $70,000,000—it cannot be said that it represents as yet a permanent change in the general investment movement. But the entering of a new field by the large investing corporations is usually an initial step towards distributing similar securities among private hands. It is, therefore, not at all unlikely that before many months the obligations of European states will be bought and sold on American stock exchanges, held in the strong-boxes of small American investors, and quoted daily in the stock lists of the newspapers.

President Loubet of France, as arbitrator of the boundary dispute between the republics of Colombia, Costa Rica, and Nicaragua, has rendered a decision which has an interest for this country. In lieu of Colombia's extreme claim to the entire eastern coast line of the two northern republics, she gains by the arbitration a scant hundred miles on the east coast and nothing on the west. This rearrangement straightens the Colombia-Costa Rica line, which now runs nearly north and south along the Cordillera as a natural boundary. The decision assures to Nicaragua Greytown, the proposed eastern terminus of the Nicaragua interoceanic canal. If it had been turned over to Colombia, which is interested already in the Panama concession, the Nicaragua scheme might have been blocked.

THE PRESIDENT'S PHILIPPINE NOVELTIES.

Mr. McKinley's letter of acceptance brings things new and old out of his treasure, like the householder of Scripture. Some of his new controversial weapons he uses, however, with surprising carelessness. In slashing at his opponents he makes ribbons of his own previous arguments. For example, he now prints a hitherto suppressed dispatch of Dewey's, dated July 25, 1898, and saying, "Merritt's most difficult problem will be how to deal with the insurgents under Aguinaldo, who have become aggressive and even threatening toward our army." "See there," cries the grieved and indignant President, "the insurgents wanted to fight us even before the peace protocol was signed!"

If one could cross-examine this immune witness, many pertinent questions would be asked. Why publish this one of Dewey's dispatches, and keep the rest under lock and key? Why, if Mr. McKinley was thus warned of trouble, did he not take measures to prevent it? Why did he go out West, lay his hand on his heart, and declare that he "never dreamed" the insurgents would attack us? The truth is, that the President, in his eagerness to make a point against the Filipinos, has forgotten the rôle he had before tried to play. This was that of a big-hearted, unsuspecting father of his people, bent only on blessing the islanders. The idea never entered his head that anybody could attack so good a man as he. So he was correspondingly thunder-struck when the ungrateful dastards assaulted their benefactor. But now he drops this simple-minded, grandfatherly mask, and tells us he was from the first warned of Filipino machinations. "I knew from the beginning that they were treacherous," he protests, not seeing that, in the act, he makes himself out a negligent and napping commander-in-chief.

But the whole thing is a pure Presidential afterthought. Mark how plain a tale shall put down this belated invention. Gen. Merritt's problem was to deal with the insurgents, was it? They were spoiling for a fight even in July, were they? Well, what did Merritt himself say to the Paris Commissioners in October? He was specifically asked if the Filipinos were disposed to make trouble, and roundly replied, "I think there is no danger of conflict." And Senator Frye has publicly declared on this very subject, "Nobody dreamed of any trouble when we were in Paris. Gen. Whittier and Gen. Merritt were before our committee, and testified that the *most cordial feeling* existed between the Tagalos and the United States troops." This leaves the author of the letter of acceptance looking very like a detected manipulator of the evidence.

Mr. McKinley, however, has another argument in reserve just as good. What put an end to the "cordial feeling"? Certainly it was not the peace treaty, the President asserts. Those who maintain that it was have "forgotten," he declares triumphantly, that "before the treaty was ratified . . . the insurgents attacked the American army." Yes, but possibly other things have also been forgotten The President may have forgotten that he, before the treaty was ratified (six weeks before), issued a proclamation to the Filipinos asserting that the cession of the islands was complete, and that our military government would be extended to "the whole" of Philippine territory. He may have forgotten that this proclamation was a gross violation of the Constitution, void both in morals and in law. He may have forgotten that, irrespective of the legal aspect of the proclamation, it was drawn in such an excess of wantonly tyrannical language that Gen. Otis was alarmed, and tried to suppress it, fearing that its publication would drive the Filipinos to instant insurrection. It was published by accident, and the insurrection followed. All these facts Mr. McKinley may have forgotten, but the future historian will not forget them; neither will he forget to characterize the conduct of a ruler who tried to shuffle away from the consequences of his own inconsiderate action.

The President's remaining Philippine novelties may be quickly dismissed. After deprecating the "exaggerated phrase-making" of those opposed to him, he tries his own hand at phrase-making, with the following result: "The American people will not make the murderers of our soldiers the agents of the Republic." Perhaps not, but the American President is, on his own showing, doing just that. Does he not, in another part of his letter, record with satisfaction the number of insurgent officers who have surrendered and taken the oath of allegiance? Have not many of these "murderers" taken office and so become "agents of the Republic"? And would not McKinley jump at the chance to bribe the lot of them with appointments? Phrase-making, indeed! More of it, and equally hollow, we see in Mr. McKinley's cool assumption that he is consulting the wishes of the "majority" of the Filipinos. What proof does he give of this—what facts—what figures? Not a shred. The accessible evidence is certainly the other way. But what does the President really mean? If a plébiscite showed that a majority of the inhabitants wished American rule withdrawn, would he withdraw it? Of course not. He has asserted that the islands are "ours," willy-nilly, and the desires of the natives go for nothing. Thus we see that all his talk about majority and minority, whether well based statistically or not, is pure claptrap, phrase-making of the most transparent kind.

One brief remark is necessary concerning the President's knowledge of the international laws of war. He gives fresh and official currency to the parrot cry that Dewey's squadron, after destroying the Spanish fleet, could not have been ordered away. "Whither would they ["our adversaries"] have directed it to sail? What port in the Orient was open to it?" The answer is, it should have been directed to sail for San Francisco, and any port would have been open to it for coaling purposes. Senator Sewell, who begged the President to order Dewey home, could have enlightened Mr. McKinley's ignorance on this point. Remember, Dewey reported his squadron uninjured; he probably had or could have helped himself in Manila to enough coal to steam at least to Honolulu; if not, he could have supplied himself at Hong Kong, at Port Arthur, at Nagasaki. The rule is, that belligerent cruisers may take on in neutral ports "so much coal as may be sufficient to carry them to the nearest port of their country, or to some nearer destination." Could not Dewey have done in a port of the Orient what Cervera did at Curaçao? The President's pretence that he could not is only a part of that beating of the air with which he protests against the political opposition of those who, as he tearfully complains, "rushed" him on to the war with Spain.

AN EXPERT ON THE PHILIPPINES.

Mr. John Foreman is conceded to be the prime authority on the Philippine Islands. A resident in the archipelago for eleven years; continuously acquainted with the natives for twenty; a frequent visitor to various islands of the group; possessed of a more intimate knowledge of Filipino character and a larger circle of friends and correspondents among the inhabitants than any foreigner living; the historian *par excellence* of land and people, he is a qualified expert to whom we are bound to listen. Certainly there is no need to labor this point with Republicans. He is their own witness, and they dare not try to discredit him. Professor Worcester, of both Philippine Commissions, constantly bows in his own book to the authority of Foreman. He was especially summoned to Paris by our Peace Commissioners as the very man to guide their uncertain steps aright. *Experto crede.*

What has this candid friend and recognized authority to say of the American experiment in the Philippines, so far as it has gone? An article in the September number of the *National Review* contains his views. It ought to be reprinted as a campaign document, for the sake of giving the American people some real and really unprejudiced information. Epitomizing what Mr. Foreman says, we find him of the belief that America, through gross mismanagement, has got into a frightful "dilemma" in the

Philippines, and is in danger of making herself "the laughing stock of Europe." Owing to the ignorance and blundering of our authorities, the overbearing conduct of our troops, and the failure to live up to the first principles of colonization, we have made a sad mess of it in the Philippines. This, be it observed, is quite irrespective of the policy of our taking the islands in the first place. Mr. Foreman, in fact, rather favored our taking them, but he never dreamed that we should display such ineptitude in trying to govern them. The present situation and outlook he thus defines:

> "The Americans barely occupy one-five-hundredth part of the total area of the archipelago, in places inaccessible by water. . . . They occupy, in fact, just as much as they can defend by force of arms. . . . Under the circumstances, the probability of the Americans ever gaining the sympathy and acquiescence of the natives is very remote. Unless the Americans are prepared to maintain a large permanent army in the islands, there seems to be no prospect of their ever being able to administer the interior of the archipelago."

On this precise point we pause to cite another bit of unimpeachable testimony. It is from the *Army and Navy Journal*, which says:

> "A correspondent writes us from the Philippines that he doesn't see how the force can be reduced in the Philippines this year, at least, and he is an officer of much experience in the archipelago. Every one, he says, is homesick. There is fighting in nearly every island, and officers and men are being picked off every day. It is going to take a long time, he thinks, to settle the question."

Yet Judge Taft is quoted by Mr. Frederick Palmer, in *Collier's Weekly*, as saying in so many words: "It is certain that we cannot long maintain 65,000 American troops in these islands. *The people of the United States will not stand the expense.*"

There, then, is the dilemma, which has resulted, Mr. Foreman says, from the ignorance of "the Washington political wiseacres." By reason of their "wavering policy," we are now "witnessing a sorry spectacle of useless bloodshed, which, 'for the sake of humanity,' we should be glad to see brought to a speedy close through any legitimate channel." Well, *que faire?* Mr. Foreman's plan would be for the United States gradually and conditionally to withdraw from the islands. He would have us control the foreign trade of the archipelago; retain naval stations as might be agreed; even ask the Filipinos (but surely we should be ashamed to do this) to reimburse us for the $20,000,000 which, in an evil hour, we paid for them and their lands. These details are comparatively unimportant. The main thing is that this chief Philippine expert considers American occupation of the archipelago a demonstrated fiasco, and that the proper thing for America now to do is to "extricate herself with honor."

Mr. Foreman scarcely alludes to American partisan politics. For all that appears in his article, he does not know that the subject of it is a burning question in a Presidential campaign. He writes, not to aid this or that party, or this or that candidate, but to urge the solution of a great problem near his heart. What he sees is that our Philippine policy was misconceived from the beginning, and that misery has stalked behind it from the first. Philippine agriculture and industry have been ruined. Filipino sentiment has been outraged. "Independence or death or perpetual warfare" is the fixed policy of the abler and educated natives. Something must be done. What Mr. Foreman would do is, as has been seen, very like what Mr. Schurz would do, not dissimilar to the plan which Mr. Bryan has said he favors. This, we are aware, is enough to condemn it utterly until the campaign is over; afterwards, it may be, even Republicans will admit that Mr. Foreman speaks not only with authority, but with truth and soberness.

STANDING FOR OFFICE.

When George Washington "proposed" himself to the electors of Frederick County, Virginia, as a candidate for the House of Burgesses, he was but following an age-long political custom of the English race. We see its survival in nearly full vigor in England to-day. Sir Edward Clarke made himself obnoxious to his Conservative party chiefs by his opposition to Chamberlain's Transvaal policy, and it is a question if he can secure a seat in the next Parliament. He has recently announced, however, that he will "stand" for one of the London constituencies. Similarly, the Right Hon. Horace Plunkett, who has done so much for the agricultural renaissance of Ireland, has become suspect of party irregularity, in the eyes of the Unionist managers, and they threaten to turn him out of his Irish seat. He appealed to Mr. Balfour, who, in a manly letter, advised him, no matter what the party agents might do, to "throw himself" upon the electors.

There we have the old and honorable way of seeking office. Men of parts, men of public spirit, men of laudable ambition, ask their neighbors, or their fellow-citizens of a wider than local circumscription, for an opportunity to serve the commonwealth. It is a frank and open proceeding. The appeal is primarily, of course, to common political sentiments—the *idem sentire de republica*—and party coöperation is usually implied. But it is the directness and simplicity of this way of getting a candidate before the voters which long endeared the name and the act of "standing for office" to American political affections. It was a part of our "career open to talent." We used religiously to teach our boys that, to eloquence and ability and character, the doors of political preferment would swing wide on oiled hinges. At any rate, the ambitious youth might rest assured that it would be wholly a question between him and the voters. He might freely "announce" himself a candidate, might decide to "stand" for a given office at the ensuing election, and nothing would then come between him and the verdict of his fellow-freemen.

We have changed all that—how completely, the defeat of Mr. Coler in the Democratic Convention comes freshly to bite into our minds. He was a man who had the audacity to say that he would stand for office if the people wanted him, and hell hath no fury like the bosses who fell upon and slaughtered him. It is not necessary to make a hero of Mr. Coler, or to insist that he is of the stuff of which political reformers are made. We say nothing about that. But no one can deny his ability, no one can dispute his great public services as Comptroller, no one but the chivalrous Roosevelt can question his courage. If we hold to Aristotle's definition of courage as great and noble in proportion to the object which calls it out, we shall have to reckon the courage of an ambitious young man who openly defies the corrupt boss of his party, as many degrees higher than that of a military hero who waxes valiant in the stricken field, but puts his legs meekly under *his* boss's breakfast-table. This high and fine political courage has certainly been displayed by Mr. Coler. He also struck out in the bold initiative—though it was, as we have said, only a return to nobler manners—of declaring that he sought his nomination, not from the bosses, but from the people.

No need to ask further for the reason of the extraordinary rage which such a candidacy aroused in the bosoms of both Platt and Croker. It was a blow at their common system. Once permit it to be seen that a man could "stand for office" in the free air of heaven, instead of crawling for office to 49 Broadway or to Croker's Club, and the boss business would be shaken to its foundations. Croker had special personal reasons for hating a man who had publicly referred to the smell of corruption on his gold, but both bosses worked hand in glove to compass the defeat of the impudent fellow who denied their divine right to bestow office. Their wrath was the wrath of a caste imperilled, a privilege assailed, a monopoly infringed upon. Like two mediæval brigands, the two bosses had apportioned the field of plunder. Dick Turpin was to rob coaches in the city; Black Tom was to waylay horsemen in the country roads. No wonder that they both thrust their pistols into the face of a man who called this ancient right of theirs "commercialism in politics." Dropping figures drawn from the highwayman's pursuits, trippingly though they fall from the tongue in speaking of our political methods, we may say that the fury of the bosses against Mr. Coler is very like that of the "King's Friends" against Wilkes a century and a half ago. Burke applied his keen analysis to the "violent rage for the punishment of Mr. Wilkes," and his conclusion was: "The point to be gained by the cabal was this: that the precedent should be established tending to show that *the favor of the people was not so sure a road as the favor of the court even to popular honors and popular trusts.*"

Does not this language exactly, almost startlingly, fit the situation to-day as Croker and Platt have made it? They are the court, the cabal, arrogantly asserting the right to distribute every political favor, and they will move heaven and earth rather than allow it to appear that a man can obtain office without crouching and creeping to them. That is the great lesson of Mr. Coler's defeat. Croker would wreck his party rather than let the masses of it nominate a man for Governor who did not wear a brand on his shoulder showing that he had served his time in the boss's galleys. This looks like a reckless and brutal proceeding, but Croker is quite right. It is a sure instinct which leads him and Platt to reserve a superheated hatred for any ambitious man who dares to consult the people without first consulting the boss. To tolerate this would be as fatal as it would have been for the silversmiths of Ephesus to allow the apostles to preach against idolatry. "This our trade is in danger," cried the image-makers, and "This our trade is in danger" is what the bosses shriek, blanched with fear, when they see a brave man appealing over their heads to the people direct.

This humiliating subjection of American freemen has gone on long, and there are few signs of their immediate escape from the thraldom. Mr. Coler, even, seems cowed. If he had not hastened to capitulate to his "party"—to a herd of cattle, that is, driven under Croker's lash—he might have put himself at the head of a movement which would have swept the State, to the confusion of both bosses. Some day, however, we shall find a man who will be bold enough and wise enough to throw himself upon the voters for election as Governor, as well as for nomination as Governor. That would be to stand for office in good old American fashion. As it is, every candidate for office in this State seems to think that the curse of the serpent in Eden is a stringent command laid upon himself: Upon thy belly shalt thou go, and dust shalt thou eat all the days of thy life.

THE PROHIBITION EPISODE IN MAINE.

The most curious and dramatic episode of the State election in Maine on September 11 was the contest for Sheriff in Cumberland County, which includes the city of Portland. In the face of large majorities for the other Republican candidates for State and local offices, Oren T. Despeaux, the nominee for Sheriff, was defeated by the Prohibition candidate, the Rev. Samuel F. Pearson of Portland.

Mr. Despeaux was elected Sheriff in 1898 by a plurality of 2,163, carrying eighteen of the twenty-six cities and towns in the county. His plurality in Portland was 772. In a total vote of 13,376, the Republican candidate received 7,299, as against 5,136 for the Democratic candidate, and 941 for Mr. Pearson, who was the Prohibition candidate in that year also. This year Mr. Pearson was elected by a plurality of 461, receiving 6,425 votes out of a total of 16,977. Of the votes for Mr. Pearson, Portland furnished 3,323—the same number, curiously enough, that it cast for Mr. Despeaux in 1898. For the other county offices the Republican candidates were elected by pluralities of over 4,000 in each case. The opposition to Mr. Despeaux, and, in consequence, the remarkable gains for the Prohibitionists, came largely from Republicans, many of whom voted the straight Prohibition ticket rather than take the chances of having their ballots thrown out as defective.

So remarkable a political upheaval has not occurred in Maine since the time of the Greenback campaign, when the Republicans lost the State, twenty years ago. Its immediate occasion, however, is entirely local, and is to be found mainly in the widespread dissatisfaction with the administration of the prohibitory liquor law in Cumberland County during the last two years. The bearing of the recent contest upon the liquor situation in Maine is so close, however, and its revelations of the state of public opinion on that subject so striking, as to give to the election in this particular more than local significance.

The history of the enforcement of the "Maine law" in recent years has been one of ups and downs, in which the increasing disregard for both the letter and the spirit of the law has been the feature of most prominence. By all candid observers the prohibitory law has long been seen to be a failure so far as the honest and effective regulation of the liquor traffic is concerned, while the general regard for it is unquestionably less to-day than ever before. As a natural consequence, the declining respect for the law has been accompanied by a widespread disposition to use it to maintain political influence and exact official blackmail. The sale of liquor by such persons as could pay well for the privilege has, in general, been allowed, while the rigors of the law have been visited upon those who failed to contribute the prescribed quota, or who, for any reason, incurred the disfavor of the officials temporarily in power. The amount of liquor fines turned into the various county treasuries annually is now very large, and has come to be an item of recognized importance in county finances; but since the fines in individual cases are usually $100 and costs, the actual régime in the State has for years been one of low license. Maine, in other words, has the benefits neither of prohibition nor of a well-administered license system, and the Republican party, which is responsible for the failure to give the people a chance to adopt some other plan, is widely charged with virtual alliance with the liquor interests, and with dependence upon the contributions of liquor-dealers, both within and without the State, for a large part of its campaign funds.

The laxity in the enforcement of the prohibitory law has not, however, been received with uniform acquiescence by the people, and a too outrageous disregard of the law has been more than once resented at the polls. The overturn in Cumberland County is the most striking recent manifestation of popular disgust with official corruption. A rigorous enforcement of the law in 1894 nearly cost the then Sheriff his reëlection, and for the next two years the expression at the polls was interpreted as a popular mandate in favor of a more "liberal" policy. The continuance of "liberalism" for two years more, however, brought the voters to the verge of revolt, and some of the men who were urging his election in 1898 on the ground that he would give the law a fair and reasonable interpretation, helped defeat Mr. Despeaux in 1900.

The administration of the liquor law throughout the county during the past two years has been a stench in the nostrils of decent people. A number of hotels in Portland have, within that period, set up and maintained open bars, while several smaller houses have derived their chief income from liquor sales. Liquor has been freely sold in saloons and stores all over the city, and at the restaurant of the Union Railway Station. In the larger towns of the county, outside of Portland, substantially similar conditions obtain, and in at least one large town the deputy sheriff himself is charged with having a pecuniary interest in a local saloon. The repeated efforts of prominent and influential citizens to close some of the worst resorts, and even to secure the abatement of disreputable houses, have met with scant attention and little success; suspension of business for a brief period being, in general, the most that could be obtained. In consequence of this "open-door" policy, the personal income of the Sheriff has reached a high figure, a conservative estimate of the value of the office fixing the income at $25,000 a year. That the receipts of the county have also been largely swelled is true, as is the further fact that the fee system, under which this large income is possible, is the creation of the Legislature, and, consequently, something for which the Sheriff is not responsible; but neither of these considerations avails to shake the firm belief of the public that the legitimate income of the Sheriff has been greatly increased by systematic exactions from liquor-dealers and from the proprietors of other illegal resorts.

If the people of Cumberland County really want a thorough-going and bona-fide enforcement of the prohibitory law for the next two years, a better chance of their getting it now exists than has for a long time been the case. Mr. Pearson, the Sheriff-elect, is a pronounced temperance advocate, and a man of force, vigor, and undoubted sincerity. His public pledges, given during the campaign, have been plain and explicit. There is little in the recent overturn, however, to indicate that a thorough-going enforcement of the law will meet with popular approval. What the people have protested against is systematic and unblushing protection of the liquor business for the financial profit of the Sheriff and his deputies; but there is small reason to believe that they will long accept a régime of strict enforcement. How Mr. Pearson will construe the popular mandate, when he has learned what the public really want, remains to be seen. If, before the end of his term, the devil of free rum and alleged "public sentiment" does not take him up on to a high mountain, and show him all the advantages and profit of compromise, it will be a new thing in the history of prohibition in Maine.

STRETENSK TO LAKE BAIKAL.

IRKUTSK, SIBERIA, August 18, 1900.

Stretensk is the present head of navigation on the Amur River—or, rather, of its principal branch, the Shilka. There the Trans-Siberian Railway now ends, connecting with boats for the lower part of the river. For short periods each year, however, the Shilka is navigable to Tchita, two hundred miles farther up, where the total elevation above the sea is 2,400 feet. In former times a vast amount of traffic floated down the river from this point during high water. Now the railroad carries it all on to Stretensk, which has rapidly grown to be a town of 7,000 inhabitants.

When we reached the place on the 5th of August, it was little else than a military camp. The war came on a year too soon for Russia. The railroad through Mantchuria branches off at Budaloffskia, about 150 miles west. Not only, however, is it not completed, but the Chinese have destroyed the part that has been built, so that there is no overland route for Russia to the field of action, except by way of Stretensk and the Amur. Below Stretensk the country is so rugged for 500 miles that there is not even a wagon-road, but only a bridle-path, and that a difficult one; so that, except when the river is frozen or in a full stage of water, this distance is practically impassable for an army.

The latter part of July and the month of August furnish the period of best navigation. The Russians are therefore hurrying forward troops with all possible speed, and are making use of every available week of transportation down the river. Altogether there are about forty steamers and twice as many barges running on this portion of the stream. On our way up, we met the entire fleet, carrying, as we estimated, about 15,000 soldiers. They had been delayed by low water. As it would, at the shortest, be two weeks before they could return for another load, resort was had to rafts and barges, hastily constructed for the occasion, which were set adrift to float down the current, being guided by huge oars projecting from the sides, and to some extent propelled by that means. These singular objects, loaded with soldiers and baggage-wagons and horses, seemed to transport us back to classic times when oars were the sole reliance in propelling battleships. At Stretensk hundreds of these rafts were being fitted up for immediate use. And they would all be needed; for the congestion at this point is bound to increase until the close of navigation. Since leaving the river, we have met regularly two long trains of soldiers every day, each carrying about 15,000 soldiers. Two weeks have now elapsed and still the stream continues. At Lake Baikal to-day we have witnessed the embarkation of two regiments upon the immense steam ferryboat which temporarily makes connection across the lake. Thirty freight-cars, with horses and provisions, and 1,500 soldiers were taken aboard at each trip, to be landed at the station on the other side, near the mouth of the Selenga River, about fifty miles distant.

This boat has been in use only a few weeks. Indeed, the railroad from Lake Baikal eastward has been opened only during the present year, and only a part of that time for regular passenger trains. Just what success it will have in the winter, and during the uncertain conditions before and after, remains to be seen. The crossing of Lake Baikal is one of the most difficult problems the engineers of the Trans-Siberian Railway have had. The entire southern end of the lake is surrounded by precipitous mountains, which are well-nigh impassable. A survey, however, has been made, but it involves the expenditure of a fabulous amount of money, and the plans cannot be carried out short of four or five years. Meanwhile, during the season of navigation, the transporting capacity of the road is limited by that of the ferriage across the lake. At present, there is only the one large boat which can carry trains, and it can make only two trips a day. There are smaller steamers, but their capacity is limited. Regular passengers are still transferred on these. Perhaps, however, this is because the entire service of the large steamer is now demanded by the army.

This steam-ferry, the *Baikal*, was made in England and put together here. It is 350 feet long, and wide enough to accommodate three railroad tracks side by side. It draws twenty feet of water, and its machinery is all below. An upper story furnishes state-rooms and dining-halls, while its upper deck easily accommodates a thousand soldiers. Under present conditions, it is a great success, but, as before remarked, how it will get along during the extraordinarily cold winter of this region, is a problem which must be regarded with much solicitude.

The distance from Stretensk to Lake Baikal is about 600 miles. The road is new, and, at the fastest, the Siberian trains run slow. We were three days of running time in making the distance. But the cars are very convenient and comfortable, and the eating-houses provide the traveller with the best of meals at about half the cost in the United States. There are first, second, and third-class coaches. The mass of the people ride in the third-class, at a charge of three-quarters of a cent per mile, for short distances, with liberal reductions on through rates. The third-class coaches are all provided with sleeping accommodations for each passenger. To be sure, it is only a hard plank, but it is ample in extent, and every one in Russia is expected to carry his own pillow and blanket. The second-class passengers have nicely upholstered seats which are readily transformed into beds, but they too must provide their own covering, as also must those of the first class. The sole advantage possessed by the first-class passengers is that when there are enough of them to occupy a section, a party can be secluded from the rest. There is no charge for the sleeping accommodations. The charge for second-class tickets is about twice that for the third-class, and for the first-class about three times that for the third-class.

The railway from Stretensk to Lake Baikal passes over the continental divide of Asia, rising to about 4,000 feet a little west of Tchita. The Yablonovoy Mountains, forming the crest of this divide, run southwest to northeast, extending continuously from Mongolia to Bering Strait. On the southeast they are bordered by a plateau about 2,500 feet above the sea. This is here about 200 miles wide, and possesses a climate and flora of its own, both of which are favorable to human settlement. All grains ripen readily when there is sufficient water, and everywhere on the uplands there is good pasturage. Immense herds of cattle were visible almost everywhere from the car-windows. Though the good land is by no means all occupied, there is already in Transbaikalia a population of about 700,000.

Nertchinsk, the first principal town passed through west of Stretensk, has been for two hundred years a centre of mining operations, to which the Government has sent convicts sentenced to hard labor. The city has a population of 6,700, and the department of 91,000. Tchita, a city of 12,000, where we stopped two days, is the capital of the province. One is surprised not only at the beauty of its situation, but at the fertility of the surrounding country. The railway is adding greatly to its importance. Its public and school buildings are numerous and imposing, but its streets are entirely without pavements. The territory from Tchita to Lake Baikal consists in the main of a plateau, 300 miles wide and about 5,000 feet above the sea, in which the headwaters of the Amur, the Lena, and the Yenesei take their rise at a common level. This tract is bleak and well-nigh uninhabitable. It, too, extends from the plains of Mongolia to the vicinity of Bering Strait. But the rivers have deeply eroded its surface, and furnished in their courses long lines of fertile fields. These are specially open to settlement towards the south. The railroad strikes over the eastern border into the valley of the Kylok, and for two hundred miles finds productive lands, congenial climate, and prosperous settlements. At Petroffsky we found a large and flourishing village gathered about a blast-furnace. The iron ore was near by, and the mountains furnished wood for charcoal to an unlimited extent. h

At Verkne Udinsk on the Selenga River we struck the great caravan route from Kalgan, China, across Mongolia. Over this route for hundreds of years the tea and many other commodities used in Russia have been brought on camels' backs. The city has a population of 8,000, and in midwinter is the scene of an enormous fair, at which millions of dollars' worth of goods are sold every year. Heretofore the best time to cross Lake Baikal and for travelling in general in this region has been in the winter, when it is frozen over. But all this will be rapidly changed now that the railroad is an accomplished fact.

We are apt to forget that this whole region has been the scene of some of the world's greatest historical events. It was in the valley of the Onon, which enters the Shilka above Nertchinsk, that in the twelfth century Genghis Khan originated. With its conquering tribes, this remarkable man overran China to the East, and Turkestan and Russia to the west, setting in motion the forces which drove the Turks into Europe. His conquests still profoundly affect the political questions awaiting the twentieth century. And now again it is a Mantchurian dynasty in China that is drawing the armies of the whole civilized world to a great contest on the shores of the Pacific. The tramp, tramp, tramp of these forces is continually in our ears, and their patriotic songs greet us at all times of day and night as they reverse the order of the thirteenth century, and go on their way to establish European dominion in the Far East.

G. FREDERICK WRIGHT.

THE PARIS COPYRIGHT CONGRESS.

PARIS, July, 1900.

The twenty-second international congress of literary and artistic property was held at Paris from July 16 to 21, inclusive, as one of the series of congresses being held in that city in connection with the Universal Exposition. The first of these copyright congresses was organized and held at Paris in 1878, during the Exposition of that year, and a second reunion took place in Paris during the Exposition of 1889. This year's congress was, therefore, the third which has been held in that city. In the intervening years there have been annual reunions in Amsterdam, Antwerp, Barcelona, Berne, Brussels, Dresden, Geneva, Heidelberg, Lisbon, London, Madrid, Milan, Monaco, Neuchâtel, Rome, Turin, Venice, and Vienna.

The fact that this Congress was only one in so extensive a series (one hundred and twenty-seven congresses) to be covered between the dates of May 24 and October 13, partly accounted, doubtless, for its having less of an official and formal aspect than the previous annual congresses held outside of France. It was strictly a working congress, with no unnecessary ceremonial, and with only a sufficient social and recreative programme to give one a pleasant sense of hospitality proffered and the needed rest and diversion between sessions. Needless speech-making was dispensed with, and, for the *usual proceeding of each official delegate* publicly presenting his credentials, as it were, in a short speech, there was substituted the selection of two delegates—M. Paul Wauwermans of Belgium (a speaker of some oratorical power), to speak in the name of the official delegates as a body, and M. Djuvara, the Rumanian Minister, in behalf of the larger contingent of other foreign attendants.

To encourage the attendance of persons interested, a special arrangement was made whereby, instead of the usual requirement of the membership dues of the Association Littéraire et Artistique Internationale and an additional attendance fee, one admission fee only, of twenty-five francs, was made available to any person "in the literary or artistic world" who should be presented by a member of any one of the twenty literary, artistic, or press associations under whose united auspices the Congress was held. Persons thus admitted not only were allowed to participate in the public sessions of the Congress, but were invited to be present at the social functions. In this connection it may be mentioned that neither official nor ordinary attendance included "dead-head" privileges. The membership card gave free admission only to the sessions of the Congress (not to the Exposition) when these were held within the Exposition grounds, and, in addition, to the special exhibition of the city of Paris. Twice, however, the members of the Congress were invited to special exhibits, and on those occasions membership cards gave admission to the Exposition grounds.

In the way of social entertainment something was provided for each day: Monday evening, reserved seats—largely unoccupied, owing to the great heat—at one of the theatres, where a classical performance was given; Tuesday afternoon, excursion to Chantilly—now the summer home of the Institute of France—with time for a detailed examination of the château and the treasures of the Musée Condé, in addition to a drive in the great forest, luncheon, and dinner; Wednesday, soirée at the home of the Minister of Public Works, where one was agreeably surprised to see the size and beauty of the gardens hidden behind the forbidding façades of the ancient aristocratic Faubourg St.-Germain; Thursday, five-o'clock reception—speeches and buffet lunch—at the Hôtel de Ville, and an inspection of the gorgeously decorated rooms; Friday, dinner given by M. Pouillet, President of the Association and of the Congress, in a restaurant on the first platform of the Eiffel Tower, with the fairy-like scene of the illuminated Exposition grounds spread out below; and, finally, on Saturday, an excursion by steamer down the Seine to Sèvres, with a visit to the famous manufactory, and a late dinner on the terrace at Bellevue, returning by river through the brilliantly lighted fair grounds.

The sessions of the Congress were not held at the Palais des Congrès, within the Exposition grounds, but at the "Hôtel du livre" of the Cercle de la Librairie, a noticeable structure at the east end of the Boulevard Saint-Germain, designed by Garnier, the architect of the Grand Opera-house. The large hall used for the public sessions was a handsome apartment, very suitable for the purpose, while smaller rooms served for committee meetings, etc. The attendance—affected by the exceptional heat experienced during the week of the Congress, and the counter attractions offered by the Exposition—was not large, rarely exceeding fifty to sixty persons at any one session, and varying greatly. The international official representation was not so great as might have been expected, eight nations only sending accredited delegates: Belgium, Paul Wauwermans; Ecuador, Pallares Arteta; France, Alexandre Chaumat, from the Ministry of Justice, M. Lanel, from the Ministry of State, and MM. Desjardin, Lionel Laroze, and Poupinel, from the Ministry of Public Instruction; Mexico, Gustavo Baz, Sres. Contrevas and Ireneo Paz; Norway, Stand Lund; Russia, M. Pilenko; Spain, Sres. Calzado and De Huertas; the United States, Thorvald Solberg. In addition to these, the German and Swiss representation was of a quasi-official character, the contingent from Germany including, among several delegates, Dr. Albert Osterrieth of Berlin, who has been a prominent figure in previous congresses for several years, while from Switzerland the Berne International Copyright Bureau was represented by its highly honored director, M. Henri Morel, and its First and Second Secretaries, Prof. Ernest Röthlisberger and M Léon Poinsard. England was again conspicuous by the absence of any representative. Italy, though not officially represented, indicated her lively interest in copyright matters by the strength of her delegation. Unofficial representatives were also present from Brazil, Japan, Monaco, and Rumania.

As Parisian literary celebrities had distinguished previous copyright congresses by their presence, their non-attendance at this Congress—with the exception of certain juridical writers of note interested in copyright—was noticeable, and an unexpected disappointment, although it was not difficult to understand why Parisians should shun the capital during a period of such unusually high temperature and the anomalous conditions incident to the great Fair. The novelist, Marcel Prévost, was to have delivered the address of welcome, but was prevented by illness. M. Georges Leygues, the Minister of Public Instruction, presided at the formal opening session. It was, as has been stated already, a working congress. Committee sessions began at 8:30 o'clock, and the working-day extended to four or five o'clock, with intermission only for "déjeuner." The committee meetings, open to such members of the Congress as were interested, were very informal, the chief workers sitting around a large oval table in the centre of the room, with others grouped about, and afforded opportunity for an interesting exhibition of French vivacity and warmth of discussion, tempered by unfailing courtesy and good humor.

Instead of the usual long and varied programme, it was wisely planned to concentrate the attention of the Congress more especially upon one important subject for discussion, viz., the text of a proposed typical law for the protection of literary and artistic property. A paper by M. Édouard Mack, entitled, "Du domaine public payant," dealing with the question of the rights inherent in literary and artistic works after the expiration of the statutory term of protection, was read; but although considerable interest was shown, the Congress came to no conclusions concerning this important subject, referring the matter for further consideration to some future congress. The sessions of one day were devoted to considering the present status of copyright in various countries, papers or oral reports being submitted for Austria-Hungary, by Dr. Carl Junker (summarized by Professor Röthlisberger); Germany, by Dr. Osterrieth; Italy, by Sig. Ferrucio Foá; Japan, by M. Saburo Yamada of Tokio; Rumania, by his Excellency T. G. Djuvara; Russia, by M. Pilenko; Spain, by Señor de Huertas; Switzerland, by M. Léon Poinsard; the United States, by the Register of Copyrights. A brief notice of the Convention of Montevideo—the copyright union of the Latin-American countries—was submitted by M. Alcide Darras of Paris.

The special feature of the Congress, as previously stated, was the evolution of the text for a "type" law of copyright. The programme was admirably arranged to eliminate from the public sessions (*séances plénières*) unnecessary debate by providing four preliminary, informal sessions devoted to a free discussion of the subject by writers, dramatists, composers, artists, and publishers, in its relation, respectively, to literary, dramatic, musical, and artistic productions, and the adequate legal protection for each, followed by three general sessions in which each article of the proposed law was separately read, discussed, and voted upon. The theme was not new. In previous annual conferences of the Association Littéraire et Artistique Internationale the subject had been threshed over upon reports presented at Dresden, 1895; Berne, 1896; Monaco, 1897; and Turin, 1898. At this last Congress the matter was referred to a committee of twenty-four, under the chairmanship of M. Pouillet. This body was fairly representative of the various interests involved, even architects and engineers being represented. Special recognition is due, in this connection, to M. Georges Maillard, the editor of *Annales de la Propriété Industrielle, Artistique et Littéraire*, for his persevering and intelligent labor, extending over a series of years, in collating the material regarding this question, and for his excellent presentation of it. The text submitted to the Congress was made up from the various votes and resolutions after careful comparison. It was discussed with warm and sustained interest, amended in several particulars, and adopted by affirmative vote on each article. Want of space prevents at this time more than a brief summarizing of the principles embodied, but I hope to return to this important document later. For the sake of brevity, related provisions are brought together without regard to deviation from the order of the paragraphs in the text adopted.

The principal provisions of this proposed model law may be summarized as follows: The *author* of a work of the intellect—without regard to his nationality, or the place of first publication of his production—has the exclusive right to publish or reproduce it, by whatever process, in whatever form, or for whatever purpose. This right applies to all manifestations of thought, written or spoken, including contributions to the press, dramatic, musical, and choregraphic productions, and all works of graphic and plastic art, independent of their merit, use, or destination. The exercise of this right should not be subordinated to the accomplishment of any formalities whatever. Collaborators have equal rights in their common work, unless there should be stipulations to the contrary; and in the case of an author dying without heirs, his part accrues to the benefit of the other joint authors or their heirs. The author's exclusive right covers all reproduction, in whole or in part, made without his consent, as well as translation, representation, and public performance, abridgment, adaptation, illustration, additions, alterations, dramatization of novels, or transformation of plays into novels. Reproduction by means of another art, rearrangement of music, and reproduction of music by musical instruments, and any such reproduction without his consent or the consent of his heirs, are illegal.

Short citations from a published work—with proper credit given—and reproductions of Parliamentary debates and addresses delivered at public meetings, for the purpose of criticism, discussion, information, or education, are permissible, and laws and judicial decisions are held not to be subject to copyright.

The author's right of reproduction is held to be independent of the right of property in the material object, and the cession of the latter does not carry with it the transference of the right of reproduction. The cession of any rights appertaining to an author is to be restrictively interpreted. The term of copyright is the life of the author and eighty years after his death; in the case of joint authors, eighty years after the death of the last survivor; and for anonymous and posthumous works, eighty years from the first authorized publication. This acceptance of the principle of a statutory limitation of the term of protection was not acquiesced in without demur on the part of those in favor of the perpetuity of copyright. The period fixed upon is that contained in the most liberal modern legislation embodying a limitation of the term of protection, namely, that of Spain.

In the case of illegal reproduction, the confiscation of plates and other articles pertaining to the infringement, and, upon unauthorized representation or public performance, seizure of the total receipts, shall be made for the benefit of the author or his heirs.

The proposed law differs most widely from legislation now in force in its careful provisions for enforcing the "moral rights" of an author. It is held that an author has the right to make known his authorship and to seek the protection of the courts against its usurpation; and that ceding his right of reproduction does not deprive him of the right to sue an infringer, or to scrutinize the reproduction of his book, and to oppose all modifications made without his consent, or to oppose the public exhibition of his work if changed against his will; and, after the author's death, in default of a proxy previously appointed by himself, his heirs have the power to insist that these moral rights shall be respected. No modification shall be made in a work after the author's death without notification to the public. Any trespass on these rights of an author, or the usurpation of his name, or any fraudulent imitation of his signature or distinctive mark adopted by him, shall be just cause for an action for damages, and, if wilfully made, for a penal suit.

Among the miscellaneous resolutions voted by the Congress were several relating to the possible amendment of the Berne Copyright Convention. The changes desired are in the direction of international protection for architectural works upon the same basis as that of other works of art; direct stipulation that the transfer of a work of art shall not involve the assignment of the right of reproduction; and the provision that the usurpation of an artist's name, or any distinctive mark adopted by him, shall be subject to criminal-law penalties. It was also thought that it would be preferable to abrogate all special copyright treaties entered into before the International Copyright Union was formed, retaining in force only such provisions in the special treaties as secure more favorable conditions than the articles of the Berne Convention; and that, as the coexistence of special treaties and the Berne Convention complicated to no purpose the protection in force within the Union, such special treaties should be discouraged and a definite effort be made at the next diplomatic conference for the revision of the Berne Treaty, to have incorporated into its text all provisions in special treaties more favorable than the stipulations of the Berne Convention. But if special treaties are entered into, they should contain no stipulations *less* favorable than the concurrent provisions of the laws of the contracting countries.

The desire was expressed by formal vote that the principal countries not yet within the Berne Union, notably Austria, Denmark, Hungary, the Netherlands, Rumania, Russia, Sweden, the United States, and the Spanish-American republics, be urged by the Executive Committee to become members of that Union. It was proposed also that the Treaty of Montevideo be studied in comparison with the stipulations of the Berne Convention with a view to obtain the adhesion of the South American republics to the latter.

There was some criticism of the provisions of the United States laws in force, and a special vote was passed expressing the hope that Congress would repeal all such provisions in the present law as debarred the United States from entry into the Berne Union.

Expressions of sympathy were voted in recognition of the efforts being made to amend and enlarge copyright protection in various countries—Austria-Hungary, Germany, Italy, Rumania, and Switzerland. Among the miscellaneous resolutions passed, it was held that photographic works should be accorded the same protection given to graphic and plastic works of art; that the reproduction of press dispatches pure and simple be forbidden when it assumes the character of unfair competition, and that it should be a recognized principle that the artist has a right to demand the affixing of his name to his work.

The printed bibliography of the Congress is unusually meagre. Besides M. G. Maillard's 'Loi-type,' and Édouard Mack's pamphlet on 'Du Domaine public payant,' there is a 4-page leaflet, 'Sur le projet de réforme de la loi italienne [of copyright],' by Dr. Ferrucio Foá, and two Bulletins of the Association Littéraire et Artistique (3e série, No. 10), "Documents et Rapports," three monographs: "Du droit moral de l'auteur sur ses créations," by Jules Lermina, Édouard Mack, G. Maillard, and A. Vaunois; "De la protection des œuvres de l'art appliqué," by E. Soleau; "De la protection des œuvres scientifiques," by G. L. Pesce; (3e série, No. 11), containing a useful summary and index of the reports of the Association from December, 1878, to July, 1900, by M. Lermina, Secretary, a preface by President Pouillet, the statutes and by-laws, and a list of the members.

The next Congress will meet at St. Petersburg in 1901.

Correspondence.

MR. BRYAN'S CONSISTENCY.

To the Editor of the Nation:

SIR: In your paper of the 6th inst., I notice the remark that Mr. Bryan's support of the Spanish war, and his favoring the ratification of the peace treaty, and "some other things," prevent your crediting him with sincerity in his recent utterances with regard to the policy of our country toward the Philippine Islands. You also say that Mr. Bryan is the only prominent Democrat who has professed such sentiments, and that there is nothing to indicate that his party is behind him.

Permit me to call your attention to the fact that a year ago, in this very town, Mr. Bryan was professing the same sentiments. His address at Indianapolis was the same in substance with his speech here of a year ago. On that occasion Mr. Bryan was asked in my presence whether it was not probable that the Republican policy would be reversed, and that party declare in favor of the eventual independence of the islands. His answer was:

> "I wish it might be so. I am not partisan enough to wish any advantage from what I regard as a menace of disaster to my country, but I do not consider it possible that the commercialism now dominant in the Republican organization will permit it. They would fear too much to be called to account for the money and lives already expended in holding the islands."

Mr. Bryan and his supporters made the campaign in this State a year ago upon this issue. Of his persistence and sincerity in it there can be no question. What the "other things" are which you mentioned I, of course, do not know, but that Mr. Bryan if elected would be able and determined to reverse the present Philippine policy seems to me beyond cavil. Enough Republicans would be glad to drop it.—Yours,

W. G. HASTINGS.

WILBER, NEBRASKA, September 12, 1900.

THE CURE FOR THE IMPERIAL DOG-BITE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

SIR: The Republican voters who deplore many past results of our course in the Philippine Islands, but whose convictions coincide with the general policy of their party, are asked by the *Nation* to transfer or withhold their votes by reason of the paramount importance of the particular feature above indicated.

It is apparently conceded that such voters are justified in regarding the Democratic candidate as pledged to carry out inexorably a financial policy which is not merely dangerous to prosperity, but subversive of national honor, and also as asserting views of social organization which are antagonistic to law and order.

The allegation, however, is, that the dangers of Imperialism are so pressing as to *justify acquiescence* in the success of such a *candidate; and, moreover,* that by placing him and his party in power these dangers would be averted.

The former position has heretofore received more attention than the latter, to the detriment, it would seem, of a comprehensive view, for it would be a sorry thing to make the sacrifice without a reasonable certainty of the desired result. It is of primary importance, therefore, to consider dispassionately whether a Democratic victory will, on the whole, tend to eradicate the alleged dangers.

The *Nation*, of course, uses the term "Imperialism" not as a mere campaign epithet, but as indicating the maintenance of a government, at present wholly external, but with the bona-fide intention of admitting the governed to progressive participation therein—a participation whose extent shall, it is true, be determined by ourselves, but which shall be as full as other responsibilities will permit.

The objections to this, or any other form of government not wholly proceeding from the governed class, lie in the danger of actual injustice to the subject and of injury to his self-respect, on the one hand, and, on the other, in the possibly graver danger of destructive reaction upon the morals and political ideals of the dominant class.

Now, can it be doubted that the tendency of the Democratic party, throughout the relatively large portion of our country where it is supreme, has been and is directly towards domestic Imperialism? Is it not the frankly avowed purpose of the most sincere and upright Southern Democrat to exclude practically a whole race, heretofore recognized as full citizens, from participation either in local or in general government? And does not every Imperialistic danger, both to the governed and to the dominant race, lurk in the policy thus asserted?

It would be unprofitable, in a communication of this character, to discuss the question whether the exclusion of the Southern negro from political rights may not be, on the whole, beneficial to him as well as to the community. So, also, would it be unprofitable to dilate upon the safety of Philippine interests in the hands of a Commission whose personnel is admirable, and whose charter of powers embodies our own Bill of Rights as an organic condition of the grant. The practical question is, whether the Democratic party, wherever it is in full control, is not wedded to a policy which is really Imperialism under another name.

Admitting that the Imperialistic spirit, in any form, is to be regarded with the greatest apprehension, shall we eradicate it by intrusting our Government to a party wherein so large an element fosters that spirit as a permanent and essential condition? The negro question of the future is not a mere sentimental reminiscence of past conflicts, but a social and political problem, fully as grave as that presented by the Philippine situation.

It would seem that the Republican voters to whom the *Nation* addresses its undoubtedly forcible persuasions, must choose between stepping backward, *towards* domestic Imperialism, as an ultimate goal, or stepping forward, *beyond* Imperialism, towards substantial self-government in our foreign possessions. Other things being equal, one might well prefer the party whose principles have heretofore been based on that view of human things which makes permanent Imperialism impossible; but, in the present case, other things are far from equal, for a Democratic victory means domestic Imperialism, plus Bryanism.—Very truly yours,

JOSEPH C. FRALEY.

PHILADELPHIA, September 11, 1900.

[Our correspondent is quite right in identifying the spirit of slavery (or that which disfranchises a black man on any ground for which it will not disfranchise a white) with the McKinley spirit that insists on ruling the Filipinos *vi et armis* for their own good. He is obviously quite wrong in choosing the Republican party as an instrument for suppressing Imperialism in the Philippines. It is Senator Hoar's way, but there is no more sense in it than there would be in choosing the Democratic party as an instrument for restoring equal political rights at the South. And what does Mr. Fraley's Republican party propose to do about *that?*—ED. NATION.]

GOVERNMENT BY INJUNCTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

SIR: Your comments, in your issue of September 6, upon Mr. Bryan's "unimpeachable" references to government by injunction in his Labor Day speech in this city compel me to draw your attention to some other publications on that subject, as I like to have the *Nation* agree with me, and additional information and thought may cause you to change your views.

The first is an opinion by the Supreme Court of Appeals of Virginia (Carter vs. Commonwealth, 45 L. R. A., 310). The question in the case was whether a legislative act prescribing that contempts of court should not be punished without a jury deprived the court of jurisdiction to punish the contempt without the intervention of a jury. The Court said, in its opinion: "In public apprehension the Legislature is deemed in a peculiar sense the agent and representative of the people," but "a court and judge thereof is as much an agent and servant of the people as any other officer of government." Moreover, "in the courts created by the Constitution there is an inherent power of self-defence and self-preservation," and "this power may be regulated but cannot be destroyed, or so far diminished as to be rendered ineffectual by legislative enactment"; "the inherent power of courts created by the Constitution to enforce respect and obedience by punishing contempts without a jury trial cannot be taken away by the Legislature."

The Supreme Court of this State recently said: "If the Legislature by inadvertence assumes the exercise of a power belonging to the judicial department, it should only be necessary to call their attention to the restraint imposed by the Constitution."

The law as to injunction in labor disputes was pretty well settled by the United States Supreme Court in the case of E. V. Debs (158 U. S. 564), and I had always understood that nothing was passed by Congress changing that law for the reason that the lawyers of that body could see no way of doing it.

A very good exposition of this question from a layman's point of view was given in the *Nation*, No. 1683, page 256, and I am only sorry that your paper has now gotten so far from the views therein expressed.

My own opinion is, that there would be more danger to the institutions of this country from a serious and thorough attempt to change the law on "government by injunction" than there is from "Imperialism"—and I am as much of an Anti-Imperialist as need be.

Yours truly, JAMES A. MILLER.

CHICAGO, September 10, 1900.

[It is one thing for a court to punish an act of contempt committed in its presence, or by a particular person who has been commanded to do or refrain from doing a specified act. It is another thing for a court to enjoin all creation from violating the law or disturbing the peace. Sheriffs and constables ought to preserve order, and it is plain enough that if courts of equity undertake this task, the political consequences may be disastrous.—ED. NATION.]

WAS THE TRANSVAAL A FOREIGN STATE?

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. Allison will find that the character of the Transvaal as a foreign state was distinctly recognized in the case of the Jameson Raiders, who were tried under the Foreign Enlistment Act for fitting out an expedition against a foreign state friendly to the British Government.

I did not say that any women and children had been turned out to perish. I deprecated the farm-burning policy of the violent party in England, as tending to that result. An English journal compares their proposals to the proceedings of Weyler in Cuba. EQUITY.

September 15, 1900.

Notes.

John Morley's study of Oliver Cromwell now running in the *Century* will be brought out in book form by the Century Co. during the autumn.

Next month Macmillan Co. will have ready 'In the Palace of the King,' a love story of old Madrid, by F. Marion Crawford; and 'America's Economic Supremacy,' by Brooks Adams, is just appearing.

Ginn & Co. publish directly 'The Beginnings of English Literature,' by Prof. Charlton M. Lewis of Yale.

The rubricated edition of Sterne's 'Sentimental Journey' just issued by Dodd, Mead & Co. is handsome in the main, but lapses from the nicest taste in its overweight of black and red in the running-title. "Arranged, designed, and printed by the University Press, Cambridge, U. S. A.," we read on the verso of the title-leaf; and this vouches for a degree of excellence in the typography sufficient to satisfy the ordinary purchaser.

Prof. J. B. Thayer of the Harvard Law School has brought out a second edition of his 'Selection of Cases on Evidence at the Common Law' (Cambridge: Charles W. Sever & Co.). This book, which may now be considered a companion volume of the author's recently published treatise on Evidence, has already attained (partly through its notes and partly through its arrangement) a distinct and enviable independent standing as a book of the law. It is, of course, primarily for students, but, as it has often proved in other cases, the book for students has turned out to be also the book for practitioners. In the present edition the size of the volume is not much increased, but many changes and improvements have been made.

With volume vii., Prof. J. B. Bury completes his scholarly edition of Gibbon's 'History of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire' (London: Methuen & Co.; New York: Macmillan). The appendix is comparatively brief, and is most valuable for its enumeration of sources regarding the siege of Constantinople unknown to Gibbon; yet these sum up in weight disproportionately to their number. Mrs. Bury has compiled the index, which fills more than sixty pages.

It is amazing how long it takes the military glories of the present Administration to penetrate the cyclopædias. Here is the Rev. James Wood's 'Nuttall Encyclopædia,' in its twentieth thousand (London and New York: Frederick Warne & Co.), which admits Col. Bryan—but purely for his civic prominence—while never a mention is made of Roosevelt, Miles, or Otis, of Dewey or Sampson, of Lodge or Long. Such unstrenuous characters, on the other hand, as Henry James and John Fiske, Howells and "Uncle Remus," and Bret Harte, have, by some "pull" or conspiracy, forced their way in. The warriors, however, are neglected along with many American men of science and poets, as was to be expected in an English encyclopædia. We turn next to the prominent figures in the South African revolution, and here Dr. Jameson's name "leads all the rest." He gets 18 lines for himself and his "ill-fated" expedition, while Kitchener gets 16, Chamberlain 11, Cecil Rhodes 10, Roberts 9, and Krüger 7. The work has the shortcomings inevitable from its size, but will be useful to many who can afford nothing larger.

All three of the Presidential candidates who genuinely divide public attention figure in the volume of 'Patriotic Eloquence relating to the Spanish-American War and its Issues,' compiled by two professors of elocution, Messrs. Robert I. Fulton and Thomas C. Trueblood (Scribners). Sufficiently full examples are given in 340 pages, from Lyman Abbott to Henry Watterson and Senator Wolcott. Senator Lodge would probably not allow Senator Hoar's eloquence to be patriotic. Both are represented, along with Bourke Cockran, Chauncey Depew, Secretary Long, Whitelaw Reid, Carl Schurz, Charles Emory Smith, Henry van Dyke, and many others, including even Sir Wilfred Laurier. Biographical notices are appended, and such has been the aptness of the selections (generally revised as well as often pointed out by the respective orators) that the compilation is really a useful campaign text-book.

The E. P. Grow Publishing Co. send out a pretty little volume on the Brook Trout, by Charles Barker Bradford. There is not much of the literary quality in it, but the angler will find enough of practical value to make it a welcome addition to his library. Its most interesting feature is a description, or rather series of descriptions, of a trout region in the Pocono Mountains of Pennsylvania. D. W. C. Farrington contributes a few pages of humorous "Trout Truths," which contain more of the real essence of angling than many an entire volume. For instance, "The desire for fishing is like some diseases, in attacking a man with great severity without notice." Or, "A cloudy day is best except when they rise better on a bright sunny one. They also often bite well when it rains." A letter of hearty appreciation from ex-President Cleveland is reproduced in miniature.

The younger generation, lay or medical, naturally places greater stress upon the efficacy of medication than do those with a wider horizon of experience, who see that guiding rather than forcing brings back aberrant health. The elders recognize how much disease is self-inflicted by unconscious violations of the laws of physiology, and Dr. George S. Keith's 'Plea for a Simpler Life' (London: Black; New York: Macmillan) is an appeal, especially to the British public, to eat and drink less, and to his profession to assist nature by inculcating abstinence (miscalled starving), by the internal and external use of heat, by placing a true estimate upon some of the extract-foods, and by narrowing the limits of gross therapeutics. He does not discard medicine, but he is not its servant. Bound within the same covers is another essay, infelicitously entitled "Fads of an Old Physician." "Fad" implies a whim rather than a principle, and is an unworthy name to apply to the serious convictions which illustrate the general doctrines of the 'Plea.' Taken together, these papers are the conclusions upon modes of life of an educated physician of advanced age, expressed in plain language; and, with the allowance that every intelligent reader should make in applying general rules to his particular case, they are worthy of careful attention by those who desire to maintain or to regain health under the conditions that surround the well-to-do.

Dr. W. L. Pyle's 'Manual of Personal Hygiene' (Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders & Co.) is a group of collaborated essays upon the maintenance of health. They are unequal in literary and in practical value, and as a whole do not seem well adapted to instruct the laity or to inspire their guardians. They teach no heresy; but to be ill-adapted to a special purpose a paper does not require to be untrue.

The Massachusetts Historical Society's thirteenth volume (New Series) of Proceedings contains the record of meetings from March, 1899, to February, 1900, as well as several papers of interest and of permanent value. President Charles Francis Adams's belated inaugural address on "Historians and Historical Societies" we noticed at the time of its delivery. We have also made mention of Mr. Adams's other contribution on the detention of the Laird rams by the British Government in October, 1863, in correction of the late L. E. Chittenden's 'Recollections.' An early attempt at colonization in the Bahama Islands is described by Mr. John T. Hassam, and an error in the resolution of Congress admitting Missouri into the Union by Lucien Carr. An illustrated paper by Andrew McFarland Davis treats of "Occult Methods of Protecting the Currency; Sewall's Mnemonic Lines and their Interpretation." Still other contributions are "The Record of the Council of Massachusetts during the Presidency of Joseph Dudley," "Extracts from the Diary of Increase Mather, made by Jeremy Belknap," and some curious original documents from the apparently inexhaustible collection of the Winthrop papers. There are biographical notices of Clement Hugh Hill, by C. C. Smith; of Charles Francis Adams, by his son and namesake; and of Gen. Francis A. Walker, by F. C. Lowell, each with a portrait. A certain tenderness for Grant's memory is shown by the suppression of his name (p. 135) in connection with Mr. Hill's dismissal from the Assistant United States District-Attorneyship on account of his part in the prosecution in the District "Safe Burglary Case." The informal tributes paid to the memory of Chief-Justice Field, Professor Dunbar, John C. Ropes, and other deceased members are reported in full. Students should be made aware that the papers of the late S. P. Chase have been deposited with the Society on conditions set forth by Chase's biographer, Prof. Albert B. Hart (p. 378). A heliotype of the new and elegant building of the Society on the Fenway, in Boston, forms a frontispiece to the volume.

It seems almost reactionary, in a pictorial and "kodak" age, to find no provision made for photographs in the tourists' vade-mecum, 'Places I Have Visited,' just issued by Dodd, Mead & Co. This blank book allots four pages to items respecting date of visit, company, stay, historic or literary associations, incidents of the journey, and general impressions. Photographs might be inserted to a limited extent without warping the book, which is well adapted for its purpose otherwise.

On October 1 is to be issued in Brooklyn the *New York Latin Leaflet*, weekly, "devoted to the High-School-College Entrance Scholarship Fund." The Latin teachers who conduct it will primarily discuss "Latin or Greek topics touching the secondary field of Latin and Greek instruction." The fund above named is intended to reach the sum of at least $6,000, yielding $250 or $300 for an annual award, "on a competitive examination, to the most successful candidate from the high schools of Greater New York." The *Leaflet* may be addressed at Eastern District High School, Driggs Avenue and South Third Street, Brooklyn.

In the forthcoming October number of the *American Historical Review*, Prof. George L. Burr will have an article on the Guiana boundary, reviewing the fresh evidence upon the subject brought forward in the case and counter-case of Great Britain and Venezuela before the arbitral tribunal at Paris. In the same number a possibly unique document, of much interest in the social history of the period to which it relates, is the Diary of John Harrower, an *indented servant* (Scotsman, or rather Shetlander) serving as a schoolmaster in Virginia, 1773-1776.

The making over of New England is a curious subject of study. Externally, the civil war was the cause of the multiplication of soldiers' monuments, of all shades of badness and with rare successes; often set in such flagrant disregard of the surroundings as to ruin the harmony of a rural village. Then came the public-library movement, and if some of the new buildings jarred on the sense of fitness as did the soldiers' monuments, not infrequently an old homestead was adapted to the new use, *and perhaps the majority of fresh designs have been ornamental.* Methuen, Mass., has been fortunate in both these particulars, and exhibits, besides, a new departure in a costly and imposing Washington Monument, designed by Thomas Ball. Neither this structure nor the well-conceived soldiers' monument, nor the Memorial Library, appears to deface the handsome old town, which also boasts some pretentious private estates. The subject is treated with numerous illustrations in the *New Englander* for September, by Charles H. Oliphant.

Some months antecedent to their complete reporting on the total eclipse of last May, so successfully observed in our Southern States, from New Orleans to Norfolk, in Spain and Portugal, and in Algiers and Tripoli, astronomers are already preparing for another and far longer obscuration, which, if fortune and the weather favor them, will be the longest eclipse ever observed. In a recent number of *Nature*, Dr. J. J. A. Muller, President of the Royal Natural History Society of Batavia, Java, presents some preliminary statements regarding the regions to be visited by this exceptional phenomemon, which lasts for no less than six and one-half minutes on the west coast of Sumatra, on the 18th of May, 1901. Padang is the largest city within the path of totality, and a railway leads into the interior. Localities in Borneo afford stations of less value in point of length of the eclipse; and the same is true of Celebes and the Moluccas. The Society, following the initiative of an American astronomer in the eclipses of 1893 and 1896, has been collecting data referring to the conditions of the weather and cloudiness at a number of very suitable stations, and full information is offered as to the choice of localities. Observers may be sure to receive every available assistance from the local authorities and officials in the Dutch colonies.

The appreciative account of the United States educational exhibit at the Paris Exposition, from the competent pen of M. Gabriel Compayré (*Revue Pédagogique*, August 15), may, for many busy readers, prove a welcome substitute for the two volumes of monographs prepared in this country as a complement of the exhibit. The value of this publication, however, may be inferred from the fact that M. Compayré recommends its translation into French.

—'Side Lights on the Reign of Terror' (John Lane) is a translation of the memoirs of Mlle. des Écherolles, a work originally printed for family friends under the title, 'Quelques Années de ma Vie.' Lamartine thought highly of it, and one can understand his admiration, for it is the kind of book which is likely to find favor with persons of sympathy and imagination. The demand for fresh recitals of adventure during the years 1792-94 is constant, and points to an interesting condition of the public mind. Amid the wars and tumults of mediæval Italy, the poet sighed for the peaceful days of the Good Augustus. Now, in the midst of great ease and comfort, there is a disposition to recall the excitement and the ghastly tragedies of the Terror. When the issue of new books on this subject is suspended, an old volume of memoirs, which has been half or wholly forgotten, is produced from the stack of some large library, is translated, illustrated with photogravures, and reprinted with the positive certainty of a sale. The autobiography of Mlle. des Écherolles belongs to the class which we have just described. It is a tale of personal vicissitude, wholly devoid of political character or literary association, and dependent for its success on the ingredients of peril and unexpected escape. The heroine was a daughter of Étienne François des Écherolles, a distinguished officer of the monarchy, who sympathized with the early aims of the Revolution and became a commander in the National Guard. When the radicals gained control, he, like many others of Feuillant tendency, drifted toward reaction, left Paris for Lyons, and took part in the resistance of that town to the republican forces. The siege of Lyons is an episode of some moment in the history of the Revolution, and it fills the chief place among the historical events which are described by Mlle. des Écherolles. After the troops of the Convention had entered the conquered city, M. des Écherolles was condemned, and escaped only after he had survived some remarkable dangers. For instance, he was imbedded in a mattress upon which his devoted hostess lay during a visit of search officers. His daughter, owing probably to her extreme youth, was spared, but remained an object of suspicion and endured great privations from poverty. A comparatively unexciting but valuable part of the book is that which describes the routine of life in the Provinces during the Revolution. Mlle. des Écherolles finally left France and entered the service of the Duchess of Würtemberg. Her reminiscences create a pleasant impression by their simplicity of tone, while the amount of domestic detail which they furnish places them in the class of historical materials.

—In his 'Light from the East, or the Witness of the Monuments' (London: Eyre & Spottiswoode, 1899), the Rev. C. J. Ball takes occasion to discuss the Phœnician alphabet, and to present, in a somewhat new shape, the argument for its Babylonian origin. Since De Rougé propounded his theory of the Egyptian derivation of the alphabet, some half century since, it has been the generally accepted belief that it was derived either from the Egyptian hieroglyphic or the Egyptian hieratic characters. In De Rougé's time, practically the only script more ancient than the Phœnician of which scholars had knowledge, was the Egyptian. The close commercial connection of Phœnicians and Egyptians, and the borrowing of the former from the latter in the spheres of religion and art, the recognized antiquity of the Egyptian script, and the fact that out of that Egyptian script there had been developed in Egypt itself something approximating to an alphabet of twenty-five characters, led De Rougé to identify the twenty-two letters of the Phœnician alphabet with the same number of Egyptian signs. With the information then available it was natural that he should have made such an identification. Increased knowledge, the result of recent explorations and discoveries, has rendered necessary a reconsideration of De Rougé's theory. Besides the ancient Egyptian hieroglyphic and hieratic scripts, known in De Rougé's time, we now have the Babylonian cuneiform, the script of the Hittite monuments, and the recently discovered linear writings of Crete (not to speak of the Cypriote characters), known to have been in existence in regions with which the Phœnicians were in contact earlier than the earliest monuments in Phœnician characters yet discovered. The argument of probability which led De Rougé to seek for the origin of the Phœnician alphabet in Egypt would seem, as a result more particularly of the discoveries of the Tel el-Amarna tablets, to point at present toward Babylonia. About 1400 B. C., as those tablets show, all the kings and rulers of Palestine and Syria, including the Phœnicians, made use, in their official correspondence at least, of the Babylonian cuneiform script and the Babylonian language. After this there is a blank, so far as our present knowledge is concerned, of some three or four centuries, during which we have no written records of any sort from this region. About the tenth century B. C., we find a fully developed alphabet in use among Phœnicians, Armæans, Moabites, and, presumably, all the kindred and neighboring peoples of Palestine and Syria, as well as in Greece, and each people writing its own language in this so-called Phœnician alphabet. In view of the kinship between the languages of Phœnicia and Babylonia, in view of the close connection between Babylonia and the western coast-lands of Asia, from a very early period, and especially in view of the use of the Babylonian script and language in those regions in the fourteenth century B. C., proved by the Tel el-Amarna tablets, it would seem not unnatural to suppose that the so-called Phœnician alphabet was developed out of Babylonian rather than Egyptian characters. This Mr. Ball endeavors to prove to have been the fact.

—He is not the first who has presented such a theory; but the increased knowledge of the old Babylonian characters, resulting from recent discoveries, enables him to make a better presentation of the theory than any of his predecessors. He presents a comparative table of the rival theories, the oldest known forms of Phœnician and Aramæan characters occupying the central column, with the Babylonian originals proposed by him to the left, and the Egyptian hieroglyphic or hieratic originals, suggested by De Rougé and his successors, on the right. Allowing for the tendency in all such lists to strengthen one's argument by an involuntary modification and assimilation of signs, it must be said that the old Babylonian characters chosen by Ball resemble much more closely the oldest forms of the Phœnician letters than do the Egyptian characters proposed by De Rougé and his followers. But still more important than the resemblance of forms is the resemblance in the names of the characters. It used to be assumed that the names of the Phœnician characters, as they have been handed down to us in Hebrew, are words, and that these words were the names of the letters in use among Phœnicians and Aramæans, as well as Hebrews. From Phœnician and Aramæan sources we have no names for the letters, while the Arabic and Ethiopic make use of an entirely different set of names, based, in the case of the Arabic, on the sounds of the letters only, and quite without significance. Some few of the letter names, as we now have them in the Hebrew, are, in fact, actual words, but by far the greater portion cannot be so explained, even by the most indiscriminate appeal to Aramaic and Arabic to help out our Hebrew. De Rougé's Egyptian theory offered no explanation whatever of these curious letter names. Ball explains them by derivation from the names of the Babylonian characters. He might have made his argument still more effective by a fuller comparison of the Greek names of the letters, which, while substantially identical as to the first syllable with the Hebrew names, were never developed, like the latter, into the similitude of words. He does, however, suggest this comparison. According to his theory, the original letter names were biliteral. For instance, the original of the Greek letter name *gamma* and the Hebrew letter name *gimel* was the syllable *gam*, or *gim*, or rather *g—m*, with an indeterminate vowel; Hebrew *beth*, Greek *beta*, is derived from the Babylonian *bat* or *bit*; *daleth* or *delta* from *da* or *dal*, etc. On the negative side Ball's table and his argument together are almost, if not quite, convincing against the Egyptian theory; on the positive side he certainly presents a very plausible case for the Babylonian origin of the alphabet. It must be remembered, however, that the Hittite inscriptions have not yet been satisfactorily deciphered, and that we do not know either the contents of those inscriptions or the affinities of the script in which they are written, while the recent discovery in Crete of tablets written in linear characters not related, apparently, to Babylonian cuneiform, Egyptian hieroglyphics, or Hittite, and antedating the earliest known inscriptions in the Phœnician alphabet, some account of which discovery appeared in the *Nation* of August 16, suggests new possibilities, and warns us to be cautious in our theories, in view of the extent of our present ignorance.

—Twenty years ago an organized attempt was made to grapple with the problem of rural education in France. A commission of inquiry was appointed by the Government, and, as one result of its report, chairs of agriculture were established in every Department for the purpose of training teachers—not to become agricultural experts, but to fit them for the duties of a village school by giving them practical instruction in agriculture and particularly horticulture. Six years after this, agricultural instruction was made obligatory in all primary schools. It is too soon to look for definite results from the new system, especially considering the two great obstacles of the ignorance and parsimony of the school boards, and the early age (eleven) at which all but a few children leave school. Many teachers, however, are doing excellent work, as is shown by a correspondent of the London *Times*. In the village of Olivet, for instance, in a school of 140 children, in addition to the theoretical lessons which all receive, the forty elder boys are taught, after school hours, budding, grafting, pruning, planting, etc. "All the trees and vines grafted by the pupils are their own property, and they may take them to their homes." Five times in the season visits are made to nurseries or farms, the walk being made the occasion for collecting plants and insects, or for a lesson in land-surveying. "Each child has a collection of dried plants, which are studied from various points of view and their beneficial or harmful properties explained. In the school museum to which the children contribute, there are 150 varieties of insects, classified either according to their good qualities or according to the injury they do to the vine, cereals, vegetables, fruit trees, forest trees, forage plants, and rose trees and flowers." Perhaps the most practical benefit arises from the fact that "almost every school has a good garden." These gardens, although the exclusive property of the teachers, are frequently used for demonstrations, and sometimes are cultivated by the children. It not infrequently happens that the school garden is the best in the village, thus demonstrating to the farmer, who knows nothing of science or theory, the value of intelligence in cultivating the ground. Great encouragement is given to the teachers of these rural schools by the prizes of money, medals, and books offered every year by the Government and the various agricultural societies.

—Negro civilization seems to have reached its highest stage at the present time among the Hausas of Nigeria, judging from the description by an English missionary of their principal town, Kano. A city of some 100,000 inhabitants, it lies foursquare, and is twelve or fourteen miles in circumference. A wall forty feet high and a moat eight feet broad surround it, the wall being enormously thick at the base, but tapering to a foot at the top. In it are thirteen gates, closed, at sunset, with massive wooden doors, well covered with strips of iron, against which are propped two huge beams, as there is neither lock nor key in Kano. Within the walls not a house was visible at first, nothing but field upon field of cultivated land upon which the people rely for food in the event of protracted siege. Through these the traveller passed for (apparently) two miles, when he came to broad thoroughfares lined with houses "splendidly made, although mud is the only material used there for building purposes," as timber is exceedingly scarce. These streets consist of two wide, level pathways with a vast hollow stretching between them from which the mud for building has been excavated. These hollows are generally cultivated; and as the houses stand in courtyards full of shade trees, the town has the appearance of a beautiful garden, the red mud standing out in striking contrast against the green foliage. Almost anything can be bought in the great market—"sugar, cotton cloth, leather, needles, crockery, tinware, dyes, lime, charcoal, meat, slaves, camels, horses, food of every variety, including tomatoes, wheat (which is grown near Kano), tamed gazelles, and hyenas, wild cats, birds—anything and everything." The money of the country is still the cowry shell, but the Maria Theresa dollar is taken, while gold and silver coins are eagerly bought to be worked up into ornaments. The King's palace was a "splendid specimen of mud architecture," and the audience-chamber a handsome room thirty feet square. The King was seated on a rich red dais, surrounded by his courtiers in compact rows, attired in magnificent costumes of green, red, and other hues. He proved to be determinedly opposed to the establishment of an English mission in his city, though with tactful treatment this antagonism to European civilization may eventually be overcome.

DRYDEN AS CRITIC.

Essays of John Dryden. Selected and edited by W. P. Ker, M.A., Fellow of All Souls' College, Hon. LL.D., Glasgow; Professor of English Literature in University College, London. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde. 1900. 2 vols., pp. lxxviii, 324, 323.

Dryden's Dramatic Theory and Practice. By Margaret Sherwood. Yale University Dissertation. 1898. Pp. 103.

Just two hundred years have passed since the death of John Dryden, and now, for the first time, we have a critical edition of his literary essays, the only portion of his prose works that is of permanent interest. Mr. Ker has collected in two neat volumes those hastily written papers of which Swift said maliciously—

> "Read all the Prefaces of Dryden,
> For these our critics much confide in,
> Though merely writ at first for filling,
> To raise the volume's price a shilling"—

but in which later authors have been content to see the beginnings of modern English criticism.

In his Introduction, Mr. Ker aims to explain what Dryden's quality as a critic really was. To do so he sketches for us the position of European criticism at the time Dryden began to write, touching upon such points as the Quarrel of the Ancients and Moderns, the Three Unities, and the various meanings of the word Nature in pseudo-classic writers. These are subjects continually recurring in Dryden's essays, which cannot be understood without some explanation of them. Mr. Ker's treatment is admirable—free at once from pedantic exaggeration and from misguided contempt for by-gone views. On the other hand, besides giving due weight to Dryden's marvellous prose style, he emphasizes the fact that his real greatness as a critic is quite independent of academic discussions.

> "The separate, positive sentences of Dryden," Mr. Ker tells us (p. xv), "are of small account in his work as critic. His virtue is that, in a time when literature was pestered and cramped with formulas, he found it impossible to write otherwise than freely. He is skeptical, tentative, disengaged, where most of his contemporaries, and most of his successors for a hundred years, are pledged to certain dogmas and principles."

And again, he says of Dryden's estimate of Shakspere (p. xxii):

> "The isolation of his point of view, the simplicity of his statement (one mortal man and good writer talking happily about another), the enthusiastic tone, and at the same time the want of reverence, all bring out the individual genius of Dryden as a critic, the directness and truth of his answer when he is appealed to by good poetry. No critic has ever given so convincingly an account of his own poetical likings with so little display, so little expense of rhetoric."

Perhaps Mr. Ker does not sufficiently emphasize Dryden's weakness when dealing with abstract questions, on which his reasoning is usually borrowed from some recently published French book. Here Mr. Ker's Introduction may be supplemented by Miss Sherwood's dissertation. Miss Sherwood, taking Dryden's dicta on dramatic theory as they stand, shows with pitiless logic their hopeless shallowness and inconsistency. (We might think these too obvious for proof, had not others written of Dryden in a tone more applicable to Herbert Spencer or Schopenhauer.) Dryden, in her view, which can hardly be contradicted, for ever gnaws the husk of æsthetic theory without reaching the kernel. Then, subjecting his dramas to a critical analysis such as they have never before received, she shows in them, equally convincingly, the same lack of depth and insight. Miss Sherwood herself, moreover, writes a vigorous, imaginative style rarely found in university dissertations. But, in her flow of indignation at Dryden's weaknesses, she almost passes over his real merits, so finely pointed *out by Mr. Ker. At times she seems to be describing a scribbler and a bungler rather* than one of the few great masters of English literature, in criticism as in poetry.

Both Mr. Ker and Miss Sherwood discuss Dryden's critical work as a whole. They are not unmindful of changes in his opinions and yet do not try to follow them in detail or to explain their causes. This is especially strange in Mr. Ker's case, since he has carefully arranged the essays in chronological order. Dryden's critical writings really show a progress towards the classical point of view, thus serving as a valuable index to the alteration of spirit that was taking place in English literature. One example must suffice. In the 'Essay of Dramatic Poesy' (published in 1668, but written, according to its author, in 1665), Dryden tells us (Ker i, 70): "I . . . cannot but conclude, to the honour of our nation, that we have invented, increased and perfected a more pleasant way of writing for the stage than was ever known to the ancients or moderns of any nation, which is tragicomedy." Fourteen years later, in his preface to "Troilus and Cressida" (1679), he denounces tragi-comedy in no sparing terms (i, 208). After this, though his practice is wavering, and though he apologizes for tragi-comedy as adapted to the taste of the English public, he never attempts to defend it on general grounds. The reason is not hard to see. Writing in 1665, the apprentice Dryden was influenced principally by Elizabethan models, and praise of tragicomedy inevitably followed. But before 1679 the Restoration drama had reached a vigorous development, in which tragedy and comedy had been sharply distinguished from each other. A combination of the overstrained "heroic" tragedy with either the artificial comedy of manners or the low comedy of intrigue was really unnatural; and Dryden, having these types of drama in mind, rightly condemned it. A comparison of his own "All for Love" and "Don Sebastian" will show the truth of his instinct.

In discussing the 'Essay of Dramatic Poesy,' Dryden's most ambitious, and in many ways his most important piece of criticism, Mr. Ker, like preceding editors, repeats without comment Malone's identification of the Crites of the Essay with Sir Robert Howard. Malone, editing Dryden's prose works in 1800, at first thought that Crites represented Lord Roscommon; then, finding that the arguments used by Crites against rhyme were borrowed from Sir Robert Howard's Preface to his Plays, he forthwith identified him with that nobleman. Yet Crites's arguments are distinctly said not to be his own, but quoted from another (Ker, i, 91, 94). Further, Sir Robert Howard, in his Preface, is a declared champion of the moderns, while Crites defends the cause of the ancients. We even find—and Scott calls attention to the fact without drawing the inevitable conclusion—an argument of Howard's quoted against the Crites of the Essay. Whether Crites was intended to represent Roscommon must remain doubtful; he certainly cannot be identified with Howard.

The separate publication of Dryden's Essays unfortunately obscures their connection with his poems and dramas. Dryden never wrote a criticism without having his own axe to grind. Even in the 'Essay of Dramatic Poesy,' the one apparent exception, the defence of rhyme in the drama and of tumult on the stage is really an apology for the "heroic plays" just then coming into fashion. Mr. Ker, like preceding editors, omits to point out this fact.

In his notes Mr. Ker judiciously contents himself, for the most part, with indicating the sources of Dryden's quotations and explaining literary and political allusions. Here his scholarly conscientiousness offers a refreshing contrast to the perfunctory course of his predecessors. This is shown especially in his treatment of Dryden's relations with obscure Italian and French writers. We might, however, desire fuller quotations from the French critics whom Dryden used as his main authorities, particularly when, as with Rapin and Segrais, their works are not easily accessible. Comparison of Dryden with his sources is a peculiarly interesting study. Fuller citations in the notes would enable the reader to see how Dryden sometimes inserted literal translations into his own work, sometimes misunderstood his authority, and, above all, how he always shrank from vigorous, independent thought.

Aside from this perhaps undue compression of material, Mr. Ker has occasionally missed an opportunity for a really helpful note. Thus, in the 'Essay on Satire' (ii, 89) Dryden, after quoting from the 'Annals' of Tacitus, proceeds to give a parallel passage from "Aurelius," apparently thinking that he is citing Aurelius Victor. Really, Dryden had used the Delphin edition of Tacitus, and innocently reproduced a note signed "Aurelius," not observing that the method of printing showed it to be an extract from an old commentator. The real "Aurelius" was Louis d'Orléans, whose 'Novae Cogitationes in Libr. Annalium C. Cornelii Taciti,' was published at Paris in 1622. Nothing could better illustrate Dryden's slipshod methods of work.

In the 'Essay of Dramatic Poesy' Dryden quotes from "Aristotle" a long passage on the formal division of tragedy into protasis, epitasis, katastasis, and catastrophe (i, 44). Mr. Ker points out for the first time that the real source is not Aristotle, but Scaliger's 'Poetics.' But he does not note that an interesting side-light is here thrown upon Dryden's methods. The passage is too accurately reproduced for us to think it quoted from Dryden's helter-skelter memory; and yet even Dryden, had he taken it directly from Scaliger, would hardly have ascribed it to Aristotle. We have here a trace of the famous commonplace book ridiculed in the "Rehearsal." Dryden had copied the passage without indicating the author; then, when he came to use it, guessed from the subject-matter that it must be from the source of all poetic wisdom.

Mr. Ker has carefully revised his text by comparison with the original copies. For the 'Essay of Dramatic Poesy' he has wisely followed the first edition, adding the variants of the other editions in footnotes. This gives a better idea of the growth of Dryden's style than the usual practice of choosing as the standard the author's revision of his work, sixteen years after its first appearance. Some of Dryden's shorter papers, notably his 'Heads of an Answer to Rymer,' contain valuable critical dicta, and might have been included in Mr. Ker's edition without unduly swelling its volume.

We now possess, thanks to Mr. Christie and Mr. Ker, scholarly, if not irreproachable, editions of Dryden's poems and of his chief prose writings. His dramas, which, aside from their historical importance, contain much of his best poetry, have yet to be made generally accessible. But a greater need than this remains to be supplied. Despite the seamy side of his character, which is only too obvious, Dryden had a personality full of grace and charm, which reveals itself to sympathetic readers of his works, and for which illustration might be found in contemporary literature. But he has been unfortunate in his biographers. Even Johnson and Scott, of whom most might have been expected, dwell too exclusively on the literary and political aspects of his career. Hence Dryden, who should be as well loved as Dr. Johnson or Charles Lamb—to choose widely different illustrations—is known to the "average man" only as a political and religious turn-coat, who wrote satires on forgotten men and dead issues. Some true lover may yet produce an imaginative portrait of Dryden such as Carlyle has given us of Burns, showing him as the "high and remarkable man" he really was.

"AS SHE IS WROTE."

Prehistoric America. III.: The Cliff-Dwellers and Pueblos. By Rev. Stephen D. Peet, Ph.D. Chicago.

A serious-faced, soberly bound, ponderable volume of over 400 pages; in the name and with the air of authority; with 170-odd illustrations (*tales cuales*), and all to a text which is certainly not the driest nor the most hackneyed within our reach, must arouse certain anticipations. Within the scope of its more than three-and-a-half centuries of documentary history, its millennium, perhaps (and perhaps more), of romantic legend, both set off by a frame of landscapes nowhere surpassed (if anywhere paralleled) for grandeur and for strangeness, the arid Southwest is still some one's chance. The real students who have written of it have been mostly non-"popular"; the (Populist, one had almost said) writers who have taken it for a setting have been, almost without exception, unscientific, to put it mildly. A fairly adequate, broad telling—with expert knowledge, but sympathetically and in the human colors—of what is really learned and proved of the plot and *dramatis personæ* of this strange old tragedy of Man against the Desert, would have general and generous welcome. In a smaller but still respectable circle, a competent synoptic review of this *cause célèbre*, with some selection as between witnesses and mere gossips, would be no less gratefully received.

With what precise intention Dr. Peet, editor of the *American Antiquarian*, has put forth his portly octavo, whose title we give above, is not easy to surmise Not, we may presume, for "popular" light reading; nor, it is to be hoped, as a digest of the many unassorted books and articles of extracts and abstracts from which it is so largely made up; for it does not convey a sense of eupepsia. We somewhat expect that a "scientific" book shall at least preserve the outward graces of the average printing-office. If it bristle with misprints, lay as well as technical; with misspelling of common as well as esoteric words; with wrong fonts, inverted letters, an utter absence of plan in punctuation, pagination, and indexing, and all the other earmarks of the slovenly and unremedied compositor, we are apt in such case to fear for the science thus dressed. "Bristle" is perhaps not an extreme word here. After a rather careful reading, the reviewer finds that, in the 408 pages of this volume, there are 64 which he has not pencilled for errors this side of hypercriticism, and without marking at all for accents or for punctuation of an extraordinary description. The remaining pages carry of pencilled corrections (merely proofreader's corrections) from one apiece upward. P. 28 has 41; among them 32 egregious cases of "wf." in three fonts. P. 106 has more than twice as many. If these are the worst cases, it is in degree, not in kind.

It is hardly fair—and decidedly not safe—to leave too much to a stereotype proofreader. He cannot reasonably be expected to have "given years of close study" (*vide* preface) to this field; and in unfamiliar words we all have a genius for blundering. On a single page (66) fourteen proper names are misspelled, and throughout the book the very authorities of whose works it is compounded venture into it at their proper peril of disfigurement. Alvar Nuñez Cabeza de Vaca is invariably "Cabeca"; and once made two persons and with the extra misspelling of "Nunez." The loss of the cedilla here makes as much difference as there is between "face" and "fake." The curbstone myth of his "discovery" of New Mexico, long ago absolutely exploded by Bandelier, is here accepted without a hint of question. Fray Marcos de Niza, who did discover New Mexico, figures here as "Marco de Nica," "Marcos de Nica," and "Marco de Nueva." On p. 310 he is brought into New Mexico in "1339." Castañeda, the dyspeptic chronicler of Coronado's marches, is here steadfastly "Castaneda"—save once, when he becomes "Castanedo." Jaramillo masquerades as "Jerramillo," and Oñate never finds his "y." "Gaspár Castaño de Sosa is "Gasper [and no wonder!] Castano de Losa." Chamuscado is here "Chomuscado"; Chamita, the first European inland settlement north of Mexico, is "Chomito." Eusebius Kuehne (Kino), the apostle of Arizona, is himself converted—to "Father Rino." And that *varon apostólico* under whose invocation half the Americas were "reduced" to God, suffers a still more startling change to (presumably "virgin and martyr") "St. Frances."

Zuñi is hundreds of times (almost invariably) rendered "Zuni"—or, for occasional variety, "Znni"; and piñon is "pinon" except when "pinôn." Plain *n* for "ñ" is the omission not of an accent but of a letter—the valid letter *y*. It is precisely like writing "Kenon Cox" or "Bunan's 'Pilgrim's Progress.'" Cañon is occasionally so printed here; but far oftener "canyon" and too often "canon"—sometimes on the same page. "Sant*a* Domingo" and "San Domingo" are here commoner than the correct Santo. The "Red House" of Coronado is indifferently "Chichilticale," "Chichilticalli," and "Chilticali." "Nicara*u*gua," "Zac*e*tacas," "Alb*er*querque," "N*e*utria" (Nutria); "J*a*mez," "San-M*a*guel," "Ojo Calcinte" (Caliente), "Portrero de las V*e*cas" (Potrero de las Vacas)—"Nuest*e*a Se*n*ora" (Nuestra Señora) —these are only fair examples among many. The famous Thunder Mountain of Zuñi is here impartially "Ta-ai-ya-la-na," "Taaiyalana," "Toyalone," "Ta-a-ya-al-na," "To-yo-a-la-na," and "Toyolaana."

Nor do the modern writers and explorers (of quotation or misquotation from whom the book is mostly filled) any better escape this typographical St. Bartholomew's. "Brandelier," "Scoollcraft," "W. [W.] H. Davis," "Albert" (Lieut. J. W. Abert), "Emery" (Lieut.-Col. W. H. Emory, who is also made "W. A."), "Dr. Means" (Dr. Mearns)—these are the mildlier mutilated. The Hemenway Southwestern Expedition is as often "Hemmingway" or "Hemingway." Mindeleff is "Mindeliff," "Mendeliff," or even "Mindcliff," and a Mr. Bickford is, as the wind serves, "L. F." or "J. T." or "F. F." or "F. T." Another "authority" is spelled four ways; and George Parker Winship becomes "Prof. Winthrop." In fine, and by count, a majority of Dr. Peet's enablers, ancient and modern, are wounded in their names; some of them, at least, as seriously in their dignity by misquotation of their words.

These do not seem the most worthy settings for science of any water; but it is questionable if this gem should complain. "Chic*k*en" Itza might be "in Guatemala" (instead of in Yucatan), but Chichen Itza is not—though this volume puts them both there (*e. g.*, p. 348 and facing p. 112). On the latter page we have "Casa Grande in Chihuahua," and on p. 347 precisely the same venerable cut illustrating "Casas Grandes in Sonora." Both are wrong. Casa Grande is in Arizona; Casas Grandes in Chihuahua. For further grace we have, *passim*, "Casa Grandes," "Casa Grand," "Cassas Grandes." The San Juan River is shifted 300 miles into "Northern Mexico" (116).

If we take Fray Marcos, in Arizona, 158 years before the mainland of America was discovered, as a mere slip, and the "Pueblo Rebellion in 1780" (p. 246) as another casual lapse of a century, what are we to say when we find Coronado's famous march (1540) put "in 1536" (p. 114)? And what, when we read (210, *n.*), "The story of Coronado's march was told by four persons who *took part in it;* Mendoza [the Viceroy!], Jerramillo, and an anonymous writer, and Gasta*n*edo"? That "Coronado seems to have passed by Moqui on his [first] way to Zuni" (p. 61); that "Culiacan or Sonora was a province" (47); that "the village of Laguna" was described "by Castaneda in 1540" (p. 170; it was founded *circa* 1690 on a virgin site); that "the villages on the Rio Grande . . . are called by the general name of Gran Quivira"—just below, "Quivria"; that (p. 112) the Cliff Dwellers preceded the Pueblos, and that (189) the Pueblos preceded the Cliff Dwellers? *Et id genus omne.*

The illustrations, borrowed *Tros, Tyriusve* from old reports, railroad folders, and some modern works, but none (so far as noted) new, are in keeping. The "Typical Great House at Zu*n*i" (p. 222) is neither Great House nor Zuñi, but the parvenu pueblo of Laguna, with the railroad in the foreground. "The [Moqui] Snake Dance" (p. 339) is neither snake dance nor Moqui, but the "corn dance" at Santo Domingo—as remote in character as in geography. The "Navajo Priest" (392) is not a Navajo but a Moqui. Many cuts are printed twice (*e. g.*, face 112, 346, 347, 348; face 169-289; 103-141; face 169, face 288)—and generally with different titles. The same crude block does duty (p. 346) for "Ruined Pueblo on the Mac Elmo," and (face 112) "Ruined Village on the San Juan."

After thus much, which is little, it is perhaps almost gratuitous to add that the volume is a solemn indigestion of many and undiscriminated writings. The hodge-podge of "authorities" is remindful of the wit who, passing a number of men, gave "Good morning, gentlemen"; and, getting but scattered response, added: "Good morning, also, Those Who Are Not." One would be doubly relieved to find, after this record of benevolent assimilations, a new idea authenticated, or an old one "better said." If the inventor of that unscientific but pointed phrase "arm-chair science" ever meant anything, this is probably "just the sort of thing" he meant.

China and the Present Crisis. With Notes on a Visit to Japan and Korea. By Joseph Walton, M.P. London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co. 1900. Pp. xii+320. Map.

The Crisis in China. By George B. Smyth; Rev. Gilbert Reid; Charles Johnston; John Barrett; Robert E. Lewis; Archibald R. Colquhoun; M. Mikhailoff; Rear-Admiral Lord Charles Beresford; His Excellency Wu Ting Fang; Demetrius C. Boulger; General James H. Wilson; the Rt. Hon. Sir Charles W. Dilke. Reprinted by permission from the *North American Review.* Harper & Brothers. 1900. Pp. vi+272. Maps and illustrations.

The first of these books is a plain statement of facts; the second is a bundle of theories. Mr. Walton is a globe-trotting M. P. of a good type. His interests are those of the business man; trade and markets, communications and tariffs, he watches, understands, and tells of. These furnish his starting-point, and the things he saw on his travels are of weight to him as they affect these. About his book there is a solid materialism and hard-headed common sense characteristic of the North of England man. It has no fine writing, no attempts at picturesque description. *La haute politique* means opening or closing of markets; national sentiment means protection for the trader; the magnificent gorges and rapids on the Yangtse-kiang mean that the patrolling gun-boats must have so many knots of speed. Out of his own *métier* Mr. Walton's remarks on what he saw are often trivial. Yet his details are never childish, as is so often the case when the gallant traveller gives us his journal day by day, and we can forgive them here because of the absolute reality which they afford to the picture.

To Mr. Walton's combined importance as a member of Parliament of weight and a representative of large business interests, all circles in the further East were open. He interviewed everybody and saw everything. Prince Ching, Li Hung Chang, the Marquis Ito, Count Okuma, Viceroys Liu Kun Yi and Chung Chi Tung fell before him. The representatives of the great commercial houses made things smooth for him, and high officials of all nationalities showed him round. His route, too, carried him over the most important ground. After Japan and Korea came the Gulf of Pechili and the country round it—Pekin to Kiau-Chau. Then Shanghai and up the Yangtse-kiang to Chung-Kiung, back and round the coast to Hong Kong and Canton; home by French Indo-China, Siam, Singapore, and across India. One chapter is a reprint from Hansard of the author's speech in the House of Commons on March 30, on British interests in China, commercial and political. This is a vigorous indictment, based on very full *knowledge of the slack and drifting policy* of the Salisbury Cabinet. The American Government, on the other hand, is congratulated warmly on the success of its "open door" movement. The chapter which follows deals with the present crisis, and the two together only go to show more clearly the lamentable and fatal ignorance which existed as to what was the real situation in China. That is now an old story, and there is little use in going back upon it, except as a renewed warning how closely official eyes may be shut, and how unreadable to the Occidental is the Oriental mind.

After the forebodings of Mr. Colquhoun, it is heartening to find how completely Mr. Walton approves and upholds the American policy. If he fairly represents the views of the great English houses in the China trade, then the commercial pressure on Lord Salisbury to keep in line with this country and to pursue a firm policy of China for the Chinese should be overwhelming. Yet, as to the possibility of all this, a grain of doubt must enter. Mr. Walton travels through the country and sees not a sign of anti-foreign feeling. How much there was we now know, and we cannot help remembering how close were the terms of intimacy on which he was with high Chinese officials all along his route. In China, as in Russia, things can be kept out of sight. Mr. Colquhoun travels over very nearly the same ground and sees the country on the verge of anarchy. There can be little doubt which of the two saw more clearly. Apart from this, Mr. Walton's insight and solid sense cannot be too highly praised.

On the second book there is little to be said. The value and interest of its ten papers were largely of the moment of their publication. Each calls now for an effort of historical imagination to reconstruct that moment; a great deal has happened in a very short time. It is to be feared that those by foreign writers will only give occasion to the cynical American to murmur to himself, "Codlin's your friend, not Short."

Notes on the Bacon-Shakespeare Question. By Charles Allen. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1900.

What Mr. Allen has done to shed light on the Bacon-Shakspere question, is summed up in his preface. In the first place, he takes up the argument in favor of the Baconian authorship derived from the supposed legal erudition exhibited in the plays, and shows that this legal knowledge was not merely not extraordinary, but not such as to imply that the author was educated as a lawyer, or even as a lawyer's clerk. To pass over other minor points, the author also fortifies, by a very effective analysis, what may be called the argument from impossibility, showing that Bacon never had any recognition as a poet, and lacked the poetical faculty (at any rate, so far as expression in dramatic verse goes), while Shakspere was recognized and known to be a dramatist and poet by his contemporaries. Of course, the usual reply to this is, "Ah! but Shakspere was written by Bacon," the Baconians apparently mistaking the allegation which they have to sustain for proof. But the most striking and valuable contribution of the author to the extraordinary controversy is the overwhelming array of evidence by which he demolishes the legal argument. For instance, much has been made of the supposed indications in the grave-digger's scene in "Hamlet" that Shakspere was familiar with the case of Hales vs. Petit, published in Plowden's Reports in 1578. Mr. Allen shows, first, that Plowden's Reports were also mentioned by Jonson, who was no lawyer; second, that the reasoning in Hales vs. Petit, supposed to be ridiculed in "Hamlet," is not closely followed in the play; third, that even if one is supposed to be drawn from the other, Shakspere might have picked up all that he knew of the case in conversation, as it was a *cause célèbre* of the period.

As to the constant employment of legal terms in the plays, other writers of the same age employed them in the same familiar way, probably because the terms were then household words, though they have since passed out of common use. This was the case, for instance, with *præmunire*, a term used familiarly by Jonson, Massinger, Middleton, and Heywood; while the passage from Henry VIII., beginning, "Lord Cardinal, the King's further pleasure is ——," which, besides bringing in *præmunire*, has throughout a decidedly legal complexion, was very little more than a paraphrase of Holinshed. The notes on "legal terms" made by Mr. Allen show conclusively that everybody at this time was familiar with legal phraseology, to an extent now quite surprising. When *Pettifog* says, "The defendant was arrested first by *latitat*, in an action of trespass," *Compass* replies, "And a lawyer told me it should have been an action on the case"; but this has never been supposed to prove that Webster's "Cure for a Cuckold" was written by Bacon. In the same way we find, to mention half-a-dozen out of a hundred instances, *alluvion* and *assumpsit* in Jonson; *audita querela* in Middleton; *capias* in Beaumont and Fletcher; *disseised* in Donne; *eloign* in Chapman; *garnishes* in Dekker; *livery of seisin* in Webster; *mittimus* in Massinger.

But besides all this, Shakspere is, as Mr. Allen shows in another chapter, full of bad law and untechnical use of legal terms. Even Portia's rules of law, he thinks, will not bear examination. First, a bond, with a homicide for a penalty, would probably not even at that time have been valid; but if valid it could have been no violation of the condition to cut off *less* than a pound, while "the incidental flowing of blood could not make Shylock's act unlawful, since the cutting could not be done without it." We are not so sure of this, because primitive law is full of surprises of all kinds, especially with regard to promises and bonds; but when Shakspere uses "dower" for "dowry," he falls into a mistake which would have set Lord Bacon's teeth on edge. Many other instances are given which seem to bear out the author's conclusion that Shakspere is not uniformly accurate or technically correct in his legal doctrines and allusions, and in his use of legal terms; and, in short, that "no strong argument against the theory of Shaksperian authorship can be derived from the display of legal learning in the plays and poems."

Art in Needlework; A Book about Embroidery. By Lewis F. Day and Mary Buckle. London: B. T. Batsford; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

This work will be found of great practical use to those who devote time and skill to embroidery. Besides innumerable illustrations of fine examples of ancient embroideries of different kinds, Mr. Day has been at the pains of reproducing a series of samplers with groups of stitches having some affinity. These are clearly photographed, front and back, on either side of the same leaf, and are intended for the student with needle and thread in hand so that she can turn the sampler and consult the inside for further guidance. The text contains diagrams of each stitch mentioned, with very lucid directions. We are indebted for these to Miss Buckle's collaboration and also to Mr. Day's daughter. With this book before her, any fairly intelligent needlewoman would have all that can without practical demonstration be taught of embroidery; she would also learn to avoid many pitfalls in the aims of embroidery as an art.

Mr. Day, as a professional and competent designer, attaches much importance to the cultivation of the taste of the embroidress in the choice of good designs; not that he considers it desirable for her to originate her own patterns, unless she has a real faculty for invention, which is a rare gift, but in order to enable her to modify or adapt any design she is working to the purpose for which it is destined. He recommends the study of good work, old work especially, among which some particular kind will appeal to her as most desirable. This she is to seek to understand and emulate without slavish imitation or loss of individuality. We quote some excellent advice which savors of Ruskin:

> "Measure yourself with the best, not with the common run of work; and if that should put you out of conceit with your own work, no great harm is done; sooner or later you have got to come to a modest opinion of yourself, if ever you are to do even moderate things. But the 'best' above referred to does not mean the most masterly. The best of a simple kind is not calculated to discourage any one—rather, it looks as if it must be easy to do that; and in trying to do it you learn how much goes to the doing it. Good design need not be of any importance or pretensions. It may be quite simple, if only it is right; if the lines are true, the color harmonious; if it is adapted to its place, to its use and purpose, to execution not only with the needle, but in the particular kind of needlework to be employed."

The present writer also insists on the necessity of the worker and designer being in sympathy, and considers it a test of a practical designer that he should adapt himself to the materials and conditions under which the work is to be carried out. Mr. Day points out the mistake which is so often made in too closely following nature in the form of flowers and plants in embroidery: to work a flower as though it were painted with a brush is not good design although quite easily accomplished. Another form of needlework he considers mistaken is the effort to introduce the human figure into an embroidered picture, although we have some very beautiful examples of this kind among fourteenth and fifteenth-century work. There is a less happy modern example of an appliqué panel, with stitching and couching, among the illustrations of this book by Miss Keightley. Mr. Day considers ornament the thing best worth doing, and deprecates the excellent needle-work of the art schools of our time having been so often wasted on inappropriate designs—sometimes good enough in themselves, but not fitted for the materials in which they were carried out. He deems it indispensable that work should be beautiful in design and color and execution; that the worker should express her own individuality in it; that the materials used should be appropriate and the best of their kind. He very justly objects to good work being wasted on poor stuffs. The reader can obtain full information in this book on all subjects connected with the materials to be used and the implements required; she will also feel convinced that embroidery is an art to be approached seriously, and to be practised with understanding and definite purpose.

Bordeaux and its Wines, Classed by Order of Merit. Third English (from the seventh French) edition. By Édouard Feret. Bordeaux: Feret et Fils. 1899. French 12mo (English 8vo), pp. 846.

Admirable is the talent for condensation without loss of accuracy or of detail displayed in the last edition of this standard work, commonly known as Cocks's 'Bordeaux et ses Vins classés par ordre de mérite.' A humanly complete handbook and directory of the wines of Bordeaux has been brought under one cover, although sixty pages go to the indices and two hundred are covered by the scattered illustrations. The text occupies less than six hundred pages; and though a large proportion of it is in print so fine as to give a thousand words to the page, yet it contains less than the matter of Humboldt's 'Cosmos,' which the true connoisseur will consider a beggarly allowance enough, considering the relative importance of the two subjects. But where lack of space has debarred M. Feret from entering into full details, he has not failed to refer the reader to whatever authority is most accurate and copious upon the special point of Girondine enology in question. Perhaps fifty titles are so cited, so that this work becomes a trusty guide to all that can be learned from books concerning its subject; and book learning is an essential part, albeit a small one, of this science, as of every other.

The whole area of the department of the Gironde is nearly four thousand square miles, or twice that of the State of Delaware. But a fifth of it is water, and nearly half waste *landes*, and, in short, only 625 square miles, we are told, are more or less devoted to the culture of the vine, not equalling the surface of such a county as Van Rensselaer, Greene, or even Madison, in the State of New York. The population of the whole department is 800,000, so that its density is about that of the population of New Jersey. These 625 square miles may be said to embrace six different wine countries. Beginning with the worst, there is, in the first place, the district known as *Entre-deux-mers*, lying between the Garonne and the Dordogne, but restricted to parts well away from both rivers, and also not extending down below Créon. Its wine is chiefly used for distillation. Secondly, there is the alluvial soil on the borders of the Garonne and Gironde, the Dordogne, and the Isle, hardly reaching back a mile. It is known as the *palus*, and the use of it for the growth of wine is post-phylloxerine. Thirdly, there are the parts called the *côtes*, embracing everything on the right of the Garonne and Gironde not included in the *palus* or *Entre-deux-mers*, together with the Bazadais, which, on the left bank of the Garonne, from its entrance into the department some dozen miles down to Langon, extends eight or nine miles back from the *palus*. The *côtes* wines are of various character and quality. Quite the best of them are those of St. Émilion, light but *reconfortant*, with a peculiar bouquet and slightly bitter taste, rejoicing in the title of the Burgundy of the Gironde, while the comparatively modest price is prohibitory. The remaining three wine-countries of the department are situated like the Bazadais, that is, on the left bank of the Garonne or Gironde, and reaching six or eight miles back from the *palus*. Next below the Bazadais is, fourthly, the *pays de Sauternes*, a district about seven miles square, whose white wines are made with extraordinary pains, the vintage lasting two months, and the grapes being selected, in some instances, one by one. Fifthly, next below the *pays de Sauternes*, for twelve miles down, as far as Bordeaux, comes the gravelly, channelly bottom (one hesitates to say soil) denominated the *graves*, where the delicious white wines of that generic name used to be grown. But those vines having been totally destroyed by phylloxera, at present more red wine than white is produced. Some of it is of the very finest quality; for New Yorkers' favorite claret, (judging by the price they have run it up to), the famous Château Haut-Brion, is a *vin des graves*. This château stands only about a mile outside of Bordeaux; and the traveller who arrives at that town in order to study its wines, is forcibly impressed with those of the *graves*, since the neighboring communes produce some very fine *crus*, while near to Bordeaux, those of Médoc, the sixth and most famous of the Gironde wine countries, are quite inferior. Most of the châteaux which produce the incomparable wines of Médoc that are the chief glory of the Gironde—of France, a true lover of them would have us say—stand upon interminable straight gravelly ridges, their vineyards growing close about them lest the precious soil should be wasted, and are remarkably business-like places to be called châteaux. There is, however, along the Gironde, a stretch of nine miles, from the Châteaux-Beychevelle to St. Estèphe, where there is hardly any *palus;* and here the finest vineyards extend to the water, as the name Beychevelle, or "lower the sail," may remind us. This stretch is bisected by the village of Pauillac, in whose commune some of the very greatest wines are produced, and some of the estates are magnificent. The Château-Pignon, in Hector Malot's 'Un Mariage sous le Second Empire,' was probably drawn from the Château-Pichon-Longueville, which stands on one side of the mouth of the Juillac brook with the Château-Latour on the other.

The first hundred pages of the present volume give all general information about wine-making in the Gironde, beginning with the different soils and sub-soils and their suitabilities for the vine, going on to the different varieties of vine employed to make Bordeaux wines, the chief diseases and parasites of the plants, vying in multitude with those of the horse, as *coulure*, *attelabe*, the *écrivain*, the *procris*, the *pyrale*, the *euchlore*, the *ver-blanc*, the *apate*, the *puce de la vigne*, *loches*, snails, *érinose*, *grillage*, mildew, the *oïdium*, the *phylloxéra*, *anthracnose*, *pourridié;* rot, brown, white, and black, *cochylis*, etc.; the whole process of cultivation, planting by five systems, grafting, the arrangement of the vineyard, pruning, etc., special methods of the Médoc, estimates in detail for a superior bourgeois vineyard, and a small artisan or *paysan* vineyard; special methods in the *graves*, in the *pays de Sauternes*, in the *côtes*, in the *palus*; methods of vintage and wine-making in Médoc, the press-house, separating the grapes from the bunch by the *trémie* and by a *grillage;* wine-presses, vats, and filling them; *décavage*, second wine, press-wine. *piquette*, the methods in the *graves*, in the *pays de Sauternes*, in the *côtes*, in the *palus*; cultivation of yeast, pasteurization, electrification, weighing musts; the treatment of the wine after it is made, the *chai*, or cellar, the cask and its bung, racking, the *coup de fouet*, with a calendar showing what the cellarer is to do each month of the year; treatment of the wine preparatory to bottling, the art of bottling, the art of drinking wine (but this important part of the treatment of wine is the only one which is decidedly evaded by M. Feret); a description of the character of each vintage from 1795 to 1897 inclusive, and statistics. The main body of the work takes up each district, or *arrondissement*, and gives a general description of it, its methods, its soil, its wines—under each district, each commune, describing it, its soil, and its wines in general terms; and under each commune is given a full list of the vineyards, with the proprietor of each, its average yield, the exact grades and character of its wines, often with a great deal of historical and other interesting information.

What has attracted our attention to the book more than anything else is the astonishing precision and accuracy with which, in very few words or even none, but merely by the order of arrangement, upwards of four thousand kinds of wine are characterized, so that the reader who has at all studied the subject will know each one almost as well as if he had tasted it. We close by remarking that the total annual yield of the five classed *crus* of Médoc is from one to two thousand tons of about 240 United States gallons each, enough to give several thousand persons a bottle every day—say, all the royalties, dukes, and marquises, and a privileged selection of counts, together with all persons who are suffering from alarm lest they should be disgraced by dying rich. The total annual export of wine from Bordeaux is, pretty steadily, thirty million United States gallons.

The Biblical Theology of the New Testament. By Ezra P. Gould, D.D., Author of 'A Critical and Exegetical Commentary on the Gospel of Mark.' The Macmillan Co. 1900.

Dr. Gould's contribution to Professor Mathews's "New Testament Handbooks" is quite abreast of the foremost of a series that has so far maintained a high standard of ability. His first paragraph quietly assumes a position which was damnably heretical a short time since, namely, that Biblical theology is not the theology of the Bible as a whole, but of its separate books, which are so many heterogeneous units. A criticism of the New Testament books is fundamental to their classification under six heads, which are: The Teaching of Jesus, The Teaching of the Twelve, The Teaching *of Paul, The Later Apostolic* Writings, The *Non-Johannean Writings of the* Alexandrian Period, The Johannean Writings. The results of this criticism are far removed from those popular conceptions which the pulpit has done much to foster, and from which it is slow to work itself clear. At the same time, they are well within the limits of a prudent scholarship. There is a disposition to save as much as can be saved of the traditional opinion. Thus, the first Epistle of Peter is accepted as authentic, but not as the product of "St. Peter's skull when he was a young man"; rather as the work of a man Paulinized by ripe experience. Similarly, the Epistle of James, which in Harnack's view is a gnomic anthology of the second century, is here regarded as a clear reflection of the actual teachings of Jesus. There is freer handling of Paul's Epistles, eight of the traditional fourteen being more or less sharply cut off, with a leaning to the side of mercy in the case of the two Thessalonian Epistles. The discussion of the Pastoral Epistles is excellent; the best of it—apparently an afterthought—being included in an elaborate note. No attempt is made to assign the Fourth Gospel to a particular date, but the differences between it and the Synoptics are indicated in a manner that makes it necessary to choose between them: they cannot both be valid representations of the teachings and the personality of Jesus. But the Apocalypse is detached from the Apostle John more definitely than the Fourth Gospel, and with refreshing plainness of speech. In the footnotes, which are always abundant and show how far Dr. Gould's studies have been carried, we are referred to those important writings of Vischer and Völter which characterize the Apocalypse as a Jewish writing made over into a Christian one; but Dr. Gould does not consider this solution, which has been approved by Harnack, and which Dr. Martineau hailed with enthusiasm, as a satisfactory answer to a riddle of extreme obscurity.

New Testament exegesis is apt to lag behind the criticism of the New Testament writings. It is apt to show the bias of the writer's personal opinions, of his denominational connection. Dr. Gould's exegesis is free from these habitual faults to a remarkable degree. Nevertheless, its prevailing note is that of a refined and exquisite rationalism, which seeks and finds at every turn the more rational and agreeable interpretation. The most impressive feature is the absence of a theology in the New Testament bearing any general or much particular resemblance to the traditional theology of Christendom. One of the briefest chapters suffices to give "Jesus' Estimate of Himself," and it contains little or no hint of that exalted nature ascribed to him by the traditional theology. Even where Dr. Gould is dealing with the strongest expressions of Paul's Epistles and the Fourth Gospel, he does not force the note, but keeps well within the concessions that the most unorthodox scholarship would be obliged to make if simply cleaving to the text. The preëxistent Christ of Paul's theology he identifies with the Holy Spirit—a heresy which not many centuries ago would have sent this genial scholar to the stake. He is nothing if not genial. Those who will think his New Testament theology too faint an adumbration of their vigorous and rigorous creeds and catechisms, must nevertheless admire a temper which removes their idols from their niches with such reverent hands.

A significant aspect of this study is its treatment of miracles, which is condensed into a single paragraph. They are represented as not being evidential, but as answering simply to the needs of sick and suffering people. This heresy is not a new one in Philadelphia, where Dr. Furness preached it many years. Yet miracles "make," as Dr. Gould observes, "the bulk of the Gospel story." Prophecies, or rather their supposed fulfilments, are also numerous, and once would have had an important place in any careful statement of New Testament theology. That Dr. Gould hardly pays them the tribute of a passing mention is another sign of the times.

Le Voyage de l'Empereur Joseph II. dans les Pays-bas (31 Mai—27 Juillet, 1781). Par Eugène Hubert. Brussels: J. Lebèque & Cie. 1900.

The long debate over the character of the Emperor Joseph II. has received notable enlightenment through the labors of Professor Hubert. For a hundred and sixty years after the death of the Archduke Albert, the Netherland provinces which remained to the Spanish crown, and which passed to the Austrian Hapsburgs by the treaty of Rastadt in 1714, had never seen their sovereigns. Joseph II., in his conscientious desire to acquaint himself with the conditions and needs of his extensive dominions, was an indefatigable traveller, and in 1781 he found himself enabled to pay a long-intended visit to the Low Countries. An enemy of useless display, he journeyed by post, under the name of the Count of Falkenstein, with a retinue of only six persons; he lodged in the public hotels of the towns, and, to save time and the purses of his subjects, he forbade all ceremonious receptions. Including a short excursion into Holland, his visit was comprised within the months of June and July.

It has rather been the fashion to characterize this journey as an exhibition of useless and somewhat fantastic eccentricity, but M. Hubert's researches present it in a different light. He has laboriously investigated the archives, not only of all the Belgian provinces, but also of Vienna, Paris, the Vatican, and The Hague, as well as the voluminous printed material to which the imperial visit gave birth, and, with these ample sources in hand, he is able to give us in minute detail the incidents of the journey and the occupations of the monarch. We thus see Joseph devoting himself unweariedly to acquiring a knowledge of the condition of the land, patiently listening to and carefully weighing all complaints, and striving to devise methods to remove abuses, to further the well-being of the people, to stimulate industry and commerce, to equalize taxation, to regulate the finances, to remove religious disabilities, and in every way to promote the general prosperity. Every moment snatched from brief slumbers is devoted to the hardest kind of work, and we recognize in the Emperor a man to whom his *métier de roi* means a total self-abandonment to the duties and responsibilities of his position. All this stands out clearly in M. Hubert's pages, abundantly illustrated by the wealth of collateral information which he has brought together from all accessible sources.

Yet with this single-hearted concentration of purpose directed to the welfare of his subjects, Joseph was not a popular prince, and he has left an uncertain reputation. Largely this is due to his attitude towards the Church, which was rather that of a sovereign than of a dutiful son. Reformers, moreover, are rarely popular. Comfortable conservatism has an instinctive dislike to restless innovation, and Joseph's plans for the benefit of his people antagonized too many prejudices, and threatened too many interests based on profitable abuses, not to arouse enmities which took their revenge on the officious intermeddler. The oppugnant forces of progress and conservatism are admirably represented in a document printed by M. Hubert among his 'Pièces justificatives' (pp. 381-416), in which Joseph sets forth thirty-four matters requiring attention, and the Prince de Starhemberg replies to them. Especially significant is the sixteenth article concerning a request of the British Consul at Ostend (a port of which Joseph was anxious to develop the commerce) to be allowed to hold divine service in his house. To this Starhemberg answers that no public Protestant service could possibly be allowed, and that it would be dangerous to permit it privately in the Consul's house for fear of abuse, as consuls are always endeavoring to attribute to themselves a public character. Joseph had the misfortune to be in advance of his age. He was calumniated accordingly, and M. Hubert has rendered a service to historical truth in this remarkable presentation of two months of his laborious life.

Evolution by Atrophy in Biology and Sociology. By Jean Demoor, Jean Massart, and Émile Vandervelde. Translated by Mrs. Chalmers Mitchell. D. Appleton & Co. 8vo, pp. 322, illustrated.

This is a composite study of comparative evolution in biology and sociology, said to have been prepared in connection with a scheme for research work by coördinating the works of specialists in various lines, with the aim of correcting the faults of similar bio-sociological attempts of sociologists who were not naturalists, and of zoologists who were not versed in sociology. The works of these different specialists appear better if taken separately. As a whole, the effort does not justify its pretensions. Atrophy is put in a wrong light by the title; it is usually not a principal but a secondary matter, resulting from disuse, a consequence of diverted function and nourishment. Evolution by atrophy does not exist alone, but follows upon the development and progress of another part. In the main, attention is centred upon degeneration rather than atrophy. Part i. treats of the universality of degenerative evolution, part ii. of the path of degenerative evolution, and part iii. of the causes of degenerative evolution. Generally, as new organs or institutions are evolved, older ones less adapted for the purposes degenerate from lack of use. The path of degeneration is not a return through the stages traversed in the original development, it is not a reverse of the evolution, though reaching similar levels; and, once it has dropped them, the degenerate organ or institution never regains its former functions and conditions. In the first two sections much is said of degeneration and little of atrophy; in the last section, treating of the causes, a loosening of grasp is apparent. The summaries and conclusions of the third section have less value than those of the first and the second. A thing that especially impresses one here is the failure to trace degeneration of organs and of their accomplishments (institutions) to common causes. The rise of organ or institution is well traced, and the usual attendance on its evolution by obsolescence of some other organ or institution of similar purpose is well shown, but a difference is made between the causes of the organ and of its acts.

The conclusions are reached that degeneration is the obverse of progressive evolution, and the necessary complement of every transformation, whether anatomical or social, and that, on the broad average, institutions atrophy either from want of use or from lack of resources, and also that the chief factors in causing atrophy in organs or institutions are variability and selection. At the end of the book the following assertions are made: "Degenerative evolution is brought about by a limitation in means of subsistence—either in nutriment, capital, or labor. In biology the principal if not the sole agents in its accomplishment are the struggle for existence between the various organs, and the struggle for existence between the various organisms. In sociology it is artificial selection which is the dominating agent, and natural selection plays only a secondary part. The occasional causes of degenerative evolution are inutility of function, insufficiency of nutriment or resource, and (in biology only) lack of space." The concluding statement is this: "An institution or an organ which has ceased to be functional, and has also ceased to be useful either directly or indirectly, continues to exist if neither variability nor selection intervene." This is another way of saying it continues to exist if it does not atrophy. But the fact is, degeneration is inevitable if use ceases, and continued undegenerating existence is itself proof of continuance of use. Thirty or forty years ago this volume would have met with a better reception.

Jahrbuch der Deutschen Shakespeare-Gesellschaft in Auftrage des Vorstandes herausgegeben von Alois Brandl und Wolfgang Keller. Sechsunddreissigster Jahrgang. Berlin: Langenscheidt'she Verlagsbuchhandlung. 1900.

Quite the most interesting part of the just published thirty-sixth volume of the German Shakspere Society's Journal is its prefixed annual report. This contains the announcement of action taken by the Society on the 22d of April through which a prize of 800 marks is offered for the best essay on the subject of "Shakespeare's Belesenheit" (roughly the German for Farmer's classic title, "An Essay on the Learning of Shakspeare"). Attached to the prize is the canny proviso that the papers offered must be written *in deutscher Sprache.* The contest closes on the 1st of April, 1901. Dr. Joseph Schick, Professor of English in the University of Munich, Professor Wülker, Professor of English in the University of Leipzig, and Mr. Albert Cohn, the compiler of the bibliographies published every few years in the Society's Journal, are to be the judges. The subject is wisely chosen, and the contest, if confined strictly to the natural limits suggested by it, ought to throw fresh light upon the interesting question of Shakspere's book-learning; and with such judges, especially the one first named, the successful essay cannot fail to prove a substantial contribution to English scholarship in general.

Another interesting part of the report is Professor Wülker's letter of greeting to Dr. Furnivall on the occasion of his seventy-fifth birthday and his concomitant election to be an honorary member of the Society. It is a graceful recognition of valuable service and zealous devotion to a cause which has had all too few supporters in England. Perhaps Professor Wülker's statement that "the German Shakspere Society has always recognized the contributions of English scholarship in a spirit not only void of envy, but full of gratitude," should not be taken so seriously as to lead to the inquiry why the President of the New Shakspere Society had to wait until his seventy-fifth birthday to be made an honorary member of a sister society which includes such names as that of "Samuel Timmins of Birmingham" upon its roster of "Ehrenmitglieder." Dr. Furnivall's response to this touching tribute is full of simple dignity, and deserves to have been set in type with a little more care and intelligence than has been expended upon it. Its five sentences contain four misprints: the clause, "*for the honour, you and they have done,*" should have no comma after *honour; following,* split in the middle of its diphthong, "follo-wing," looks odd; *successive* is so spelled in English, not *succesive; Ameria* is an obvious misprint for *America.* Dr. Furnivall is more careful than most men about his spelling and pointing, and where he differs from the *orthographia recepta* his peculiarities are not due to ignorance. It must go rather hard with him to have his letter thus mangled in the reproduction.

An interesting reprint of a drama of 1559 and 1560, a field in which Professor Brandl has been working for some time, is one of the papers that follow. In reproducing the text, a compromise is made between modern and ancient punctuation—a vicious practice of Professor Brandl's, which destroys one of the valuable features of a reprint without any compensation. For such a mongrel system of pointing English is meaningless; either the old system should be reproduced *punctuatim* to assure the faithfulness of the reprint, or the modern system should be frankly adopted to insure the reader's intelligent comprehension of the text. Many German scholars have the habit of treating New English punctuation in a somewhat cavalier fashion, either pointing New English according to the German system, which is quite different from ours, or making a haphazard compromise between the two.

The year-book also contains Mr. Cohn's bibliography carried up to the end of 1899. The compilation, however, is, unfortunately, not so trustworthy as it should be. Mr. Cohn, for instance, seems to be unaware that the *Nation* prints many scholarly and careful reviews of books in the field of English literature and many important contributions to our knowledge of English grammar. He also makes the mistake of not examining carefully some of the most important of his Shaksperiana entries. If he had done so he would not have failed to notice the fact that the discussion of the meaning of *Beget* and *Begetter* in Elizabethan English, which is vital to the understanding of the Dedication of the Sonnets, began in the *Nation* (No. 1797), and not in the *Athenæum*, since Mr. Lee, at the end of his paper in the *Athenæum*, properly acknowledges his indebtedness to the *Nation* for much of his new material. The paper in the *Nation* contained, also, a new explanation of the word as used in "Hamlet," with substantiating references which Mr. Cohn has entirely overlooked. It is a pity, too that Mr. Cohn's bibliographical work has not been arranged according to a better system. The rubrics "Shakespeare editions" and "Shaksperiana," with the sub-rubrics "in English," "in German," "in other languages," offer a classification which interrupts an alphabetical arrangement several times with no corresponding gain. Nevertheless, Mr. Cohn's work, which he brings to a close with this instalment, covering, as it does, a period of thirty-six years, deserves the grateful acknowledgment of all Shakspere scholars. It is to be hoped that Mr. Schröder, who is to carry on the work in subsequent numbers of the journal, will do as much for Shakspere bibliography as Mr. Cohn has done.

A Book of Whales. By F. E. Beddard, M.A., F.R.S. London: John Murray; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1900. 8vo, pp. 320, illustrated.

Individual whales, possibly not the very largest, have been taken of a length of 95 feet and a weight of 147 tons. With members attaining such dimensions, this group of the mammals contains at once the largest creatures existing and the largest known to have existed at any time. Including the porpoises and the dolphins, the smallest of the species is several feet in length—so large as not to be readily overlooked. At first thought, it would seem as if these animals should be well known through the multitude of observations that must have been made upon them, but such is not the case. Few of the eighty or more species, of some thirty-five genera, on the lists have been at all well studied. Many of them range through all the oceans, some are local, some are fresh-water, some are rarely seen, some have been observed but once, and none are easily secured and preserved. Some types are known from fragments of skeletons, and the different forms that have come into possession of those able to preserve them are dispersed over the entire world. The records, also, by many writers in many languages, are scattered everywhere so widely that it is no light task to bring together the knowledge of this section of the mammalia in a book that is not too technical and not too popular, that is not a monograph, but yet contains the most important information on the subject, that is a solid book tempered with anecdote, and that, while giving the main facts of structure, properly sets forth the affinities and the influence of habits and environment.

This work is a good general account; it contains excellent studies of the viscera, skeleton, teeth, dermal structure; and comparisons with the living or the extinct or with the sea-cows, seals, or others. The classification and notes on whaling are included. The derivation of the cetacea is traced no further than to possible ancestors that lost a hairy covering as they gained a dermal armature, like that of the armadillo or other edentates, and then lost the bony plates as they acquired the cetacean skin.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott, Prof. E. A History of Greece. London: Longmans, Green & Co.; New York: Putnams. Part III. 445-403 B. C. $2.25.
Abruzzi, Duke of the. The Ascent of Mount St. Elias [Alaska]. F. A. Stokes Co. $12.50.
Adams, B. America's Economic Supremacy. Macmillan. $1.25.
Baden-Powell, Major-General R. S. S. Sport in War. F. A. Stokes Co. $1.25.
Beard, D. C. New Ideas for American Boys: The Jack of All Trades. Scribners. $2.
Beard, D. C. The Playground, Field and Forest: The Outdoor Handy Book. Scribners. $2.
Beman and Seller, Drs. The Human Frame and the Laws of Health. [The Temple Primers.] London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 40c.
Bird, R. Paul of Tarsus. Scribners. $2.
Borrow, G. The Bible in Spain; or, The Journeys, Adventures, and Imprisonments of an Englishman in an Attempt to Circulate the Scriptures in the Peninsula. London: John Murray; New York: Putnams.
Buell, A. C. Paul Jones, Founder of the American Navy. Scribners. 2 vols.
Burnham, S. M. Bible Characters. Boston: A. I. Bradley & Co. $1.25.
Bury, J. B. Gibbon's History of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire. London: Methuen & Co.; New York: Macmillan. Vol. VII. $2.
Butterworth, H. Jack's Carrier Pigeons: A Tale of the Times of Father Taylor's Mariners' Home. Boston: A. I. Bradley & Co. $1.25.
Carus, Dr. P. Whence and Whither. Chicago: The Open Court Publishing Co. 25c.
Cary, M. B. The Connecticut Constitution. New Haven: The Tuttle, Morehouse & Taylor Co.
Caxton, W. The Golden Legend; or, Lives of the Saints. [Temple Classics.] London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. Vols. III. and IV. 50c.
Chabot, A. The Dancing Master. Translated by Pauline W. Sill. Lippincotts.
Clews, H. The Wall Street Point of View. Silver, Burdett & Co. $1.50.
Cooper, J. F. Ned Myers; or, A Life Before the Mast. [Mohawk ed.] Putnams. $1.25.
Corelli, Marie. The Master Christian: A Novel. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Cornish, F. W. Sunningwell: A Novel. London: Archibald Constable & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.
Dix Gertrude. The Image Breakers. F. A. Stokes Co. $1.50.
Elliott, Sarah B. Sam Houston. [The Beacon Biographies.] Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. 75c.
Farrar, Rev. F. W. The Life of Christ as Represented in Art. Macmillan. $3.50.
Fulton, R. I., and Trueblood, Prof. T. C. Patriotic Eloquence relating to the Spanish-American War and its Issues. Scribners. $1.
Ferguson, C. The Religion of Democracy: A Manual of Devotion. San Francisco: D. P. Elder & Morgan Shepard.
Godwin, P. A New Study of the Sonnets of Shakespeare. Putnams.
Gore, W. C. Carlyle's Essay on Burns, with the Cotter's Saturday Night and Other Poems from Burns. Macmillan. 25c.
Hall, Ruth. The Black Gown. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Hamilton, M. The Dishonor of Frank Scott. Harper & Bros. $1.50.
Harland, Marion. Hannah Moore. John Knox. Putnams. 2 vols. $1.50 each.
Harrison, F. The Meaning of History, and Other Historical Pieces. Macmillan. $1.75.
Hazlitt, W. Lectures on the English Comic Writers. [Temple Classics.] London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 50c.
Henty, G. A. With Buller in Natal; or, A Born Leader. Scribners. $1.50.
Henty, G. A. Out with Garibaldi: A Story of the Liberation of Italy. Scribners. $1.50.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 27, 1900.

The Week.

Doubtless one of the reasons why President McKinley declines Germany's proposal in regard to the surrender of Chinese officials is, that such a demand would probably make it necessary to call an extra session of Congress. If China should flatly refuse to surrender everybody whom the allies deemed guilty of the outrages at Pekin or elsewhere, it would be necessary for the Powers to declare war against her, or "scuttle." Of course there can be no scuttle policy, but we cannot declare war except by the action of Congress. There will be no regular session of that body for ten weeks to come. Our intentions in the premises could not remain undecided so long a time. An extra session would be necessary. To call an extra session would at once precipitate the question of peace or war into the present campaign. On this question the Administration would be compelled to be in favor of war because the alternative would be scuttling. This would be a risk which no prudent Administration would care to incur. Fortunately, the material interests of the nation here coincide with the political interests of the party in power.

The announcement that the Governor of Amur has placed all the Mantchurian country now occupied by the Russians under Russian law and authority, is still too indefinite to base an opinion upon. All that can be said is that it involves some extension of Russian rule in the north of China, and that it is (or is proclaimed to be) a punishment for the attack by the Chinese on Blagovestchensk. The latter is a town on the left (Russian) bank of the Amur River. It was attacked by the Chinese military forces at the time when the Boxer uprising was going on in Pekin. This attack and the firing on Russian craft navigating the river created a panic among the Cossack population on the Amur, and led to the scenes described by Professor Wright in our columns this week. Only a very small part of Mantchuria can have been occupied by the Russians since the recent troubles began. The country itself is 800 miles in length (north and south) and 500 miles in width, and embraces 390,000 square miles, including the Liao-Tung peninsula. It is as large as New York and Pennsylvania, plus all the States west of them to and including Iowa and Minnesota.

What are the motives which have actuated the Boxers in China? Some light is cast upon the matter by an interview which the Tientsin correspondent of the St. Louis *Globe Democrat* recently had with Wong Ta, whom he describes as a typical Boxer. To the question why poor people like him were fighting the foreigners, Wong Ta frankly replied: "Partly because we hate you"; and to the further inquiry why they hated the foreigners, "Partly because the foreign devils have stolen so much of our country." But this is only one of the reasons. Others are that the foreign devils have come and laid iron rails across the country, and that "the iron dragon has walked over our people and crushed them." Moreover, the invaders have even moved graves to lay these rails down, and the ancestors, angry at this desecration, are revenging themselves upon their descendants. Proof of this is found in the fact that there are floods in one part of the empire and drought in another, with famines almost every year. There are other charges, as that "the foreign devils have been killing our children and using their eyes for medicine"—a belief which is widely held by the lower classes in China. Worst of all, the iron dragons, spitting out smoke and fire and making a great rumbling as they go along, pulling strange houses after them, "have been destroying Feng-shi"—that mysterious balance between wind and water which constitutes luck, and the disturbance of which means to a Chinaman something infinitely worse than the mere "end of the world." In this queer jumble of real and imaginary grievances, of justifiable resentment against harsh treatment, and of blind rage against all progress which runs counter to popular superstition, one gets some insight into the curious state of the Chinese mind, and sees more clearly the immense difficulties of securing a basis for a settlement with modern civilization.

By no means all the army officers in the Philippines share the views of the Taft Commission as to the prompt ending of the "insurrection." Many are, of course, prevented by their official positions from publicly giving utterance to the opinions which they have no hesitation in expressing privately. Occasionally, however, one is found who ventures to speak out. The latest is Capt. David F. Allen of the Thirty-eighth Volunteer Infantry, whose standing among his fellow-citizens in Indiana is such that he has been named as the Democratic candidate for Congress from the Ninth District. After declining to come home to take part in the campaign, because he deems it his duty to remain with his company in Luzon, he has this to say in his letter of acceptance:

> "I desire to mention some facts to correct any statement that may have been made in the district, to the effect that the island of Luzon is pacified, or that the backbone of the war is broken. The President's amnesty proclamation was published throughout the municipality of Balayan. It was read at high mass by the priest at least a month ago, thus giving it the widest possible circulation throughout the city, and yet, out of a population of fully 50,000, not one person has thus far taken advantage of it. The military authorities, by general orders published throughout the island, offered to pay 30 pesos (thirty Spanish silver dollars) for any kind of an old gun that could be fired. This order was published months ago, and yet in all the province of Batangas, composed of more than 200,000 people, not one rifle or gun has been offered for sale. The war is not over. The people have not become reconciled. These are the exact facts."

Capt. Allen also does not fail to mention that increased activity of the Filipinos in the field which is the burden of almost every report now received from Manila.

There is no more striking feature of Gen. MacArthur's report on the fresh outbreaks in the Philippines than the fact that the only troops which he could send to Gen. Young's relief were those which had just arrived from the United States, and that more reinforcements could not be furnished until they had reached Manila from San Francisco. If Mr. McKinley's luck seemed to have deserted him when this grave news came on the heels of the Taft campaign report, it must not be overlooked that the fortunate and unexpectedly sudden ending of active hostilities in China alone made possible the diversion of these fresh troops to the Philippines. Had Gen. Chaffee required all the men in China who were originally destined for duty there, Gen. MacArthur would have been unable to come to Gen. Young's aid without abandoning some of the towns and villages which are now "loyal" solely because of the presence of American troops. As it is, the calls for reinforcements are reported to be coming not only from Young, but from every other brigadier, and the response depends upon the number of troops now en route to Manila from San Francisco and the time of their arrival. With every one of Gen. MacArthur's 63,000 troops urgently needed, and insistent calls for more, with every available regular in the United States under orders to the Philippines, how can the 25,000 volunteers be withdrawn who must be mustered out, according to law, on July 1, 1901? Nothing but the promptest action on the part of Congress will supply a way out—the raising of fresh troops, regular and volunteer—and it will take months to do this, and to land the reinforcements in Manila.

The American rulers of Cuba are "deeply pained" to discover that the great majority of the delegates elected to the Constitutional Convention are "anti-American." Just think of that! Here are electors deliberately choosing representatives who will put the interests of their own country above those of a foreign nation! This is almost as bad as the obstinate wickedness of the Chinese in refusing to appoint negotiators who are "pro-foreign." With us, and with all civilized peoples, we know how great is the eagerness to elect officials who are for the foreigner first, and let the devil take the native citizens. Whenever we wish to negotiate a treaty, we take pains to send commissioners who are pledged in advance to surrender the American contention. No candidate gets so many votes in this country as the man who announces himself "pro-foreign." The nominee running on an anti-British, or anti-all-abroad, platform would be "snowed under." Yet these elementary principles of civilized politics the Cubans have not learned. And still there are some theorists who say they are fit to govern themselves!

Mr. Bryan's topsy-turvy notions about finance were never more unconsciously displayed than in his remarks about the German loan placed in this country. Do you love the Germans more than you do your own countrymen? he asks triumphantly. Lending money for love is a new doctrine. It is especially new for Mr. Bryan, who has been in the habit of making out the creditor a very unlovely character, luring the luckless debtor on to borrow, and then remorselessly exacting his pound of flesh. But it seems the Shylocks loved the Antonios just the same! However, Mr. Bryan has another crushing retort. If you are so glad to loan money abroad at 4 per cent., that shows that profitable investments at home are few. Where, then, is your boasted prosperity? But where, we ask, is *your* boasted adversity? If money for long-time investment goes begging at 4 per cent., the Western farmer will not have to pay more than 6 or 7 on his mortgages (instead of 10 or 12, some years ago); the business man can borrow at the bank on commercial paper for 5; new manufacturing industries can be launched on more favorable terms than ever before; rents will be lower; capital will be in search of the thrifty user of it. It is, indeed, a gratuitous perversity in an agitator thus to seize upon one of the surest signs of national wealth and well-being and try to wrest it to his own ends.

Platt and Croker are now taking up again the rôle of the comic actors of the vaudeville stage, who abuse each other like fish-wives in the sight of the victim whose pockets they have picked, and then go off into a corner to divide the plunder. The community may be amused by this, but it can scarcely be deceived. Platt may cry "blackmailer," and Croker retort "thief and liar," to his heart's content, but it is all a wearisome and hollow farce. The two bosses are exactly alike in principles and practice. Both are political gamblers, and nothing else. Moreover, they have a perfect understanding with each other. Never has their partnership for mutual advantage been more openly and brazenly displayed before the people of this State than at the present time. Yet they have such a belief in the infinite gullibility of the people that they get up these periodical little theatrical quarrels of theirs. Platt comes down to the footlights and, making serious efforts to look ferocious, bawls out that his fellow-comedian gets his money from saloons and brothels. "You old liar," yells Croker in a fine stage fury, "you know that you blackmail every corporation in New York." The audience roars, and the flattered actors bring out fresh blackguardism. If necessary, they will fall to pummelling each other before election day. But the day after they will be found in the wings, in perfect good-fellowship and shaking with laughter, where they will make an honorable division of their common booty.

Mr. Odell's letter to the President of the Merchants' Association on the Ramapo question is of the first importance. He now not only reiterates the pledge made in his recent speech, that he will give his cordial and active support to "any remedial legislation" which may be necessary to enable New York city to own and control its water supply, but explicity defines the expression remedial legislation as possessing its "fullest and utmost meaning, and that is that the rights of the city are paramount to all other individual or corporate rights not municipal." He further elucidates his position as meaning that, "if any action heretofore taken by the Legislature shall be a bar to the granting of such rights, that, of course, must first be swept away," and expressly states that "this would apply to the repeal of the Ramapo or any other grant that might be a hindrance to the consummation of this much-desired result." This seems to cover the whole ground, so far as the Republican candidate for Governor is concerned. The next thing to do is to make sure that a Legislature shall be chosen which will pass the law which Mr. Odell is now pledged to sign in case of his election.

Even the Goebel law of Kentucky is outdone in unfairness by the statute under which elections are now held in the city of St. Louis. When the Democrats, who have controlled the State for thirty years, decided to seize the metropolis, which has been Republican for some time past, they not only took the Police Department away from the citizens and gave it to a board appointed by the Governor, but they also turned over the elections to another commission constituted in the same way. Nominally, the Republicans are represented through a provision that only two of the three commissioners shall belong to the same party, but practically the third member is helpless. The law authorizes the Board—which means its Democratic majority—to turn over the control of the whole election machinery to a deputy, who may add names to the registry lists or strike them off, appoint all officers to take charge of the polls—in short, do just about as he pleases—and without any remedy in the way of appeal, except to the Board, whose creature and agent the deputy is. Naturally enough, there is great indignation in St. Louis, outside the ranks of the professional politicians of the party responsible for this gross outrage.

Gen. John M. Palmer, whose death occurred on Tuesday, was in public life nearly fifty years ago, and notable even then. He was a member of the State Senate of Illinois in 1854, when Douglas's Nebraska bill was pending in Congress. He was a Democrat and he represented Macoupin County, which was a part of "Egypt," as southern Illinois was then styled, and he was himself a native of Kentucky. If it could have been affirmed of any member of the Illinois Legislature then that he would be found among the supporters of Douglas, and in favor of admitting slavery to the new Territories, John M. Palmer would have been put in that category. Yet he was one of the five members (anti-Nebraska Democrats, as they were called) who bolted the caucus nomination of their party, and voted for Lyman Trumbull for Senator and elected him. Abraham Lincoln was also a candidate at that time, but he was the nominee of the Whigs. The Republican party did not then exist. Lincoln might have been elected then if the five anti-Nebraska men had given him their votes, but their position at home hardly allowed them to vote for a Whig. It turned out quite as well in the end that Trumbull was elected, for while Lincoln was not obscured, Trumbull was put in a position where his powers as a political debater added greatly to the strength of the Free-Soil party. Gen. Palmer's devotion to the cause of freedom was soon put to a new test. He entered the Union army, raised a regiment in Macoupin County, became a Major-General of Volunteers, and fought through the four years' war with Logan, Oglesby, McClernand, and many other Illinoisans who won national fame. He was elected Governor of the State, and Senator of the United States afterwards. In every place and at every time he showed the same sterling qualities that marked him when he turned his back on his party in behalf of freedom at the risk of his political future. His last service was his acceptance of the nomination of the Gold Democrats for the Presidency against Bryan four years ago.

Labor troubles for a large body of workingmen and their employers are averted by the news that the Conference Committee of the Amalgamated Association of Iron and Steel Workers and of manufacturers have finally agreed upon their yearly wage scale. The adjustment of wages this year has been attended with unusual difficulties, owing to the unsettled condition of the iron and steel trade. The scale adopted is a compromise, fixing wages considerably above what the manufacturers had proposed, and below what the workers wanted. It will remain in effect and binding upon employers and employees until July, 1901. The conference has had five sittings in different cities, and has finally determined the wages to be paid 60,000 workingmen for one year. In doing so it has made the occurrence of a strike or a lock-out altogether improbable during this period. This method of determining wages has been successfully employed in other industries, and there would seem to be no reason why some such scheme should not be agreed upon between the anthracite-coal operators and the striking miners. Operators and miners in the bituminous fields have had such an agreement for several years, and it has worked satisfactorily.

Chief Stainsby of the New Jersey Bureau of Statistics has undertaken an investigation of the trades-union movement in his State, with reference to the annual disbursements of the unions for strikes and benevolent purposes. As might have been expected, the returns, where they are at all ample, show that strikes have been declared in the course of the year pretty generally among the unions. Forty-seven unions, with a membership of 6,753, and a total income during 1899 of $46,369.49, report an expenditure averaging 27.1 per cent. of their income for strikes, and 18.4 per cent. for benefits, while 54.5 per cent. has been added to their reserves. Eleven unions of glass-workers included in the forty-seven report a strike expenditure during 1899 amounting to 44.7 per cent. of their total income, and nothing paid out in benefits. Eight unions of cigar-makers, however, report no strikes, and about one-third of the year's income devoted to the payment of benefits. From the figures given it appears that about 60 per cent. of last year's expenditures by all the unions were incurred in the maintenance of strikes. The building up of reserve funds which is indicated is calculated to exert a conservative influence over labor-unions, and it is to be hoped that these reserves may be more carefully preserved in the future than in the past against the serious drain occasioned by too frequent striking. Undoubtedly the unions in New Jersey and elsewhere are devoting more of their resources to the benevolent work of protecting themselves and their families against want. Their large expenditures for strikes, however, are evidence that they still too generally regard striking to be the chief end of their existence, and that in benevolence they are far behind the English unions, which estimate their strike expenditure at only about 10 per cent. of their total disbursements.

A nice point at law has been ruled upon by the Court of Common Pleas in Pennsylvania. A trade organization to "foster, protect, and promote the welfare of persons engaging in sheet-metal working, and for the protection and encouragement of such trade and commerce," applied to the court for incorporation. The law authorizes the court to grant charters to corporations formed for the encouragement and protection of trade and commerce in general, but Judge McCarthy rules that encouragement and protection of commerce in general is a very different thing from encouragement and protection of persons engaged in particular trades. It is plain, he says, that the law contemplates the promotion of the general public welfare which would flow from fostering the exchange of commodities in foreign or domestic trade, and not from the encouragement of the business of any particular class of persons who may happen to be engaged in a particular handicraft for their own private livelihood or profit. The court may grant charters to organizations for the encouragement of commerce in general, but not to organizations whose object is to protect the trade of a particular class.

English trade-unionists and labor men generally are up in arms over a recent decision of Mr. Justice Farwell of the High Court, restraining the officers of the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants from "watching and besetting" non-union men employed upon the Taff Vale Railway during a strike ordered by the Society. The judgment has no immediate effect, as this strike has been ended. The Society urged that it was not properly a corporation, and, therefore, could not be held responsible for the action of its members. Justice Farwell, however, rules that the Society is liable for the acts of its agents to the same extent that it would be if it were a corporation, and it is abundantly clear, he believes, that a corporation under the circumstances of this case would be liable. Trade-unionists in England, as in this country, are somewhat suspicious of the action of the courts in such matters, and feel that they are granting injunctions too freely in cases like this. The statutes under which English trade unions are organized deliberately withhold from the unions the right of incorporation, and this restriction of rights, the trade-unionists contend, implies a restriction of liabilities also. The problem is a perplexing one.

Mr. Chamberlain's election address, issued on Thursday, as was also Mr. Balfour's, adds new point to Shelley's old taunt that "war is the statesman's game." Evidently the Conservatives are going to make the South African war their trump card. Having given the war to them, Mr. Chamberlain calls upon the electors to say whether it was "just" and "inevitable." This scarcely comes up to our "holy" war with Spain, but that pitch of exaltation may be reached later. Moreover, Mr. Chamberlain is as anxious as ever Mr. McKinley was that the "fruits" of his war be not thrown away. As he recently expressed it in a letter to a constituent, the question was whether the country would intrust the settlement of affairs in South Africa to "a strong hand." The obvious reply to this is that the strong hand has a grasp upon the business already. Who has a "mailed fist" more threatening than Mr. Chamberlain's? And how much larger a majority does he want behind him in Parliament than he has now? Dissolution was not necessary until next year. By that time the strong hand could have settled everything. The political trickery of the appeal is evident.

Lord Salisbury won the general election of 1895 almost purely on domestic issues. His victory was to make an end of pestilent Irish Home Rule, and to open a magnificent prospect for social reforms, old-age pensions, and what not. There was to be contentment and progress at home, and an unbroken peace, born of calm strength, abroad. But cynic fate has a way of making a mock of election promises, and the Conservatives have scarcely a thing to point to in the way of domestic legislation, while their period of power has been one long record of foreign complications, anxieties, wars, and new responsibilities of all kinds. First came the Armenian atrocities, in regard to which Lord Salisbury suffered a distinct check and lowering of prestige. Then there was the Venezuelan tragi-comedy; the Jameson Raid, the Greek war, the Sudan campaign, Fashoda, the Russian advance in Mantchuria, the South African war, and now the acute crisis in China. It is an appalling list to have been crowded into five short years. There is, however, one domestic achievement which we had forgotten to mention. The income tax has gone up fourpence in the pound.

THE UNITED STATES AND GERMANY IN CHINA.

The proposal of Germany that the Chinese Government be required to surrender the persons whom the Powers consider guilty of the recent outrages at Pekin, as a preliminary to negotiations for peace, is open to several weighty objections. The first is that no such demand could be granted or even considered by any self-respecting Government. Each one of the Powers concerned would consider such a demand, if addressed to itself, a *casus belli*, and would order out its troops without further parley. It may be said that China is not a self-respecting Government, and that the rules which apply to the Powers do not apply to her. This, however, is a question upon which the Powers cannot say the last word. No country is more tenacious about the forms of diplomacy than China, and no other country can prescribe for her the terms preliminary to negotiations.

Undoubtedly the Powers could inflict great harm upon her if she should refuse to comply with such a demand. They could declare war against her, and this they would be obliged to do in that event. So the German proposal is virtually an invitation to all the others to join her in waging war against China. Her Ambassador was killed in Pekin, and, therefore, she has a cause of complaint not common to the others. On the other hand, it is a common opinion that she stirred up the bad blood in China which made the outrages against foreigners possible. There is reason to believe that the killing of Baron von Ketteler was an act of lawless revenge for the lawless seizure of Kiao-Chau Bay. At all events, the Powers do not all stand on the same footing. The others have not the reasons for declaring war that Germany has.

The second objection to Germany's proposal is, that it opens the door to a dispute among the Powers on the identification of the authors of the outrages. Differences of opinion will be sure to arise on the question whether the Empress Dowager is responsible for the killing of the German Ambassador and for the outrages generally. What kind of evidence is to be considered valid on that head? It might be possible to identify the person who did the shooting. It might be proved that he knew the Ambassador by sight, and that he fired with the intention of killing him. But to prove that the orders for the killing came from the head of the Government would be another matter altogether. To determine this point, the Powers would have to organize themselves into a court and take testimony, and all kinds of intrigues would be possible while the trial was going on. Opportunities for disputes and bad temper arising from unwillingness to find this or that Chinese official guilty would abound, and meanwhile the Chinese empire itself would be in a state of unrest, awaiting the decision. The situation would be one of the greatest delicacy—one which ought by all means to be avoided.

Assuming that the Chinese Government would refuse such a preliminary condition, and that war would follow, the conclusion of it would almost certainly be a partition of China, or at all events of the Chinese coast line, among the Powers. That this would not be unwelcome to Germany we may infer from the steps she took at Kiao-Chau Bay, and the reasons she assigned for it. She said, through the mouth of her Minister of Foreign Affairs, that while she did not desire a partition of China, she was determined, if it should come, to have a strategical position which would enable her to exercise a decisive influence. Looking at all that has gone before, it is hardly to be doubted that Germany put forward her proposal for the preliminary surrender of the guilty Chinese officials in order to hasten the event which she contemplated when she seized Kiao-Chau Bay. The United States has no interests looking that way. Our policy is that of the open door, not half a dozen doors that may be opened or shut according to the will of half a dozen Powers. For these reasons the answer of our Government, courteously declining the German proposal, should be, and we think will be, sustained by all parties at home.

The chorus of disapproval of our answer which comes from Europe (except Russia) ought to strengthen our purpose, and cause us to adhere to it more firmly than ever. It is said by our foreign critics, including Englishmen, that we are detaching ourselves from the concert of the Powers, thus weakening it, and, as one Berlin newspaper remarks, "increasing Chinese presumption and insolence." Detaching ourselves from the concert of the Powers, after accomplishing the rescue of the legations, is simply reverting to the policy of George Washington to avoid entangling alliances with the Powers of the Old World. Although we have done some despite to the early and safe traditions which proved so salutary in the first century of our existence, every opportunity to revert to them ought to be embraced. In the present instance we are invited to join in a demand which cannot be sustained in the forum of public law, a demand which points to war with China and possible complications with other Powers. No fairer occasion than this could be conceived for paying homage to the teachings of the fathers of the republic by retiring as speedily as possible from China, and in general minding our own business. We have made a great deal of money by following this policy, and we have lost much during the past two years by neglecting it. If it be said that this is a sordid way of looking at great questions of national import, that we have missionaries to protect in the interior of China, etc., let it be remembered that we forfeit nothing on that score by declining the German proposal, and that the lives of American soldiers are worth saving also.

A CONTRAST.

The morning newspapers of a week ago contained a fine piece of irony in the juxtaposition they presented of two telegrams from Manila. One was an official communication from the Taft Commission representing the fading condition of the "rebellion" in the Philippines, together with assurances that if Mr. McKinley were reëlected, the insurgents would disperse and peace and quietness would reign within sixty days. The other was an Associated Press dispatch saying that during the past seven days there had been a distinct increase of activity among the rebels, "particularly near Manila," and that an engagement took place on the previous Monday between ninety of our soldiers and one thousand of the enemy, in which we lost twelve killed, twenty-six wounded, and five missing, who are supposed to be dead. Among the killed are Capt. David D. Mitchell and Lieut. George A. Cooper of the Fifteenth Infantry, well-known officers, who had just arrived in the Philippines with the men of their regiment. The telegram stated that there was trouble in Manila also, and that there were rumors of a fresh attack on the railroad, that refugees were arriving from the country, that several garrisons and outposts had been attacked, the telegraph offices had been destroyed, the village of Rosario burned, a convoy of provisions attacked, the wagons burned, and five of the escort were missing. This report was officially confirmed by Gen. MacArthur, who adds the comment that a loss of thirty-three per cent. of the men engaged is profoundly impressive. It appears that in this instance the enemy's loss was less than our own, and that our men were forced to withdraw. It is a long time since we have had such a bloody and disastrous record. Of course we usually gain the victory, the insurgents are put to flight, and the dead are covered with glory. The condition of the island of Luzon, as here depicted, is strikingly like that foretold by Mr. Foreman in his late article in the *National Review*, on which we commented last week.

We will now return to the other telegram. This is a campaign document. It was drawn out by a cablegram from Secretary Root, dated August 17, which called for a report by cable on several things. Among others it requested a report on "the probable continuance of guerrilla warfare, and the influences operating to prolong it." This was as plain a hint as could be given, and it was promptly responded to. The answer was cabled from Manila on the 21st of August. It had been in Washington a month, and was made public at this time for its influence on the election. The whole scheme is betrayed in the following paragraph:

> "If election confirms present policy, remnant of insurrection will disappear within sixty days by surrender of leaders and fading out of rank and file."

This confident prediction is preceded by a rather glowing account of the soothing effects of the recent amnesty proclamation on the temper of the Filipinos. We are told that on the 21st of August the insurgents, who had not actually surrendered, had divided up into small guerrilla bands, and that nearly all the prominent leaders had been captured or had voluntarily taken the oath of allegiance, and that "all northern Luzon, except in Nueva Ecija and Balucan, is substantially free from insurgents." This halcyon condition of the 21st of August is now proved to have been an entire misrepresentation. A force of one thousand men cannot be considered a guerrilla band. The destruction of life and property chronicled by the Associated Press under date of September 19 is entirely inconsistent with the peaceful and submissive state of the Filipino mind which Judge Taft and his associates found existing on the 21st of August. Yet we are bound to believe that these gentlemen honestly believed all that they said. They were simply deceived by appearances, which have misled so many officials in civil and military life before them. In other words, they have not had the personal knowledge which Mr. Foreman has had, gained by long residence and observation. They have not had the experience which the Spanish officials had acquired from time immemorial. They have hazarded an opinion which has been falsified on the very day that it was printed. Mr. Foreman said, in his article in the *National Review*, that unless the members of the Taft Commission were familiar with the Spanish language, they could not obtain any real knowledge of the situation which they had to deal with.

It is needless to say that Mr. McKinley's political prospects will not be advanced by the dismal contrast presented in the two cablegrams from Manila. If the American people were to vote this year on the situation in the Philippines, without reference to things nearer home, this attempt to work the Taft Commission for political ends, and the refutation of their report which the press dispatches bring in letters of blood, could not fail to be disastrous. We do not anticipate any considerable change of votes now. Mr. McKinley will be reëlected, if this be his destiny, in spite of his Philippine policy, and not in consequence of it. We do not believe that the so-called rebellion will cease in consequence of his reëlection any more than we believe that the opponents of Imperialism will cease their opposition to it for that reason.

Their opposition is based not solely, not chiefly, on sympathy with a distant people fighting for liberty, but upon their apprehensions of the deadening influence of Imperialism abroad upon American principles, thoughts, habits at home. Since the reëlection of Mr. McKinley will not change the character and consequences of this ill-starred and blood-stained adventure, they will not cease their opposition to it. By and by the nation will grow sick and tired of the expense, the suffering, and the bad example that we offer to the world; and when it is discovered, as it surely will be, that there is "no money in it," that all the visions of wealth which have been dangled before our eyes (for the thousandth time in the Taft "report" itself) are unreal and delusive, it will not be regarded as such a dreadful thing to haul down the flag from a place where it ought never to have been raised.

LESSONS OF THE CENSUS.

The present indications are that the census will show that the total population of the country on the 1st day of last June was a little less than 75,000,000. The increase during the last decade in the 127 cities which had been reported up to the middle of last week was 4,424,000, as against an increase in the same places during the ten years preceding 1890 of 4,479,000, or about 55,000 less. In 1890 these 127 cities contained about two-ninths of the entire population of the country, which was then 62,622,250. At the same ratio, the gain in population for the entire country will be about a quarter of a million less than the 12,466,467 between 1880 and 1890. If the same ratio of increase, as compared with the decade from 1880 to 1890, which is shown for the places thus far counted prevails throughout the rest of the country, the total population will be somewhere between 74,800,000 and 74,900,000. Of course, if it shall turn out that the smaller towns and the country districts have grown more rapidly in the last ten years, relatively to the cities, than they did in the census period which ended in 1890, the population may be larger than the present returns indicate. On the other hand, if the increase in the rural and semi-rural districts has been less rapid in comparison with the cities than formerly, the total population of the country on the 1st of June will prove to have been not so great as now seems probable.

Apparently the region beyond the Missouri River, exclusive of Oklahoma, has increased very slowly in population during the last decade. The figures for thirteen of the large cities of that section have been made public by the Census Office. They are Topeka and Kansas City, Kan.; Omaha, South Omaha, and Lincoln, Neb.; Denver and Pueblo, Col.; Salt Lake City, Utah; Portland, Ore.; and San Francisco, Oakland, and Sacramento, Cal. In 1890 these places were returned as having an aggregate population of 880,178. In 1900 they are reported to have 1,029,318—an increase of 149,140, or at the rate of only 17 per cent. The contrast with their rapid growth from 1880 to 1890 makes the present figures the more striking.

Twenty years ago these thirteen cities had 432,661 inhabitants. The increase during the next ten years, if the census figures of 1890 were accurate, was 447,517, or at the rate of about 103 per cent. The truth is that undoubtedly in Omaha, and possibly in other places, the census of 1890 was fraudulently inflated. There can, however, be no question that from 1880 to 1890 the growth of the trans-Missouri cities was very rapid. Indeed, as it has turned out, it was too rapid. Many of them were "boomed" beyond all reason. In the then state of the development of the resources of the tributary country, there was not sufficient permanent employment to support the people who flocked to them. When the inevitable collapse came, it was, of course, felt in exact proportion to the extent of the previous expansion. There was a sudden transition from every appearance of abounding prosperity to a condition of depression and gloom. This state of things contributed greatly to produce the enthusiasm for the free coinage of silver which was so general and intense in that region four years ago.

Next to the cities west of the Missouri, those of the States which made up the Southern Confederacy have grown most slowly in the last decade. From thirteen of them the census returns are now available—Richmond and Norfolk, Va.; Charleston, S. C.; Atlanta and Augusta, Ga.; Jacksonville, Fla.; Mobile, Montgomery, and Birmingham, Ala.; New Orleans, La.; Galveston, Texas; Little Rock, Ark.; and Nashville, Tenn. Ten years ago the aggregate population of these cities was 739,550. It is now 896,518, an increase of 156,968, or at the rate of about 21 per cent. In the preceding decade they had added to their population 193,293 inhabitants, or at the rate of 35 per cent., so that there has been a marked falling-off in their growth of late years.

The figures for 101 cities in the region north of the Potomac and east of the Missouri have been made public. In these the increase has been at the average rate of 33 per cent.; in the twenty-five New England cities, 32 per cent. Unless, as does not now appear probable, the figures for the comparatively few cities not yet counted shall materially change the situation, it would seem that the urban population of the South has grown but little faster than the rural, while in the North the proportion of city dwellers is steadily and rapidly increasing.

How great the contrast is in this respect between some portions of the North and the South, as a whole, appears from a comparison between Massachusetts and the eleven States which made up the Southern Confederacy. Those States have about ninety times the area of Massachusetts, and had in 1890 about seven times its population. Ten years ago they contained seventeen cities, each of which had a population of 25,000 or upwards. In Massachusetts there were sixteen such places, but these cities were on the average so much larger that their aggregate population was 215,000 greater than that of the seventeen Southern cities. During the last decade these sixteen Massachusetts cities have grown 30 per cent. in population, while the Southern cities thus far reported have grown but 21 per cent. In spite of the great extension of manufacturing in the South, the disparity in the proportion of rural to urban population between it and the North seems tending to increase rather than to diminish.

THE TRADE-UNION CONGRESS IN ENGLAND.

The yearly assembly of trade-unionists in England, the thirty-third annual Congress, has just been held in the town of Huddersfield. The Mayor and Corporation of the town, the borough member of Parliament, and a large number of inhabitants assembled to give a welcome to 388 delegates of organized labor, representing 140 different trades and labor organizations, and about a million and a quarter of trade-unionists. At these annual meetings for deliberation and conference, the representatives of organized labor in England have for a generation prepared their industrial programme of action and declared their articles of faith. They have added new articles to their creed from time to time, but have year after year agreed upon a goodly number of issues which have long been identified with the trade-union movement.

The character of this year's deliberations may be inferred from the highly creditable discussion, in the President's opening address, of the scientific and philosophical aspect of the trade-union movement. He entered upon a lengthy argument regarding the struggle for existence in animal and vegetable life, and also among primitive men, quoting freely from the writings of Darwin, Spencer, Lubbock, and Huxley, and speculating upon the probability that the régime of collectivism, if it should be instituted, would suspend the struggle for existence and occasion ultimately the degeneration of mankind. Such an address delivered before an assembly of workingmen is certainly calculated to strike Americans with surprise.

This year again the old dissension has broken out, mildly but unmistakably, between the trade-unionists and the coöperators. The old charge was brought against the coöperators that they had attempted to defeat the just claims of the trade-unionists, and that they did not maintain trade-union conditions for their workmen, but "simply used the trade-union movement as a sort of advertisement for exploiting labor." The reply made to these charges by one delegate is significant of a great change of sentiment which has been taking place among trade-unionists since the days when they went about smashing tools, and organizing riots against those employers who undertook the introduction of labor-saving machinery. It was boldly asserted that the kernel of the whole affair was that the tailors were objecting to the introduction of the factory system, and they were advised to follow the example of the compositors and "get a hold of the machine."

It is interesting to note that the Congress took occasion to express its mind upon the war in South Africa, judged from an industrial point of view. While it was not unanimous in its opinion, the following resolution was carried by a small majority:

> "That this Congress regrets that the Parliamentary Committee has not referred to the disastrous effect upon the trade and industry of the country which has resulted from the cruel and unnecessary war now being waged in South Africa; and, further, protests against the suppression of these two independent states, at the dictates of cosmopolitan capitalists, as a blow against the independence of South African labor and those principles of national freedom which have characterized the history of the closing century."

One of the American delegates to the Congress improved the occasion to declare that he did not believe that Americans had any business with an army in the Philippines, that under the Constitution they had no right to hold subject peoples, and that doing so meant the opening of the doors of America to the low standards of civilization of Asia—an event greatly to be deprecated.

The Congress placed itself on record as unanimously in favor of old-age pensions, declaring that the only legislation which will solve the problem presented by age and poverty in modern industrial life is that which recognizes the pension as a civic right, which may be claimed by any citizen on reaching a given age. The chief objection to such a scheme, said Mr. Steadman, M.P., was its cost. It has been ascertained, however, he asserted, that the cost of a reasonable scheme would be only £10,300,000 per annum, and "surely a Government that could raise sixty, seventy, or eighty million pounds in a few months to fight a foreign country, was in a position to find the ways and means for such a beneficent work as taking care of the aged poor." This was no "harum-scarum resolution," but a practical proposition, and he appealed to the working classes not to be led astray at the coming general election by "khaki demonstrations."

Another matter which has been agitating the labor world a great deal of late—the advisability of compulsory arbitration—received due consideration. The motion was made to urge upon Parliament the passage of a compulsory conciliation-arbitration act, and the appointment of a court with authority to enforce awards by fines and imprisonment. This called forth an interesting discussion of New Zealand legislation, in the course of which it was very sensibly observed that what might be all very well for New Zealand might not work at all well in old England, where they were bound down by centuries of tradition. Further, objection was made to the idea of putting the affairs of trade-unionists in the hands of the courts, and the motion was lost by a vote of nearly four to one.

Of course, the eight-hour question came up for consideration, and the Congress declared itself strongly in favor of an eight-hour working day in all trades and occupations in Great Britain, on the ground that the foreign-competition argument against the institution of an eight-hour day was a "bogey" to keep down wages, and that real competition for Lancashire operatives came from countries where hours were shortest and wages highest, not from the half-starved, overworked laborers of China and Russia. Resolutions were introduced regarding the housing of the working classes, the employment of women and children, workmen's cheap trains, amendments to the factory acts, and other matters of local or passing interest. Upon all these questions the deliberations of the delegates were characterized by a moderation and intelligence which will command the respect of all readers—a contrast, indeed, to our labor congresses, where the dominant notion is that an organization exists primarily for the purpose of ordering and conducting strikes, and where "deliberation" commonly gives way to passionate, unintelligent denunciation of capital.

THE LATE MR. HENRY SIDGWICK.

By the death of Henry Sidgwick, till lately Professor of Moral Philosophy in the University of Cambridge, England has just lost one of her finest thinkers, and the two ancient English universities one of their brightest ornaments. His books are so well known in the United States that some account of their author, a man even more remarkable than could have been gathered from his books, may be valued by our readers.

Henry Sidgwick was born at Skipton in Yorkshire, on May 31, 1838. His father, who died comparatively young, was a clergyman and (we believe) the head-master of one of the ancient grammar schools of England, and was in the intercourse of life. Few men of our time have had a wider or a more devoted circle of friends than Henry Sidgwick. He had the highest sense of the duties of friendship, and never failed to respond by way either of counsel or of sympathy. His stores of knowledge, his acute criticism, were always at the service of fellow-workers. In many points he seemed to reproduce one of the philosophers of antiquity. His life was almost ascetic in its simplicity. He was free alike from vanity and from ambition, and went on the even tenor of his way in a single-minded pursuit of truth for its own sake. He seemed to have neither prejudices nor enmities, and, when he had to blame, chose the least cutting words in which to do it. It was related, as an instance of his sense of public duty, that at a Parliamentary election which raised an issue he thought momentous to the welfare of the country, he travelled all the way from Davos, in the easternmost corner of Switzerland, to Cambridge to record his vote, although there was little doubt as to how the election would go. In an English university, where, though the society is very large, everybody knows everybody else, such qualities as his naturally gave him immense influence, and won affection as well as admiration for him.

It was a model life, in which the spirit of philosophy seemed to have its perfect work; a life of single-minded devotion to truth and duty and friendship; a life serene, gentle, unperturbed by the ordinary desires and objects of ambition, and viewing with a calm fortitude those great problems of man's future on which his mind was always bent. It was a life which has been an example to many beyond as well as within the University where his life was spent. This generation has seen no more beautiful spirit.

CIVIL-SERVICE REFORM.

Before returning to these columns, I have been thinking a good deal about a subject which occupied many years of my life, and which was known to the country as "civil-service reform." It had first attracted my attention in the year after the war, because no one who had not been born under the "spoils system" could think of this system as a possible means of governing a great community. The spoils system as I had known it in England, was the division of places in the public employ among a small number of rich people, who were known to be responsible for the use they made of their patronage, and were really a little ashamed of each other when they did things unusually disreputable. Moreover, the tenure of office was for life, and the pay was pretty good. It was therefore worth the while of even the most ill-qualified appointee to fit himself for his place, and he had abundant time to do so. The system was full of scandals, nevertheless, but the scandals were kept down by the comparatively small number among whom the patronage was divided, and by the desire of the appointee himself to make his office seem respectable. The Foreign Office clerks, for instance, in London, and in fact the Government clerks generally, were kept in some degree reputable by the fact that they had to be persons fit to figure in what is called "society."

Under the "spoils system" as it was known in America after Jackson's time, everybody had qualifications enough for any office he could get, and the getting of office depended upon services to the party in power. After the suffrage had become universal —that is, about 1848—in most parts of the country, the number of candidates for places was, of course, enormously increased, and less and less attention began to be paid to any kind of fitness except party fidelity, and the talk of any other kind of fitness soon became a little ridiculous. Moreover, with such a vast number of persons in the field competing for the offices, it was absolutely necessary that the tenure should be short and uncertain. Every office had to be made to go as far as possible in conciliating and winning supporters. At the time the *Nation* was started, a stream, composed of men who had been dismissed, was constantly pouring forth from one door of a large custom-house or post-office, while a similar stream, composed of men who had got their vacant places, was pouring in at another. The scandals which such a state of things was sure to produce, or had already produced, were concealed, first by the anti-slavery struggle, then by the war. In fact, plain people all over the country had become convinced that what was called "rotation in office" was the true democratic system; that the consideration of any other qualification than party fidelity was foreign and "un-American."

The very first attempt to arouse the nation to the dangers of this state of things was made by Mr. Jenckes, a member of Congress from Rhode Island, who spoke powerfully, and introduced a reformatory bill in Congress for some years after the war, namely, 1866-68; but he secured very little attention. It was considered a "fad" of his, and no "practical man" thought it worth while listening to him. I was among the number, however, of those who were looking around for reformatory work to do, and did really believe that the time had come to redress the abuses which the war had created or had brought to the surface. I accordingly began to back Mr. Jenckes up in the *Nation*, and organized, with the assistance of Mr. Henry Villard, who was at that time the Secretary of the Social Science Association, a meeting, which we convened by invitation and which was held on January 16, 1869, in one of the rooms in the old University Building in Washington Square, to hear Mr. Jenckes expound his new gospel. It was a select audience, comprising among others the late James Brown, Howard Potter, George Cabot Ward, C. E. Detmold, and Charles Loring Brace. We thought it desirable that his address should be followed up by approving resolutions, and I was appointed to draft them. Unhappily, the proposer, the late S. B. Chittenden, was unable to read my hasty handwriting; more unhappily still, when I was asked to take his place, I could not read it either, which was an inauspicious beginning, but we got over it. Owing to the prominent share which Mr. George William Curtis afterwards took in *Harper's Weekly* in the work, many people are now under the impression that he originated the civil-service-reform agitation. In this there is no truth whatsoever. He, too, was under the impression that we had entered on the reformatory period, but the question which he thought most ripe for settlement was woman suffrage. For two years the *Nation* was the only periodical which, to my knowledge, deigned to notice the civil-service-reform movement as a thing of practical importance. In fact, until nearly our own time, the politicians have never even grasped the name of the reform. To most of them it is still known as "civil service."

In the beginning it was considered a sort of Prussian whimsy, with which some foolish young men were occupying themselves. In 1865 a breakfast was given by one of them, then resident in Washington, to a few of those interested in the movement, to which one or two Senators and members of the House were invited. I was deputed to enlighten one of the Senators, who still sits in that august body, as to what was meant by "civil-service reform." They clearly considered it a harmless folly to which the American people would never give any countenance. This feeling found expression in after years among politicians through dubbing it "snivel-service reform," and the persons engaged in promoting it as "Miss Nancys." In their eyes it bore about the same relation to "real politics" which croquet bears to baseball or football. Rotation in office, with "spoils" for the victors at elections, was the manly way of playing the game; any other way was considered too silly for discussion. Besides this, it was freely denounced by those politicians who took it seriously as part of a hideous and widespread attempt "to establish caste in America." I was struck at that time by the disappearance from the minds of political men of the idea that party contests were intended in any degree to promote the public welfare. The theory that the elections were simply games of poker, intended to transfer the offices and salaries to the party which could get most votes, had taken firm hold of the political mind. For long years politicians favored the reform, but denounced "this particular measure."

Since that period the new system under which offices are awarded for merit, to be ascertained by an examination, has made considerable progress, at least in the Federal service. It is no longer considered ridiculous to ascertain a man's fitness by examination. But even President Cleveland, who owed a good deal of his support to his supposed friendship for civil-service reform. showed after his first election that he had not fully grasped the reform idea. The civil-service reformers in New York, for instance, urged the reappointment of Mr. Pearson to the Postmastership of that city, a position which he had reached by repeated and deserved promotions under Republican Administrations. I went to Washington to see Mr. Cleveland about it, in company with the late Mr. Dorman B. Eaton. Mr. Cleveland was civil to us, and cheerfully acceded to our request for Mr. Pearson's appointment, but it was quite clear, through a conversation with him afterwards, that he accorded us this favor, not so much because he thought the reform was a good thing, as because he considered us entitled to something for supporting him at his election. In fact, the reform has, from the first moment, been dependent on the President's good will, and the good will has been largely dependent upon what its promoters did to help him get his office. The thing that has most plainly appeared in the history of the reform is that it has owed such success as it has achieved, not to the belief in it of Congressmen, but to the fear entertained by many of them that opposition to it would damage them at the polls. In other words, it has never been the result of clear national policy. On the President has been thrown the responsibility of enforcing the law. Every President has met this responsibility by consulting his own electioneering needs in various parts of the country. Hardly in any two great offices has the law been enforced with equal rigidity.

The great obstacle in the way of the reform is neither American nor English; it is simply human. All that we know, by past experience, of the attempts of man to provide himself with a government, makes it most unlikely that an effort, repeated every four years, on the part of one hundred millions of people, to elect a single officer as the chief of a state, should succeed. It seemed reasonable enough when the Constitution was framed for 3,000,000 of people, leading a simple agricultural life. All democracies of which the world has had any experience, have been small, and the thinking of the same things about the republic has been an easy matter. Our desire to create a "world Power" out of the Federal machine is a fiasco, full of shame and disappointment. One thing alone would suffice to prevent its success, even if there were no others, and that is the power lodged in the person nominated for the office to secure his election, or reëlection, by the distribution of an enormous patronage. This attempt has to be repeated or promised every four years, and of course every repetition increases the tide of corruption. I do not need to point out the differences between McKinley's career and that of one of the early Presidents in this respect. Our Presidential election is almost a disgrace to human nature, so flagrant are the abuses by which the contention is carried on, on both sides, and so absurd the arguments by which the claims of the respective candidates are advocated. As an illustration, McKinley's principal claim to the support of thousands of respectable people is, that he is not as bad as Bryan. The selection of a third man from the whole population, better than either, which would be the natural human thing to do, is considered impossible. Federal America is to-day, in the last resort, ruled by a small knot of "bosses," of the mental calibre and education of Platt.

E. L. G.

THE BREACH BETWEEN RUSSIA AND CHINA.

STRETENSK, SIBERIA, August 6, 1900.

Up to the first of July the relations between the Russians and the Chinese seemed most cordial. The treaty which gave Port Arthur to Russia and permitted the building of the Chinese Eastern Railway through Mantchuria, provided that the President of the road should be a Chinaman, that at the expiration of a hundred years the Chinese Government should be permitted to purchase it, and that the protection of the road should be jointly secured by Chinese and Russian troops. The flag of the company is a combination of the Chinese and the Russian.

When I passed through Mantchuria along the line of the railway in June, perfect harmony seemed to prevail. The guards sent along with us were part of the time Chinese and the other part Cossacks. The engineer constructing the road terminating at the upper Sungari River spoke in special praise of his Chinese soldiers. Our Cossack guards always seemed on the most cordial terms with the Chinese along the way, especially with the children. The news which we brought of the disturbances along the railway near Pekin and Tientsin, caused no alarm, since these roads were controlled by English and German companies, and it was thought that the opposition was chiefly against the English.

Still, there were some ominous signs. At Teling, near Mukden, the engineers, about the middle of June, received a telegram from Pekin saying that no more laborers could be procured on account of the revolution. At Quan-Chen-tse we learned that there was much feeling against the road, arising from the ill-treatment of the workmen, so that for some time no Mantchurians had been willing to labor for the company. Many were prophesying that the road would never be completed. So far as we could learn, however, the cause of complaint lay with the Chinese contractors and not with the company, except as they did not exercise sufficient control over these. The work of grading was let out to Chinese middlemen, who hired coolies, whom they squeezed and cheated to the extent of their ability, which is second to that of no other people in the world. The coolies were all imported from the vicinity of Che-Foo and Tientsin. Probably 200,000 were at work along the line when we were there.

When we emerged from the region the last of June, no fears were entertained by the Russians at Harbin. A few days after, however, everything was changed. The families of the engineers were compelled to seek safety in flight. We found a number of them in Blagovestchensk a month later awaiting opportunity to ascend the Amur to find railway transit home. Troops in great haste were gathered from every quarter, and hurried to Harbin for the protection of the property. In this effort Blagovestchensk was left defenceless, and was soon besieged by the Chinese. There was a general conscription of horses all along the border, with the mobilization of all the troops and the seizure of all the steamers on the river for their transportation.

Instead of having escaped from danger in ascending the Amur, we had run directly into it. The northern part of Mantchuria is mostly mountainous and sparsely inhabited. From the mouth of the Sungari River to Blagovestchensk there are but few settlements on the Mantchurian side of the Amur. Above that city for five hundred miles, the Chinese settlements are equally scarce. But the valley of the Nonni extends from the centre of Mantchuria well up to the vicinity of Blagovestchensk, and is thickly studded with villages. This line of settlements is continued to the Amur, and through it the Chinese in large numbers had overflowed into the valley of that river, not only settling on the Mantchurian side, but living in great numbers in peaceful relations with the Cossacks on the Russian side. A fort was built by the Chinese many years ago at Aygun, about twelve miles below. To a great extent the Russians were dependent on the Chinese for labor in the mines up the Zeya River, and for their supply of vegetables, which the Chinese are specially successful in raising. That the Russians should have been so oblivious to the danger from an attack at this point is one of the most striking evidences of the cordiality of relations supposed to exist between the countries.

But in the twinkling of an eye all this was changed. As soon as the Russian troops went down the river on transports (July 14), the fort at Aygun began, without warning, to fire upon passing steamboats, and, on the 15th, fire was opened upon Blagovestchensk, and some Russian villages were burned opposite the fort. The actual injury inflicted by the Chinese was slight; but the terror caused by it was indescribable, and it drove the Cossacks into a frenzy of rage. The peaceable Chinese, to the number of 3,000 or 4,000, in the city were expelled in great haste, and, being forced upon rafts entirely inadequate, were most of them drowned in attempting to cross the river. The stream was fairly black with their bodies. Three days after, we counted hundreds of them in the water. In our ride through the country to reach the city on Thursday, the 19th, we saw as many as thirty villages and hamlets of the Chinese in flames. One of them was a city of 8,000 or 10,000 inhabitants. We estimated that we saw the dwellings of 20,000 peaceable Chinese in flames that awful day, while parties of Cossacks were scouring the fields to find Chinese, and shooting them down at sight. What became of the women and children no one knew; but there was apparently no way for them to escape to a place of safety. On our way up the river for 500 miles above the city, every Chinese hamlet was a charred mass of ruins. The large village of Motcha was still smoking, and we were told that 4,000 Chinese had been killed.

We do not mention these facts to excite prejudice against the Russian authorities or against the Cossacks. This work of devastation has not been ordered by those high in authority. It is rather the result of mob violence such as instigates the promoters of lynch law in the Southern States, or, more nearly, such as has from time immemorial animated the pioneers in America against the Indians. The wholesale destruction, both of property and of life, was thought to be a military necessity. The wives and children of the Cossacks were in terror. I shall never forget the night spent in one of these villages a few miles below Aygun, three or four days after hostilities began. Every household was packed up in carts and removed in the middle of the night to the prairies in the interior. The guards were insufficient, and the only way, as they thought, to protect their own families was to strike terror into the hearts of all the Chinese. And so the work of destruction has gone on.

Since we left, we hear that Aygun has been taken amid a great loss of life to the Chinese. Work in the mines is paralyzed and the laborers driven out. Peace between the Russians and the Chinese, the two greatest nations of the world, has come to an end. Years cannot wipe out the enmity engendered. The Chinese Eastern Railway extends for 1,800 miles through a country that must remain hostile. The American Indians were so few that they could be exterminated or absorbed. The absorbing capacity of the Chinese is fully equal to that of the Russians. Yet these nations are now brought into contact along a line 2,000 miles in extent. The prospect is not pleasing. Can the breach be healed? Can time erase the memories of the last two weeks? It seems impossible.

G. FREDERICK WRIGHT.

YELLOWSTONE PARK AS A SUMMER RESORT.

BILLINGS, Montana, September, 1900.

The number of visitors to the Yellowstone National Park during the summer of 1895 was 5,438. In 1899 it was 9,579. This increase was no doubt owing in considerable part to the large amount of advertising the Park has received within the last few years in railway folders. Three railroads are now interested in promoting the popularity of our national game preserve and geyser region, and they not only call attention to the wonders of the Park in all their ordinary folders, but issue finely illustrated special pamphlets with good maps and detailed information for tourists. The Northern Pacific proudly prints the words "Yellowstone National Park Route" at the head of every page of its folders. It owns and runs the fifty-one-mile branch road from Livingston to Cinnabar, near the northern entrance to the Park, and also the hotels in the Park. The Burlington route, justly famed for its excellent dining-car service on the European plan—which is rapidly getting to be the American plan, too—offers special facilities to tourists from the South and Southeast in its line through Nebraska and Wyoming, with through cars from St. Louis to Portland, connecting with the Northern Pacific at Billings and thence reaching the Park in a few hours. It is probable that in time the Burlington will build a branch of its own to the Park, on the eastern side, from Toluca. A road in that direction has, in fact, just been begun, and 30 miles of the 110 to Cody, Wyoming, are to be constructed by Crow Indians.

Tourists taking the Burlington route have an opportunity, by stopping over at Edgemont, to see the famous Hot Springs in South Dakota, the mining towns Deadwood and Lead City, the Black Hills, and a splendid cave—the Wind Cave, ten miles from Hot Springs—which is interesting even to those who have seen Mammoth Cave, and has some strange and beautiful formations not to be found in the latter. With its various branches, it appears to be almost as extensive as the Kentucky cave; about a hundred miles, with 3,000 chambers, having been already explored. The fact that the entrance to this cave is a narrow hole descending almost straight down for 155 feet before the level route is reached, and that often a strong wind rushes out of this hole, has suggested to imaginative tourists returning from the Yellowstone that this Wind Cave is the cavity of an extinct geyser. There is no scientific evidence to support this view, except the proximity of Hot Springs, but the theory has its charms for those who wonder where the big geysers of the Park can store the enormous volumes of steam and water that issue from them at intervals.

The third railroad that has helped to make the Park conveniently accessible is the Oregon Short Line, which, since my last visit, three years ago, has opened a new way to the Park from the West, offering special facilities to visitors from Idaho, Utah, and California. In connection with this railroad a new stage line makes the round trip of the Park from Monida—a word formed of the first syllables of Montana and Idaho—to Cinnabar in six days. Except that this stage line makes Mammoth Hot Springs its last stop instead of the first, it follows the same route as the older Yellowstone Park Transportation Company, and the passengers of both stop at the Northern Pacific Company's hotels. Apart from these two stage lines, there are (besides walking and wheeling, both of which are indulged in to some extent) three ways of making the 150-mile round trip of the Park as usually seen by tourists. Some take their own wagons, tents, and provisions; others go with one of the parties who are licensed to conduct tourists, with movable camps (not to be commended, as a rule); while a great and growing number go with Mr. Wylie (formerly professor at the Bozeman, Mont., Academy), who, five years ago, conceived the sensible plan of establishing, at the most important points, permanent camps consisting of large and small tents, with spring beds and stoves, and dining-room, so that tourists can have all the pleasures and experiences of tenting—with a blazing camp fire every evening—without the necessity of hunting for fuel and water and doing their own foraging and cooking. Some travellers will always prefer a hotel to a tent; but the increasing popularity of the Wylie Company is due largely to the fact that it gives tourists a whole day instead of only a few hours at the two places where they are most anxious to linger—the Upper Geyser Basin and the Cañon. Mr. Wylie is now considering a plan of introducing automobiles in place of stages. This would be a most welcome innovation, as it would solve the problem of the dust (which, on account of the drought, has been a special nuisance this summer), and would either reduce the time required for seeing the Park one-half, or enable tourists to remain longer at the principal points of attraction.

I wonder why the writers of railway pamphlets, in their commendable efforts to make the marvels of the Yellowstone Park known to the travelling public, do not quote as an irresistible appeal a passage in Capt. Chittenden's valuable book on the Park (p. 53), in which he relates how, when James Bridger, the Daniel Boone of the Rockies, on his return from this region, tried to have his narratives published, "no periodical would lend itself to his service. The editor of the Kansas City *Journal* stated editorially in 1879 that Bridger had told him of these wonders fully thirty years before. He prepared an article from Bridger's description, but suppressed it because his friends ridiculed the whole thing as incredible. He later publicly apologized to Bridger." By 1872 the tales of Bridger and those who had preceded and followed him were sufficiently credited to induce Congress to set aside this region as a national park. It was a big reservation to make—61.8 miles long by 53.6 wide, or 3,312.5 square miles; but hot springs, geysers, and other curiosities are to be found in all parts of it, and many of them would have been destroyed or turned to base uses ere this had not the Government taken them under its protection. At present most of the visitors remain barely long enough to get a glimpse of the principal volcanic phenomena and scenic features, but I believe the time is approaching when the Park will become a popular summer resort, at which visitors will remain long enough to see everything properly and to lay in a supply of health for a year's work.

It may seem strange to commend a region which Bridger picturesquely described as "a place where hell bubbles up" as a summer resort; but it must be remembered that it is only the water—or some of it—that is hot, while the air is always cool by day (at least in the shade), and at night as cold as the trout brooks which flow past the hot springs and geysers—often so closely that one can easily catch a trout and cook it on the line without moving a step. This delightful and invigorating freshness of the air is due to the fact that nearly the whole Park region is between 7,000 and 8,000 feet above ocean level—an altitude from which one would look down on the top of Mount Washington a quarter of a mile or more. And during the exceptionally hot summer we have just passed through I doubt whether there was another place in the United States so cool as the Yellowstone Park, with the possible exception of the tops of Mount Washington and Roan Mountain in North Carolina. When we first arrived, indeed, it seemed as if it were going to be almost too cool for comfort. On the morning of July 19 a glass of water on our washstand in the tent at Willow Park was a solid chunk of ice, and a man who got up at five said the thermometer was down to 18 degrees. This was exceptional, and was not repeated, but at some of the camps—they vary according to altitude and exposure—there is frost nearly every night, and the evening and morning fires in the hotels and tents are much appreciated. The warmest station in the Park is Fort Yellowstone (Mammoth Hot Springs), and there, according to the official report, the maximum in July and August, 1899, was 88 and 83, respectively, the minimum 34 and 34, the mean 61.39 and 56.96. The coldest station is Willow Park, where the Apollinaris Spring furnishes an abundance of delicious ice-cold mineral water, and where there is the best brook-trout fishing. The cold nights are conducive to profound, refreshing sleep; but in view of the high altitude and considerable daily range of temperature, it is obvious that the Park can be commended as a summer resort only to healthy persons who need rest, and not to those whose hearts or lungs are diseased.

Visitors who make up their mind to spend a month or two in the Park will not suffer from lack of diversion. Fishermen in particular will find an abundance of streams to cast their flies on in July or their grasshoppers in August. The trout, to be sure, is a coy, fickle beast. One evening, near Willow Park camp, I caught twenty-four; the next evening, in the same region and under similar conditions, only two. Early in July, in the same creek, a man and his wife, both experts, caught more than 500 in two days. They ought to have been arrested and sent out of the Park. Such greed spoils a whole brook for the season. The Firehole River and its tributaries at the Upper Geyser Basin are full of trout, but they bite only late at night, or when there are clouds and a ruffling breeze. The lake is as full of salmon trout as ever, and parties going out for an hour or two in boats often bring back from 50 to 100, weighing from one to two pounds each. These are not nearly such good food as the brook trout; but it is more fun to catch them. Some of the two-pounders have to be played five or ten minutes before they can be lifted out. Many of these fish, though not as large a proportion as formerly, are diseased, and these are not gamy at all, nor, of course, are they fit to eat. The lake trout are also caught in the Yellowstone River, as far down as the falls. About two miles above the upper falls, on the right side of the river, the fishing is very good. There I caught, in an hour, ten, weighing fifteen pounds.

Trout are the only animals visitors are allowed to kill in the Park. Hunters must leave their guns at the entrance in charge of the soldiers, or, if they expect to leave by another route, must have them sealed. "Snapshots," however, are not forbidden, and three persons out of every four are provided with cameras. It is being generally recognized now that it requires more skill and is more fun to kodak an animal than to murder it. Some tourists get group pictures of 60 to 100 or more elk. Most of them get a chance at the deer, which sometimes remain in the road till the stage is less than a hundred yards away. At Willow Park there was an opportunity to watch beavers at work. Some men partly destroyed their dam, repeatedly, working at it an hour with hooks; but twenty-four hours later the busy beavers had built it all up again. It was interesting to watch them swimming down stream with twigs in their mouths, which they deposited and fastened deftly in the swift current, or diving for mud. They did not mind the spectators. One day a tourist caught one of them by the tail and tried for half an hour to take him to the camp; but the beaver fastened his sharp teeth in the man's leg and he was glad to let him go. The Yellowstone Park is the only place in the world where one can see beavers at work thus fearlessly. It is also the only place where buffalo are still to be found roaming at large; not many, however—probably only twenty or thirty. The scouts see them, occasionally, in winter.

There are many other animals that the tourist may chance to see, but his best friend is bruin. There are nearly as many bears in the Park as there are monkeys in a tropical forest, and they are almost as amusing. The hotels make it a point to dump their kitchen refuse a few hundred yards behind the house, and in the evening from half a dozen to twenty bears will come from the woods for their supper. One evening I saw four almost tumbling down a hill in their hurry to get to the spot. Sometimes two will quarrel over a bone, get on their hind legs and paw one another. Their growls sound dangerous in the dark, but there is no danger to the on-lookers. At most of the hotels and camps they also have bear cubs chained to poles, and these afford much amusement. At the Lake Hotel this summer there were a pair of twins, one of whom was considerably stronger than the other. One afternoon they were boxing and wrestling playfully when their chains accidentally got caught and twisted. It was amusing to note the growing indignation each one manifested in the belief that the other one was choking him. The blows, growls and bites became a serious matter, and the stronger one finally got so vicious that two men had to come and untwist the chains. When we last saw the cubs they were sitting as far apart as their chains would allow them, with a sulky expression of "I won't play with *you* any more."

At one of the Wylie camps they had only one cub, which felt lonely and bleated just like a lamb. The mother came to see and nurse it several times a day, and every time she went away she kept looking round again and again, in a way which plainly meant, "Well, why don't you come?" At the Cañon Hotel they had a grizzly cub, but most of the bears in the Park are of the black and cinnamon varieties. The blacks are timid, but the cinnamons, though they will not attack unprovoked, sometimes refuse to be driven away. At one of the lunch stations, this summer, a cinnamon helped himself to the meat in the kitchen and refused to leave. The soldiers were called and he growled at them, too, whereupon he was shot. The soldiers also kill, early in the season, all the animals that might possibly prove dangerous, such as gray wolves, wildcats, and mountain lions. There is no case on record of any one being killed by these animals, but Lieut. Doane relates that when Truman C. Everts was lost (over a month) in the Park, in 1870, he was kept up a tree the greater part of a night by a "California lion." When he was found, a large lion was killed near him, and he said it had been following him for several days. He subsisted, by the way, on thistle-roots boiled in the hot pools.

Of these hot pools or springs, quiet or pulsating, the number in the Park is countless. At the Upper Basin alone there are twenty-six geysers—no two alike—and about 400 springs. Many of these springs are exquisitely colored, and hunting for the more beautiful ones will be one of the chief diversions when the Park has become a regular summer resort. The hurried tourists who do it in five to seven days see very few of them. Probably the loveliest of all is not even mentioned in the guide-books—the last large one of the group which lie to the left of the road going from the Grotto geyser to the Riverside. When the sun shines on it, the following colors and shades may be seen in the water and the margin and lining of the basin: orange, burnt-orange, olive brown, olive green, Nile green, apple green, emerald, cream, yellow-gray, indigo, glacier blue, blue-black, clear white, gray-white, brick-red, and golden ripples from the sunlight—sixteen in all. I suggest that it be called the Kaleidoscope.

The principal amusement of those who remain in the Park several weeks is, however, geyser-chasing. When I visited the Park the first time, thirteen years ago, I remained at the Upper Geyser Basin one day. On the second visit I remained three days, and this time nine days; yet even now there are two geysers—the Giantess and the Beehive—that I have failed to see in action. It is lucky for the hurried tourists that Old Faithful, which is one of the finest of the geysers, though less thrilling than the Giant, Castle, or Grand, plays regularly every sixty-five minutes. Were it not for this, most visitors would see only the smaller ones, like the Sawmill and the Spasmodic, in action, with perhaps the Riverside, which has an interval of six to eight hours. Though the Superintendent in his report annually recommends that the Park Association rebuild its hotel at the Upper Basin—the one point where a hotel is most wanted—it refuses to do so, and the passengers therefore have only five or six hours at the Upper Basin, and in the middle of the day too, when the big geysers are usually at rest. The Wylie passengers are better off, for they have two evenings and two mornings at this Basin, but they, too, are dependent on luck for a view of the Castle, Grand, or Giant, which are extremely irregular. The Castle and Grand may play several days in succession and then rest a week, while the Giant this year had an interval of seven to eight days.

As the Giant is the most sublime of them all, we made up our mind to see it if it took all summer. On Saturday afternoon, July 29, the guides saw indications of an impending eruption. In the evening, accordingly, a party of a dozen campers and others—including the family of the photographer of the Park, Mr. Haynes, who have a cabin at this place and never miss the Giant—started a bonfire and watched till 10:30. As it was then too dark to see much, even if there had been an eruption, we all went to our lodgings, fully expecting that the perverse thing would go off at night. But it did not play till 4:10 P. M. the next day. My wife and I were the only persons in the neighborhood at the time. It was extremely exciting to see the beginning—the water spurting up, first twenty feet, then fifty, then the full height, 250, at which it remained half an hour, while the eruption of water and steam lasted an hour longer. We set up a yell like wild Indians. It was taken up and repeated to the other end of the Basin, a mile away, and in a few minutes several dozen persons had hurried to the spot, on foot, on horseback, or in wagons, to witness the spectacle, which nothing but a volcano can equal in grandeur and beauty. The wind—an important factor—was just right for the proper commingling of steam and water, and the declining sun provided a rainbow background. Millions of gallons of water, and steam enough to run all the factories of Pennsylvania for a week, were shot into the air. The hot water tumbled in cascades into the Firehole River a few feet away, raising its level an inch or two. It is a river well named, for there are dozens of these fire-holes, large and small, on its banks.

There is evidence that many of the fire-holes in the Park have become extinct, but in geology a thousand years are as one year, and no one now living will see any serious diminution of activity in the geysers. A few years ago the Splendid ceased to play, but a new geyser, the Daisy, a few feet away, took its place. It spouts higher, I think, than it did three years ago; and the Splendid, too, had one short eruption this summer, and may come back. The Mammoth Hot Springs are less active on one side than they used to be, but more active on the other. Like the Paint Pots, they suffer during a drought, but revive after rain. The Mud Volcano, after a violent eruption which covered all the trees in the neighborhood, has become less active, and there have been some changes at Norris Basin. But Norris will probably have two new geysers soon, while the geysers at the Upper Basin have been more active this season than they had been for years. Conditions of rain and snow in the mountains, both in summer and winter, seem to affect them. Then there are phenomena that are only now being made accessible to tourists. New roads built within the last few years have opened one of the gruesome "Hoodoo" regions to regular inspection, and revealed the fine Gibbon River scenery with the queer Chocolate Springs. But the most important innovation since my last visit is the path down the Cañon, which has been constructed by Mr. Richardson at the Wylie

Camp. He takes parties across the river in a boat, shows them the Cañon from the other side, which is the finer of the two views, and then, with the aid of rope and ladders, takes them down to the foot of the lower falls in perfect safety.

When we entered the Park, Capt. Brown had just left with his soldiers for China, and their place was being taken by Capt. Good's troops. This may explain why the formations were less carefully guarded than they used to be under Col. (now General) Young. Some campers told me their guns had been so carelessly sealed that they would have no trouble in using them. But what particularly surprised me was the sight of several loaded hay wagons coming from Hayden Valley. Capt. Chittenden says that this valley "is an important winter range for the Park buffalo and elk," and that "its preservation as a free winter pasturage is absolutely essential to the perpetuity of game in the Yellowstone Park." Is this grass to be taken away from the wild animals and given to the soldiers' horses?

HENRY T. FINCK.

Correspondence.

THE THIRD-PARTY MOVEMENT TOO LATE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have read with interest the varied correspondence published in the *Nation* upon the question, McKinley versus Bryan, and heartily concur with your several correspondents in their arraignments of both parties. The time seems already to have arrived when your suggestion is applicable, that "if the bosses have their way, voting will soon be reduced to a smelling match to see which egg offered to voters is the least addled."

Mr. James B. Nourse, in the *Nation* of September 13, thinks that when you advised voters to abstain from voting for McKinley, you ought to have gone further and advised voting for Bryan. In sustaining this view, Mr. Nourse catalogues some of the shortcomings of McKinley and his party, but fails to advance a single merit for Bryan and his following. For example, he refers to the heinousness of McKinley's high-tariff policy, but he fails to point to a single utterance of Bryan in opposition to it, or any expression in the Democratic platform favoring tariff reform.

You have very properly observed that the nomination of Mr. Caffery as a Presidential candidate by the "third party" affords relief to thousands of voters who have no stomach for voting for either of the other candidates. The only regret is, that such action was not taken at an earlier time, before the great mass of the voters had aligned themselves with one or the other of the two old parties. If the third-party agitation had been begun early in the campaign, and pushed with vigor, the result might have been to crystallize the movement into a political organization of sufficient importance to entitle it to a permanent place alongside the other two parties, and with potentialities for ultimate reform of existing political evils, of which there appears now to be no promise whatever.

T. G. D.

MISSISSIPPI, September 16, 1900.

THE BRYAN CONVENTION AS A SIGN OF THE TIMES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The article by Poultney Bigelow, in the current *Contemporary Review*, describing the Bryan Convention at Kansas City, ought to attract the attention of every thinking man. That the vulgar boss at present rules in politics is, of course, merely an illustration of the old lesson that, whatever the form of government, the man of power rules. And in a democracy of average humanity the man of power is the one who can give what the most want, namely, the full dinner-pail and lessened hours of labor—*panem et circenses*. That Crokerism and Hannaism flourish more and more is a sign of the times wherein we but follow the evolution of the democracies of the past. The only possible salvation is that men in general may become so enlightened as to see that the boss is only a plunderer, and that the real guide to real betterment of economic conditions and of all other conditions is the scientific expert to whom all men will defer, just as they do now to the authority of the specialist in medicine. When practical economics and politics become branches of applied science, and rulers scientists, and voters scientific, we may see the social millennium towards which we strive.

HIRAM M. STANLEY.

LAKE FOREST UNIVERSITY LIBRARY,
September 21, 1900.

AN UNHISTORICAL SOCIETY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: When Mr. B. F. Stevens wrote the "Conclusion" which is printed in the twenty-fifth volume of his "Facsimiles of Manuscripts in European Archives relating to America, 1773-'83," he was able to cite a number of striking examples of discrepancy between manuscript originals and printed copies, as showing the importance to historical students of a photographic reproduction of documents, which trusts nothing to the discretion of editors or the accuracy of copyists and printers. A little later, Mr. Stevens might have illustrated his argument by an example of misdealing with his own 'Facsimiles.' It is furnished in the volume of the Proceedings of the Vermont Historical Society, October 18 and November 2, 1898. In an appendix to these Proceedings, seven of the Stevens Facsimiles are printed, wholly or partly, and three of the seven (Nos. 548, 549, and 1034, pp. 149, 150, and 151) are seriously misrepresented in what purports to be a literal reproduction.

In Facsimile 548, of a private letter, December 24, 1778, from Sir Henry Clinton to William Eden, who had been one of the Commissioners for restoring peace, the former, in a postscript, indicates some of his straitened circumstances thus:

> "Our flower is out, a bread of peas, oatmeal & Indian corn may be made for six weeks longer, after that we literally starve. Cruel neglect. I can not flatter myself that G—— will return to us, nor that G. B. can replace that Corps, read Rebel Clinton's Correspondence with his Assembly, see what terrors the Indians spread, observe Ethan Allen's *Manifesto*, by the bye I send you a short discription of the Verdmont district, recollect its situation, what these people did against Burgoyne, what they can do for us, I need say no more, in short send an Army here, or reinforce Canada and leave the Coast of Atlantic to your fleet with troops sufficient for Expeditions." . . .

In the appendix to the Vermont Historical Society's volume (p. 149) there are four lines of what purports to be a quotation from this passage, as follows:

> "Observe Ethan Allen *henceforth*, by the bye I send you a short description of the Vermont district, recollect its situation, what these people did against Burgoyne, what they can do for us."

Now, this volume of the Vermont Society's Proceedings is especially devoted to Ethan Allen. The body of it is mostly filled by an address on the Green Mountain hero, in which Gov. Clinton's proclamation of February, 1778, and Allen's rejoinder to it (the *manifesto* referred to in Sir Henry Clinton's letter, as cited above) are discussed at considerable length. It is that address, of course, which gives occasion for quoting from the documents in the "Facsimiles"; but observe how utterly meaningless and disconnected the quotation is made. Instead of bearing on past events, Sir Henry's remark is made prospective and deprived of sense.

But the next instance of misrepresentation is worse. Gen. Clinton's enclosure (Facsimile 549), the "Description of the District of Vermont," is given as being by William Smith, Chief Justice of New York, and as being dated 24 December, 1778, and as signed W. S. On what authority it is so attributed, signed, and dated does not appear. Certainly not on that of Mr. Stevens, nor on that of the Facsimile itself, which shows neither date nor signature, nor any mention of William Smith. But this is not the whole of the liberty which somebody has taken with the document. In the Facsimile, it ends with the words: "make their present expiring rebellion desperate." In what purports to be a reprint of it there are seven added lines, which prove to be a paragraph taken out of a letter written two years later (January 21, 1781) by Chief Justice William Smith, and grafted upon this document without an explanatory word.

The final instance is less serious, but claims attention. In Facsimile 1034 (p. 151) Gen. Sir Henry Clinton (to William Eden), 11 Dec., 1779, encloses extracts of letters from Gen. Washington to Major Talmadge 29 May, 13 and 27 June, 1779. This letter on the Facsimile is described in the usual way A. L. S.—autograph letter signed—but in the appendix it is given as A L 5. From it the Editor misquotes: "I enclose *some* correspondence with Major Talmadge by which you will see if we want good intelligence he has not better. It was found in the *Sergts* (?) pocket when taken." But the Facsimile reads: "I enclose *you W's* correspondence. . . . It was found in the *Majr's* pocket when taken." . . .

Sir Henry Clinton's writing, always bad and sometimes worse, is difficult to read; but, in this instance, "you W's" correspondence, "found in the Majr's pocket," is confirmed by the perfectly legible enclosure (Facsimile 1002), where, in the heading, "Extracts of Letters from Gen. Washington to Major Talmadge," the words "taken upon him" are added by the British General himself.

It seems proper to inquire whether the Vermont Historical Society approves of this manner of dealing with historical documents in the publications for which it is responsible? Presumably it does not; but there is evident room for improvement in the editorial supervision of its publications. I.

THE MUSKALLONGE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the kind review in the *Nation* (p. 217) of McCarthy's 'Familiar Fish,' the reviewer asks "whether it is true that the muskallonge is found in the upper Ohio valley." It is true. The writer has seen specimens from Chautauqua Lake. It was described as "Esox salmoneus," from the Ohio River, by Rafinesque in 1818, and as "Esox ohiensis" from Mahoning River in 1854 by Kirtland. It also occurs in Conneaut Lake.

DAVID STARR JORDAN.

STANFORD UNIVERSITY, CAL.,
September 18, 1900.

GRAY'S LADDER OF ROPES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: What was the exact nature of the practical joke that drove the poet Gray from Peterhouse to Pembroke Hall? The question is not very important in itself, but it possesses a certain curious interest, and its solution may throw some light on the rough-and-ready way in which literary biography is written. There is also a sentimental interest about it. No right-feeling person likes to think that Gray was ducked in a tub of water. There are brutalities enough in the social annals of the last century, in all conscience, and if this particularly stupid atrocity can be expunged from the records we ought to be thankful. Happily, it *can* be expunged, as what follows will prove beyond a reasonable doubt.

The vulgate text of the adventure may be given in the words of Mr. Leslie Stephen in the 'Dictionary of National Biography':

> "In January, 1756, he ordered a rope-ladder from London. . . . Some noisy young gentlemen at Peterhouse placed a tub of water under his windows and raised an alarm of fire. Gray descended his ladder and found himself in the tub. . . . The authorities at Peterhouse treated the perpetrators of this ingenious practical joke more leniently than Gray desired. He thereupon moved to Pembroke."

For this form of the story Mr. Stephen cites Archibald Campbell's 'Sale of Authors,' and no other authority has ever been found. Mr. Gosse, in his Life of Gray in the "English Men of Letters," gives substantially the same account, but in greater detail and with a few vivid narrative touches. His authority is also Campbell, upon whom both he and Mr. Stephen seem to rely completely. One would infer from their way of speaking that Campbell's narrative bore manifest signs of trustworthiness. In fact, however, it bears signs of the opposite quality.

Archibald Campbell, whose 'Lexiphanes' is remembered because it is mentioned in Boswell's Johnson, published his 'Sale of Authors' anonymously in 1767. It is a dialogue in imitation of Lucian's 'Sale of Philosophers,' and is not lacking in rough humor. Apollo and Mercury, to pay off their debts, have resolved to dispose of a miscellaneous lot of authors at public auction. To collect the authors has been found somewhat difficult. Gray, in particular, was hard to catch. When he is produced before the bidders, he appears "wrapt up in a watchman's coat," and Mercury, the auctioneer, explains the strange sight as follows:

> "You must know, having made many unsuccessful attempts to catch this great poet, I was at last obliged to have recourse to stratagem. Though he has a great deal of poetical fire, nobody indeed more, yet is he extremely afraid of culinary fire, and keeps constantly by him a ladder of ropes to guard against all accidents of that sort. Knowing this, I hired some watchmen to raise the alarm of fire below his windows. Immediately the windows were seen to open, and the poet descending in his shirt by his ladder. Thus we caught him at last, and one of the watchmen, to prevent his nerves being totally benumbed by frigorific torpor, lent him his great coat."

Campbell adds, in a footnote, a frank disclaimer, admitting that he knows nothing about the truth of the story: "The stories of the fire and the ladder, and silver tea-tongs, are reported, though perhaps they have no other foundation than what may justify a harmless pleasantry, in a work of this sort." The anecdote of the tea-tongs, which occurs elsewhere in the 'Sale,' is an absurd and indecent jest, intended to satirize the poet's fastidiousness. No biographer has thought it worth a moment's attention. Yet, for Campbell, it rested on the same authority as the tale of the fire and the ladder—that is, on no authority at all. He knew both stories as facetious anecdotes,* and reproduced them without vouching for them. Even Campbell had never heard of the tub and the ducking. There is not a word of it in the dialogue. It should be added that Campbell was a Scottish purser in the navy, and had no connections with the literary, social, and academic circles to which Gray belonged.

There is, however, a first-rate witness, whose testimony has been printed for many years, but has been systematically overlooked. This is the Rev. John Sharpe, who was a fellow of Corpus Christi College when the affair took place. In a letter of Mr. Sharpe's, dated March 12, 1756, and published in Nichol's 'Illustrations,' vol. vi., p. 805, we have the following paragraph:

> "Mr. Gray, our elegant Poet, and delicate Fellow Commoner of Peter-house, has just removed to Pembroke-hall, in resentment of some usage he met with at the former place. The case is much talked of, and is this. He is much afraid of fire, and was a great sufferer in Cornhill; he has ever since kept a ladder of ropes by him, soft as the silky cords by which Romeo ascended to his Juliet, and has had an iron machine fixed to his bedroom window. The other morning, Lord Percival and some Petrenchians, going a hunting, were determined to have a little sport before they set out, and thought it would be no bad diversion to make Gray bolt, as they called it, so ordered their man Joe Draper to roar out fire. A delicate white night-cap is said to have appeared at the window; but finding the mistake, retired again to the couch. The young fellows, had he descended, were determined, they said, to have whipped the butterfly up again."

Mr. Sharpe's letter was written only six days after the date (March 6) of Gray's admission to Pembroke. His account tallies with the hints in Gray's own letter of March 25 (to Wharton), with Mason's note in his 'Memoirs of Gray,' 1765, pp. 241-2, and with the MS. memoranda quoted in Wordsworth's 'Social Life at the English Universities in the Eighteenth Century,' p. 689.

The successive accretions to this simple anecdote are instructive. Gray rose and looked out of the window. Gray ran down the ladder in his night-gown. Gray fell into a tub of water at the foot of the ladder. Gray was chilled and had to be wrapped up in a watchman's coat. Gray was so overcome that he had to be "carried into the college by the friendly Stonehewer, who now appeared on the scene." The last touch, which brings in Gray's friend Stonehewer, as a *deus ex machina*, will be recognized as Mr. Gosse's. The suggestion for it is no doubt Gray's mention of Stonehewer as a witness to the "minute circumstances" which led to the quarrel with Peterhouse (letter to Wharton, March 25, 1755). *Crescit eundo*.

G. L. K.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., September 13, 1900.

DATA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Permit me to call attention to the increasing use of the word *data* as a singular noun. As an illustration, I quote the following sentence from an address delivered before the National Educational Association last July by a professor in the University of Pennsylvania:

> "There has been a growing tendency to crowd children's minds with data about literature, in the evident belief that this data is in some mysterious way a training in literature."

A colleague informs me that, at a recent meeting of a leading scientific association, the expression "this data" was used almost exclusively in referring to tables of figures, groups of formulæ, etc.

FRED. NEWTON SCOTT.

UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN, September 18, 1900.

Notes.

In conjunction with Methuen & Co., London, G. P. Putnam's Sons will publish a series entitled "Library of Standard Literature," and consisting in large part of reprints of masterpieces; but it will also embrace works which have never been reprinted or have been long out of print, or printed in limited editions. Great pains will be bestowed on textual accuracy, and scholarly notes and introductions are promised. Poems of Spenser, Milton, Cowper, Wordsworth, Shelley, Keats, and Tennyson; Boswell's Johnson; Smith's 'Wealth of Nations'; Butler's 'Analogy'; Hobbes's 'Leviathan'; Carlyle's 'French Revolution'; Coleridge's 'Biographia Literaria'; Macaulay's 'Essays'; Thomas Ellwood's Diary; Chesterfield's Letters; Gibbon's Memoirs (edited by Dr. Birkbeck Hill), are some of the earlier announcements—all English save Paget Toynbee's Italian text of the 'Divine Comedy.'

The Messrs. Putnam's fuller fall list embraces the following titles, among others: the first volume of Gaillard Hunt's edition of the writings of James Madison, running to six or seven volumes, in style uniform with the same firm's Jefferson, Washington, Franklin, etc.; 'Roger Ludlow, the Colonial Lawmaker (1590-1664),' by John M. Taylor; 'History of the Scotch-Irish Families of America,' by Charles A. Hanna; 'Historic Towns of the Southern States,' edited by Lyman P. Powell; 'North Americans of Yesterday,' by Frederick S. Dellenbaugh; the second volume of Dr. Morgan Dix's 'History of the Parish of Trinity Church in the City of New York'; the third part of Blok's 'History of the People of the Netherlands'; a translation, by the Rev. L. H. Schwab, of Nippold's 'The Papacy in the Nineteenth Century'; the final four (of six) volumes, to be sold separately, of Louis Creswicke's 'South Africa and the Transvaal War'; 'George Selwyn; His Letters and his Life,' edited by E. S. Roscoe and Helen Clergue; 'Milton,' by Walter Raleigh; 'Daniel O'Connell and the Revival of National Life in Ireland,' by Robert Dunlop; 'The Rossettis, Dante Gabriel and Christina,' by Elisabeth Luther Cary; 'More Famous Homes of Great Britain, and their Stories,' edited by A. H. Selwyn; 'Four Great Venetians: Giorgione, Titian, Tintoretto, Veronese,' by Frank Preston Stearns; 'The Life and Times of Omar Khayyâm,' by Prof. E. Denison Ross; 'The Dawn of Feminism: Studies of the Women of the Renaissance,' by R. de Maulde la Clavière; 'Care of the Consumptive,' by Dr. Charles Fox Gardiner; and 'The Revolver, and How to Use It,' by Walter Winans.

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*Compare, also, Walpole's letter to Mason, April 17, 1774, and Mason's reply, April 23.

Harper & Bros. will publish during the autumn Mrs. Humphry Ward's 'Eleanor,' in two volumes, and 'Literary Friends and Acquaintance: A Personal Retrospect of American Authorship,' by William Dean Howells, richly illustrated.

Further announcements from Little, Brown & Co., Boston, are 'The Problem of Asia,' by Capt. A. T. Mahan; 'In South Africa with Buller,' by Capt. George Clarke Musgrave; 'The Hidden Servants,' old stories told again by Francesca Alexander; and 'In and Around the Grand Canyon,' by George Wharton James, with thirty full-page plates and seventy illustrations in the text.

FitzGerald's 'Rubâiyât' is once more to be luxuriously got up, this time by the Nevernod Press of Boone, Iowa, in a square octavo, of which only 250 copies will be printed.

Henry George, jr.'s, Life of his father; 'A Woman Tenderfoot,' by Grace Gallatin Seton-Thompson; 'The Autobiography of a Tomboy,' by Miss Jeannette L. Gilder; and 'On the Wing of Occasion,' stories of civil-war time, by Joel Chandler Harris, who bids good-bye to journalism, are to be published by Doubleday, Page & Co.

The Century Co. will issue in October Richard Whiteing's 'Paris of To-day,' with André Castaigne's illustrations; 'Colonial Days and Ways,' by Helen Evertson Smith, with illustrations by Harry Fenn; 'Bread Line,' a story of journalistic endeavor, by Albert Bigelow Paine; and 'My Winter Garden [on the Gulf of Mexico],' by Maurice Thompson.

Nearly ready from E. P. Dutton & Co. are the 'Letters of Thomas Edward Brown.'

A Dante Calendar, with specially translated passages, and decorations by the hand of Blanche McManus, printed in three colors, is forthcoming from Edwin S. Gorham, Fourth Avenue and Twenty-second Street, New York.

Further information requires that we should add something to our recent brief notice of 'The Memoirs of the Baroness Cécile de Courtot' (Holt). This work was confessedly a modern patchwork based upon old letters and an old journal, but "edited" freely by Moritz von Kaisenberg, in whose family the papers had come down. We have recently learned that, while Herr von Kaisenberg maintains the authenticity of his documents, he introduced the character of the Vicomte de Trellissac out of his own imagination. The matter is discussed in a series of letters published by the London *Times* (see particularly under date May 5, 1900). Herr von Kaisenberg, in a letter to Mr. Heinemann, asserts that "he has conscientiously used his sources, and protests that no historian who has not at the same time been an eye-witness can do more." He gives the full name of his heroine, Cécile Élisabeth de Cissiy, and also of her family, Courtot de Cissiy. Her brother, he says, was Bishop of Auxerre. On the other hand, Lady Blennerhassett calls the piece a "barefaced forgery." In so far as our word of criticism was favorable, it rested upon a certain quality of readableness which the volume has.

The punctual autumn overflow of reprints, at reduced prices or in more ornamented guise, or with some other fresh lure for the book-lover, has begun in force. In the first category are Frederic Harrison's 'The Meaning of History, and Other Historical Pieces,' Farrar's 'Life of Christ as Represented in Art,' and (in a single volume) the 'Letters of Matthew Arnold'—all from Macmillan. The letters, if disappointing as a whole, contain much food for thought. Our eye lights, in 1870, on this characterization of Lord Salisbury: "He is a dangerous man, though, and chiefly from his want of any true sense and experience of literature and its beneficent function. Religion he knows, and physical science he knows; but the immense work between the two, which is for literature to accomplish, he knows nothing of." And this regards the Italians: "Their real danger is, that their upper and richer class is so formed on the model of the upper and richer class in France, corrupted like them, and likely to prove, when any pinch comes, enervated, too, like them. . . . I am inclined to believe in a fund of virtue, and consequently of strength, somewhere or other in the great mass of the French nation, more than in that of the Italian."

From the same house come two volumes of five of Lockhart's 'Life of Scott' in the admirable "Library of English Classics." In these Mr. A. W. Pollard packs the ten of the edition of 1839, and rescues from the abridgment of 1848 whatever Lockhart might have originally incorporated in the full work. We could wish that a biography whose interest owes little to the constructive powers of the author had been printed in a more helpful manner by distinction of type between text and extract. Perhaps (in view of the generous type here used) five volumes might have become four, and yet been made more readable.

In the output of the Dent-Macmillan pocket "Temple Classics," Caxton's 'Golden Legend' proceeds with volumes 3 and 4, while Macaulay's 'Essays' are begun, and we have Hazlitt's 'Lectures on the English Comic Writers' in one volume, Gulliver in one (with twelve illustrations by A. Rackham), Milton's 'Areopagitica, and Other Tracts' in one, supervised by Professor Vaughan with "special attention to the hitherto somewhat neglected matter of the right paragraphing of Milton's prose." But what is noticeable here is the number of paragraphs beginning with "And."

Stevenson's 'Treasure Island' is clothed anew by Charles Scribner's Sons, and furnished with capital illustrations by Wal Paget. Best of all, these are actually cut on wood, and hence the paper is a dull white without a glaze. What a relief it is from the everlasting "process" and its blinding sheen.

The handsome third volume of the Publications of the Colonial Society of Massachusetts (Boston) covers the transactions for the years 1895-'97, but in continuation of volume i.; volume ii., not yet ready, having been reserved for the Commissions and Instructions of the Royal Governors of the Province of the Massachusetts Bay. A large number of obituaries of deceased members—Dr. B. A. Gould, Martin Brimmer, John F. Andrew, and Edward Wigglesworth, to cite those of whom portraits are furnished—constitute a marked feature. We specify, among many interesting and valuable papers, Mr. John Noble's, on the trial and punishment of crime in colonial and provincial times, and Mr. A. P. C. Griffin's bibliography of the historical publications of the New England States. We have already mentioned Mr. Albert Matthews's discussion of the origin of the Americanism "campus." There is a full index, prepared by Miss Elizabeth H. Connolly. Evidently, we have in this flourishing Society the source of a very superior quality of historic production.

The Royal Historical Society, London, has just issued a volume that will interest those who would learn more of the expedition which Cromwell sent to the West Indies against the Spanish possessions, and which resulted in the conquest of Jamaica, after a dismal failure at San Domingo. The editor of the volume in question is Mr. Charles Harding Firth, author of the Life of Cromwell lately reviewed in these columns. Along with the 'Narrative' of General Venables Mr. Firth has published numerous papers bearing upon the expedition. Every document is elaborately annotated, and the editor has written a preface full of interest. There is much truth in the concise saying of Mrs. Venables, wife of the General: "A wicked army it was, and sent out without arms and provisions." For want of other food, the soldiers had to eat dogs, horses, and mules, thus anticipating, by two centuries and a half, the experiences of British troops in South Africa. Besides the want of arms and provisions, the expedition suffered from the lack of coöperation between Venables and Sir William Penn, the Admiral. Cromwell rightly sent them both to the Tower, on their return to England, and would not reëmploy either of them in the public service. Once in possession of Jamaica, Cromwell determined to keep and to colonize it. Of the efforts to induce colonists from New England to settle there, and of other measures for the retention of the island, Mr. Firth has given a succinct and admirable account in his Life of the Protector, in a chapter devoted to "Cromwell's Colonial Policy."

The special feature of the September Bulletin of the Boston Public Library is a list of text-books at present used in the public schools of the city. These five hundred titles on a multiplicity of subjects, many of them of books for the younger scholars, forcibly suggest the question whether our educational system is not putting the mere acquisition of knowledge too far above the training of the mental powers.

The *National Geographic Magazine* (Washington) for August contains as its principal article an illustrated account of the Colorado Desert by D. P. Barrows. Among the other contents are a description of the work of Charles Hose in Borneo, a reply to Professor Heilprin's assertions in regard to an assumed recent decline of the level of Lake Nicaragua, and a notice of Henry Gannett's report on the Forest Reserves of the United States, with a map. There is also a large-scale War Department map of northeastern China, including the coast as far south as Shanghai, which will be much prized.

Three articles, at least, distinguish the October number of the *Pennsylvania Magazine of History and Biography*. Two are but begun, the first being a noticeably agreeable "Life of Margaret Shippen, Wife of Benedict Arnold," by Lewis Burd Walker, accompanied by a pencil-sketch of her and her astonishing headdress, made by Major André. The second is a contribution to the history of lithography in this country, being a sketch of the career of Albert Newsam, a deaf-mute who practised the art in Philadelphia. The list of his portraits executed on stone is to be continued. The third feature is a facsimile of the entire No. 2 of Franklin's short-lived *Philadelphische Zeitung* (June 24, 1732). Eye of antiquarian had not seen a copy of this paper till, "by the merest accident," the Rev. Amos Stapleton of Carlisle, Pa., discovered this second number "among some old deeds during one of his ministerial journeys," and secured it for the Historical Society of Pennsylvania.

The account of the silk industry of Lyons in the *Consular Reports* for September is suggestive as showing the progress of industrial education. There are two institutions for teaching silk manufacture: the commercial school for foreigners, numbering generally from 250 to 300, and the municipal school for Lyonnese youth, with 300 to 400 pupils. Here everything is taught, from the "breeding of the silk-worm to the weaving of the finest stuffs for wearing, upholstering, mural decoration, and artistic embroidery." It is a significant fact that, in the commercial school, "some of the machinery bears the mark of a Philadelphia or Paterson manufacturer." Though there is a steady annual increase of the business, the proportion of raw silk raised in France is rapidly diminishing, as the land can be used more profitably for vineyards, orchards, and vegetable gardens than for raising cocoons. The cosmopolitan character of the industry is shown in the names given to the various tints, as, Cuba, Colorado, Manila, Khartum, etc. "In a book of sample colors containing nearly one thousand distinct tones, one is denominated 'Hobson.' It is a clear, bright blue, with a score of finely graded tints."

The bibliography of the geographical literature of the year 1899, published as the September number of the *Annales de Géographie*, includes the titles of 962 publications, articles in journals, proceedings of societies, and Government documents. The descriptive notes, prepared by experts of different nationalities, are explanatory and critical, and often contain valuable information. In point of number of titles, the United States leads all other countries. The apparent tendency is to broaden the scope of the work by including some publications not strictly geographical, but relating to the allied sciences of zoölogy, mineralogy, botany, etc. It is questionable, however, whether it is wise thus to increase the size of the volume, and hence to diminish ease of reference. The index contains the names of authors and travellers.

—There are books enough and to spare for whose existence it is hard to guess the reason, but one can account for most of them more readily than for Mr. C. F. Carter's 'The Wedding-Day in Literature and Art' (Dodd, Mead & Co.). Mr. Carter, finding that "not more than one hundred and eighty paintings in Europe and America have as theme incidents of the wedding-day," has thought it worth his while to gather the choicest wedding-day masterpieces of painter, poet, and novelist, to enrich them with reproductions of appropriate paintings, and to set off the whole with a cover tastefully ornamented with orange blossoms. Now the death of Ajax is one of the finest things in the Greek drama, but it is generally agreed that Sophocles erred when he added the details of the funeral. Possibly it is a perception of the same risk of anti-climax that has inspired novelists with that wariness in avoiding the incidents of the wedding-day which Mr. Carter laments. Decidedly, the emotional pitch is lowered over the discussion of the presents and of routes for the wedding-tour; and some slight assurance that the hero and heroine actually "married and lived happily ever after" is enough for most readers. At any rate, a collection such as this is very dull reading. With the amiable desire that "those who cannot or will not marry may at least contemplate the conjugal felicity of others from as many points of view as possible," Mr. Carter offers his dejected and recalcitrant readers no less than eighty descriptions of the trials of wedding festivities. We imagine that the impression on the ordinary mind is likely to be, if anything, strongly deterrent from such an ordeal. In any case, the literary value of such extracts, taken apart from their context, is of the slightest.

—One result of the Indian mutiny was the convincing of the Mohammedans that the very existence of their religion was endangered by this overthrow of the masses of believers, who seemed to have every advantage on their side, by a handful of unbelievers. To save Mohammedanism became from that time the engrossing aim of many of the followers of the Prophet—that for which they are now straining every nerve, or, to use their own words, "breaking their lives to bits." They early recognized the vital importance of educating men to meet the assaults on Islam by rival faiths. With this end in view, they founded in 1866, at Deoband, in the Northwestern Provinces, an Arabic College which is already justifying a claim to rank in importance with those of Cairo, Tunis, and Kairuan. From an account of this institution in the *Church Missionary Intelligencer* (London) for August, it appears that the government is vested in a manager and a board of councillors, ten in number, residing in different parts of India. The teaching staff consists of eighteen professors, with salaries ranging from five to fifty rupees a month. The course is eight years, and there are twenty-one classes in the following subjects: Etymology, syntax, rhetoric, prosody, Arabic literature, logic, philosophy, geometry, astronomy, algebra, mensuration, medicine (the so-called Greek system in vogue in India among native doctors), controversy, theology, theory and practice of Mohammedan law, the traditions, and commentaries on the Koran. Every student goes through the whole course, and on graduation is presented with a turban and a diploma, in which he is certified to be a Maulvi, or Moslem Doctor of Divinity. At the close of 1898 there were 239 students, mostly from India, though some came from Central Asia and Siam—all men of mature age, thirty-five to forty. "Not a few are Maulvis in their own land, who have come here to perfect their studies." About half were supported by their relatives and friends, others by scholarships, prizes, and the college funds. "Foreign students are fed systematically by the people of certain streets in Deoband. The food is collected by local headmen, helped by volunteers, and portioned out at various mosques. Those so provided for now number forty-four." To secure this help the student must have attained a certain standard, and the aid ceases should he become negligent. The library contains a large collection of good books, housed in three rooms and neatly arranged. The funds are raised chiefly by annual subscriptions; the receipts for the year 1897-'98 having been nearly ten thousand rupees. The graduates, all orthodox Mohammedans of the most rigid and antiquated type, number some five hundred, and are scattered throughout India, as incumbents of mosques, private chaplains, and in other occupations. Many wander about begging their bread, and the fact that this education does not "fit men for the world's work" is beginning to impress itself on the people. There is already a widespread desire among Moslems that the preparatory school attached to the college should be in part industrial, or give instruction on the new Western lines. Such changes have been successfully resisted thus far, as destructive of the end for which the college was established.

—Similar to the pompous titles peculiar to the Byzantine Empire, but going far beyond any of them, is one, dating from a somewhat remote period, still kept up in certain parts of India. Its correct Sanskrit form, from which its modernization differs solely by terminating in *j* instead of *ja*, is *Mahârâjâdhirâja*, "supreme being (*adhirâja*) of great kings." In English official phraseology, however, it ordinarily figures as *Maharaj-Dhiraj*, not unlike which, only that *Dhiraj* has no meaning whatever, would be *Constantin-Politan* for *Constantinopolitan*. If, then, a well-known Hindoo title has been popularly dealt with as above, slight is the wonder that Indian proper names should occasionally be metamorphosed past all recognition. And this fate has befallen the name of the energetic Asiatic who, from the days of Orme onward, has been designated, in the pages of scores of writers, as Omichund. So the victim of Clive's unscrupulousness is styled even by the Orientalist Professor H. H. Wilson, who, besides, tacitly agrees with all his predecessors in assuming that he was a Hindoo. Following in the beaten track, Lord Macaulay represents him as such in faith, and attributes to him "in large measure. . . . the Hindoo vices, servility, greediness, and treachery." Adopting, again, the established view, the distinguished essayist has it that he was of a race his characterization of which has sullied his reputation for justice in the eyes of thousands whose ancestors, when he was serving in Bengal, had he understood them, he could not but have esteemed. We refer, of course, to the cruel libel: "What the horns are to the buffalo, what the paw is to the tiger, what the sting is to the bee, what beauty, according to the old Greek song, is to woman, deceit is to the Bengalee. Large promises, smooth excuses, elaborate tissues of circumstantial falsehood, chicanery, perjury, forgery, are the weapons, offensive and defensive, of the people of the lower Ganges." Only as good rhetoric, misapplied, can this be accepted. Of no religionists, regarded as a class, and of no community, its religion left unconsidered, can this description be verified. With the writer of this note, after having divided upwards of half a century, as a resident, between India and Great Britain, it is a settled conviction that on no ground have the generality of Hindoos, Bengalees included, a less substantial title to respect than have the generality of Englishmen, and that the former could give the latter no points in matters of practical heathenism. To return to the so-called Omichund, though his name has appeared, in some very recent books, as Oomachurun or Umâcharan, and also as Umeenchund or Aminchand, it is, at last, irrefragably demonstrated that it was Amirchand, or, in common spelling, Umeerchund. Documents still preserved in the archives of the High Court of Calcutta evidence, farther, that he was a Sikh, a follower of the heresiarch Nanak, and, therefore, was as little a Hindoo as a Mormon is a Christian. Nor was he a Bengalee, but a native of the Punjab, domiciled at Calcutta, where he accumulated an immense fortune. For these discoveries we are indebted to an article by Baboo Saradachurun Mitra, translated in an enterprising Calcutta weekly, *Reis and Rayyet*, a journal which merits a much wider popularity than it has hitherto achieved.

GOWER.

The Complete Works of John Gower. Edited from the manuscripts, with introductions, notes, and glossaries, by G. C. Macaulay. Vol. I. The French Works. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde.

John Gower has long been classified as a literary "worthy" of a well-recognized type—as a person, that is to say, whose importance in literary history is considerable, though his talents were of a humble order. This position is due not merely to Gower's relations with Chaucer (though these are interesting enough if they could only be made out to one's satisfaction), nor to his trilingual productivity (though that has much significance for the student), nor yet to the reputation which he enjoyed in his own time, and which persisted for centuries as a fact and for other centuries as a tradition. It is due rather to his representative character. He is the embodiment of Middle English respectability in literature. He had all the qualities which make up a comfortable conservatism. He had received a first-rate conventional education, he possessed a sufficient estate, his leisure was abundant, and he liked to moralize. Add to these advantages two others—a clear and fluent style and a complete lack of imagination—and you have no despicable equipment for a man who is to put on record the social, moral, and religious conventionalities of his age. "The powers that be are ordained of God" was a text which Gower took very literally. This is an evil world, to be sure, and it grows worse and worse every day. Meantime, since we cannot improve it, we must take care to *be virtuous* ourselves, and above all things to discourage innovation, which can never be improvement.

It has been said that Englishmen like to read things that bore them, and the former popularity of the *Rambler* and 'Rasselas' is often cited to prove this dictum. One is sometimes tempted to add the 'Confessio Amantis' to the list. But, on the whole, this would be hardly just. The 'Confessio' is pretty dull, but it can be read. Besides, it contains many good stories—some of the best that people know—though they are told with an exasperating monotony, and with little conception of their good points.

A real edition of Gower has long been a desideratum. In 1857, Dr. Reinhold Pauli published the 'Confessio Amantis' in three handsome volumes, beautifully printed. The title-page declares that the poem is "edited and collated with the best manuscripts," but the words are very misleading. Dr. Pauli was a respectable historian, but his knowledge of Middle English was far from exact, nor is it clear that he had any just conception of his editorial duties. Indeed, it was almost a literary crime to intrust this particular task to his hands. The text which he produced is well known to be utterly untrustworthy, every page swarming with linguistic monstrosities. The alleged "collation," so far from benefiting the work, gave the finishing touches to its deformity. The baffled student never knows when the editor is following this or that manuscript, or when he is emending in accordance with his own strange ideas of English morphology. In a word, Pauli gave neither a good eclectic text nor a diplomatic copy of a single manuscript. His edition has no variants, no notes, and no glossarial references. Bad as it is, however, it filled the market, and for forty years has stood square in the way of anything better. Professor Morley's one-volume edition in the "Carisbrooke Library" has even less scientific consequence than the Pauli.

The 'Vox Clamantis,' Gower's Latin poem, was edited by Mr. Coxe for the Roxburgh Club—that is, it was not published at all. Copies have always been very hard to get and prices prohibitive. A few French poems were made accessible by Professor Stengel in his 'Ausgaben und Abhandlungen.' The 'Speculum Meditantis' no man had ever seen.

Such was the condition of "Gower philology" when Mr. Macaulay made his surprising discovery in 1895—a lucky accident to which we owe the present edition of the Complete Works. Mr. Macaulay was convinced that if Gower's lost 'Speculum Meditantis' should ever turn up, the title would prove to be 'Speculum Hominis.' "Meditantis," he believed, was an afterthought, intended to make a jingle with 'Confessio Amantis' and 'Vox Clamantis.' He chanced to mention his opinion to Mr. Jenkinson, of the Cambridge University Library, who at once put into his hands an anonymous "Mirour de l'Omme," a manuscript which he had lately given to the Library. It did not take Mr. Macaulay long to decide that here was Gower's lost work. The evidence, which the reader may find in the Introduction, is conclusive, and we are now in possession of all three of the large books on which the poet's head rests in his effigy in St. Saviour's Church.

Mr. Macaulay's discovery brought heavy duties with it. The Delegates of the Clarendon Press, when approached with a proposal for a new edition of the 'Confessio Amantis,' agreed, on condition that he would undertake the complete works, including the new-found 'Speculum.' This was a little disquieting, for the 'Speculum,' even in its slightly mutilated form, contains thirty thousand lines, and is of a dulness almost beyond example. Fortunately, Mr. Macaulay had courage, and volume i. is now before us, a monument alike to the skill and patience of the editor, and to the liberal spirit of the great publishing establishment which has deserved so well of scholars for so many years. The whole work will consist of four volumes, uniform with Professor Skeat's "Oxford Chaucer." Volume i. contains the French Works—that is, besides the 'Mirour de l'Omme,' the 'Cinkante Balades' and the 'Traitié pour essampler les Amantz marietz,' short documents of considerable interest. The English works (principally the 'Confessio Amantis') will occupy volumes ii. and iii., and the Latin works volume iv. We are informed that the second and third volumes are in the press.

The 'Mirour de l'Omme' is one of the most portentous products of the mediæval disease of allegory. It exemplifies the symptoms of that disorder to an unusual degree, for its monstrous size brings out every feature and presents it to the observer magnified many diameters. The plan is to a considerable extent traditional, but apparently owes something to the author's power of combination. Childish enough to modern eyes, the plot is not without ingenuity, and might have been susceptible of impressive treatment in other hands. Gower's prolix tediousness, however, together with the aridity of his didactics and the drone of his monotonous versification, thwarts the design completely. The mind refuses to keep awake for more than a page at a time. We get no sharper impression of the whole than the Northern farmer got of the parson's sermons.

The poem falls into three divisions of unequal length, which we may call the "Cause," the "Condition," and the "Remedy." Only the first division is allegorical in the fullest sense, but the remainder of the work is, nevertheless, permeated with the allegorical spirit and framed in the allegorical manner. The first division expounds the causes which have brought mankind to its present deplorable state. Though it extends to more than 18,000 lines, it is, in effect, only an expansion and development of a single verse in the Bible—the same which Milton afterwards used in so different a spirit as the basis of his allegory of Sin and Death.

The Devil conceived and brought forth Sin "of his own malice." From his incestuous union with her, Death was born, and then, the mother marrying the son, there came into existence the Seven Deadly Sins. Delighting in his progeny, the Devil sent them to the World, who fell completely under their influence — making Wrath his *guerroi*[illegible] (which one is tempted to translate by "w[illegible] lord"), Avarice his treasurer, Gluttony his master-butler, and Lechery his *chiere a*[illegible]*ie*. The Devil, not satisfied with procuring the Fall of Man, wished to effect his final damnation. He had brought man down from Paradise to Earth, he desired to bring him down from Earth to Hell. Accordingly, he held a parliament, attended by Sin and her seven sons, by the World, and by Death, at which a plan was laid for Man's utter destruction. Many promises were made to Man by the World and Sin and the Devil, and his Flesh consented to be the Devil's vassal and did homage accordingly. But the Soul refused, and upbraided the Flesh, warning her solemnly to beware of Death, who, it appears, had been hidden away by the conspirators. Reason and Fear came to the Soul's aid, and Fear guided the Flesh to the secret chamber where Death lurked. When the Flesh saw this horrible creature she was in consternation, and could never get him out of her mind, so that at last she renounced the World and became reconciled with the Soul. It looked, therefore, as if the Devil's plots had come to naught.

Up to this point, a certain power cannot be denied to the 'Mirour de l'Omme.' The allegory is simple enough to be followed readily, and the conception does not lack impressiveness. Above all, Gower has not yet succumbed to the sin of prolixity that so easily besets him. He gets through the events here summarized in seven hundred and fifty lines—not an unreasonable number—and his narrative has movement and is not much clogged by prosing. His style, which is always neat and often not deficient in point, is well adapted to what he has to tell, and the solemnity of the subject is congenial to his temper. It would not be hard to designate a number of stanzas that take respectable rank in mediæval didactic poetry, and a few that are fit to be compared with the lines on Death in the 'Confessio Amantis'—probably the best passage to be found in his voluminous writings. We may instance the strophe in which Fear takes the Flesh by the hand and leads her to the secret chamber where Death, "l'orrible capitein," lies all alone—

> "En agualtant la Char humain,
> Quelle est sa proie natural." (Vv. 709-20.)

With the completion of the first 750 verses, however, begins a barren wilderness of allegory in which the reader soon loses himself, and from which he will never emerge unless he has uncommon powers of endurance. The Devil, unabashed by his temporary rebuff, soon devises a means to regain possession of Man and to accomplish his subjugation. He arranges a marriage between the World and each of the Deadly Sins. The fruits of the sevenfold union are a goodly family of vices; for each Sin bears to the World five daughters. This gives us thirty-five particular Vices, such as—to take the children of Pride as examples—Hypocrisy, Vainglory, Surquidry, Boasting, and Disobedience—each of whom has to be described at considerable length. Other personifications come in subsidiarily. Thus, Disobedience has various servants, Despite, Disdain, "Danger" (the famous personage of the 'Roman de la Rose'), Murmuring, Rebellion, and so on, whose characters must also be set forth. No wonder, therefore, that the next real event in the story is not reached for thousands and thousands of wearisome lines. No wonder, either, that Man is taken prisoner by the powers of the Devil, and that Reason and Conscience find it necessary to call for divine interposition. God had seven daughters, the Virtues, and these he gave in marriage to Reason that the seven Deadly Sins and their offspring might not fail of opponents. To each of the Virtues were born five daughters, whose qualities are duly expounded, with a careful explication of their offices as set-offs to the thirty-five Vices. The "valued file" of good and bad qualities fills between seventeen and eighteen thousand verses. When it comes to an end at last, the first part of the 'Mirour,' which we have called the "Cause," is concluded. The reasons for the present condition of mankind have been schematically catalogued. There is continual warfare between the Vices and the Virtues, we are told, but, if one contemplates all classes of human society, it is evident that the evil forces have the upper hand. Long before this point, of course, the narrative, which began with some spirit, has been completely swamped, and there is no pretence of bringing it to a satisfying conclusion.

Having accounted for the evil that is in the world, Gower proceeds to an exhaustive scrutiny of all sorts and conditions of men, with a view to determining what the moral status of humanity actually is. This division of the 'Mirour,' which we may call "The Condition," contains about 8,000 verses. Beginning with the Roman curia, Gower works his way down through all the orders of the Church, convicting everybody of worldliness and corruption, from cardinals to *clergons*, or candidates for orders—divinity students, as one may call them. His accusations spare neither the secular nor the regular clergy, but the begging friars come in for a rather large share of uncompromising censure. The rulers of the world are next passed in review, emperors, kings, and great lords. Then come the military class, the lawyers and officers of justice, the merchants, the handicraftsmen, the victuallers, the tradesmen, the laborers—all as bad as they can be and growing worse every day.

There is much curious material for the student of manners and customs in this part of the poem. Priests wear long knives at their girdles, with which it is presumed that they do not expect to make war on the Devil. Knights cross the sea to Prussia or Tartary, to do battle with the heathen—some for glory, some for love of their ladies, only a few for the kingdom of God. Drapers sell their cloth in dark shops, where you can't tell green from blue. Jewellers take in the King himself with their false gems. Physicians and apothecaries conspire to keep the patient sick and to roll up their accounts against him. The innkeeper draws ten kinds of wine from the same cask for the city dames who visit the tavern early, before they go to church or market. Laborers are no longer content with bean-bread and water for ordinary fare and with milk and cheese for festivals—it is easier nowadays to satisfy two lords than one peasant. Much illustration of Chaucer may be gleaned from this part of the 'Mirour.' Mr. Macaulay has noted several such things, but by no means all. One which he omits to mention is the light which Gower's denunciation of the *gens du loy* (p. 271) throws on Chaucer's man of law. "So gret a purchasour was nowher non" has usually been interpreted as meaning that Chaucer's lawyer was a skilful conveyancer. The words of Gower make it plain that the line alludes rather to the proverbial fondness of the lawyers of old times for investing in land and becoming country gentlemen.

Having proved that the world is very bad and that it is deteriorating daily, the poet rather unnecessarily demonstrates, in a thousand verses, that all this evil comes from the sinfulness of man. The "Remedy," then, is that man shall turn to God, and this is to be done through the mediation of Our Lady. This third part of the 'Mirour' consists in the history of the Virgin, into which an account of the life of Christ is inserted. There is nothing to distinguish all this from countless mediæval works of devotion except the unfaltering neatness of the style. The manuscript is incomplete at the end, but an old table of contents assures us that but little is lost.

The 'Cinkante Balades' and the 'Traité' need no such particular description as the 'Mirour,' for they were long ago made accessible by Prof. Stengel. Every book has its unintended joke. Mr. Macaulay cracks *his* in speaking of Stengel's edition. He refers to this as "published under the name of Dr. Edmund Stengel" (p. lxxviii), adding, "The preface is signed with the initials D. H." Obviously he imagines that D. H. are the initials of the real editor and that Dr. Stengel is, for this occasion, a *nominis umbra*. But, as our readers will immediately see, the mystic letters "D. H., simply mean "The Editor" *(Der Herausgeber)*, *i. e.*, of course, Dr. Stengel, and there is no jackal or *Doppelgänger* involved.

Mr. Macaulay has discharged his editorial duties in an extremely creditable manner. The Introduction gives a good account of the contents of the several poems, discusses the manuscripts, and includes an intelligent — though not an exhaustive — treatment of Gower's French, which naturally presents many points of great interest to linguists. The notes are careful and learned, and they do not slur over difficulties which the editor is not quite sure of. Great pains have been taken to compare passages in the 'Mirour' with parallels in the admitted works of Gower, and these are numerous and close enough to convince any skeptic who still doubts after reading the introduction.

A word must be said of Mr. Macaulay's discussion of Gower's French. This is in general well conducted and brings out the main facts, which is all that it professes to attempt. Yet the editor shows a certain lack of clearness in his conception of the history of the French language in England which sometimes thwarts his presentation of the phenomena that he has observed. He has a distinct tendency to overlook the difference between a learned and more or less artificial literary language and a popular dialect. Provided these two things are kept distinct in the mind, it is of slight consequence what name or names are applied to English French; but it must be observed that the nomenclature preferred by Mr. Macaulay is peculiarly well adapted to obliterate the esssential distinction between them. In Gower's time there were at least two kinds of English French—one the direct, popularly developed continuation of the old Anglo-Norman; the other a foreign language, learned as an elegant accomplishment, and in no sense the mother-tongue of those who used it. This second variety was not a descendant of the old Anglo-Norman; it was the attempt of well-educated Englishmen to speak and write the French of France. Gower, then, wrote as good Continental French as he could, and Mr. Macaulay's statement that "he uses the same (or nearly the same) Anglo-Norman dialect" as writers like Pierre de Langtoft and William of Waddington is incorrect. Naturally Gower's French had a decided Anglo-Norman coloring—there are many reasons why that was inevitable; but such a coloring does not make it a descendant of vernacular Anglo-Norman. Indeed, some of the forms which Mr. Macaulay regards as Anglo-Norman were common enough in Continental French. Thus he discusses the *-our* and *-ous* endings as if they were exclusively Anglo-Norman, as opposed to Continental French *-eur* and *-eus*. But the Reclus de Moiliens, with whose writings Gower was almost certainly acquainted, exhibits practically the same usage as to *-our* and *-ous* that we observe in the 'Mirour'; and if we look at Continental authors contemporary with Gower, or nearly so, we find that such endings are by no means unknown in Froissart, while Christine de Pisan and Eustache Deschamps have rhymes of interest in this regard.

A similar confusion between learned and popular words vitiates much of what Mr. Macaulay says in his rather magisterial paragraph on the treatment of French by English etymologists. He has an important principle at heart, but he misses its relation to another principle of equal importance. We do not wish to insist on such matters, however, lest we should seem to depreciate the editor's work. He does not profess to treat the subject exhaustively, nor could such treatment be expected in an *editio princeps*. Though Gower's French remains a subject requiring careful investigation—which it will abundantly repay—yet Mr. Macaulay's introduction deserves and will receive the approval of scholars in its main features. The Glossary undertakes to give not a mere selection of obsolete or unusual words, but a complete catalogue of Gower's French vocabulary. It is a valuable adjunct to the text and a substantial contribution to lexicography.

"Moral Gower" has waited long for an editor, but he has found a competent man at last. We look forward to the remaining volumes with confident expectation.

A History of the Spanish-American War of 1898. By Richard H. Titherington. With Diagrams and Index. D. Appleton & Co. 1900.

This history originally appeared as a magazine serial, but has, in the course of republication, been revised. It is a rival of Mr. Lodge's narrative, which the author calls "brilliant, but highly inaccurate," and is the result of a painstaking effort to review the facts of the conflict. So far as the facts are not involved in controversy, the author succeeds very well, and his book is, on the whole, the best résumé of the matter which we have seen. But he is no critic; and, perhaps because of his colorless way of dealing with the story, is open to the charge of not making it interesting. We have neither rhetoric nor settlement of points in dispute. For instance, there is the celebrated San Juan affair, discussed in chapter xii. The account seems very impartial, but we get no clearer idea of what part the Rough Riders played in it than we do from Col. Roosevelt himself. Of Shafter's reasons for changing his mind about withdrawing from Santiago, we learn nothing clear, though the author speaks highly of the General. So he does of Mr. Alger, though he admits that that gentleman did *not prove* "the rare and brilliant organizer *who alone could have cut the obstructive red* tape, and met the overwhelming needs of the service." The narrative of the explosion of the *Maine* is such as to suggest strongly the belief in the author's mind that there was at least room in the evidence for the theory that the disaster was due to internal causes; in the calm light of history a variety of circumstances tend to throw doubt on the value of the *Maine* report (itself entirely *ex parte* so far as Spain was concerned). When Spain suggested an international inquiry by experts, offering to abide by the result in advance, whatever it might be, President McKinley reported the offer to Congress, adding that he had made no reply to it. Why? Because the case was perfectly clear? Apparently not, to judge by what Mr. Titherington has to say.

What brought on the war? The author goes back to the case of the *Virginius* to ascertain; but that case, which had arisen in 1873, had been settled and forgotten when the war broke out. In his narrative of the *Virginius* affair, by the way, the guarded statement is made that the vessel claimed "a somewhat questionable American registry." The vessel's papers were fraudulent, and she had no right to fly the American flag. In this part of the book the author has fallen into the common error of failing to distinguish between the chain of events which led to the war and the *responsibility* for it. Any one can point to a multitude of events, from the landing of Columbus down to the date of the "ultimatum," which more or less contributed to the final result; but when we come into the court of history, or into any forum in which international obligation is recognized, the agents we are dealing with are responsible human beings and responsible governments, and what we want to know is where the responsibility for the war lies. In all the popular accounts of wars, it is made to appear that the war was brought on by a "strong current of national feeling" about something or other—cruelties, outrages, misgovernment, bad faith. Such feelings might bring on war between two savage tribes, unprovided with governments, and no doubt often did in times past; but one of the chief uses of governments is to provide machinery for preventing such conflicts from taking place. Consequently, if a President, or a committee, having the decision of peace or war in their hands, and knowing that the other party to the controversy is willing to make all reasonable concessions, allows the "clamor" for war to prevail, they are, in the forum of history and international law and custom and morals, just as guilty of the war as they would be of assassination if they bludgeoned a private enemy when no one was looking.

Politicians who bring on wars are always opposed to this view of the subject; but it is the business of history to hold them to it. On whose hands is the blood of this war? is a question which can usually be answered by giving the names of certain human beings, but for whose decision, or failure to decide, the war need not have taken place. That the war was "inevitable," or "predestined," or "necessary" is rank nonsense for all but fatalists. This principle of responsibility was formerly much more clearly recognized by writers than it is now. In all the discussion about our civil war, about the Franco-Prussian war, it played a great part. Even now in England it plays a great part in the discussion of the causes of the Boer war. But our writers on the Spanish-American war have thus far displayed a great aversion to it.

On the whole, we may say that the author is quite fair, but too uncritical to deal with his subject in a way to carry conviction. His book is, however, superior to previous writings on this subject in the fact that it is not inflated, and the reader is thus enabled to get a pretty clear idea of the war, without being called upon to swell with indignation or dilate with patriotism over every commonplace event in it. As we grow accustomed to look at it with some eye to historical perspective, we see more and more clearly that it was a discreditable war, brought on purposely and unnecessarily by half-a-dozen politicians for their own ends; that it was not glorious, for the enemy were destroyed with little loss or risk to us.

Matthew Lyon, the Hampden of Congress: A Biography. Illustrated. By J. Fairfax McLaughlin, LL.D. New York: Wynkoop, Hallenbeck Crawford Co. 1900. Illustrated.

Matthew Lyon, in the first decade of our century, was notorious for three things. He had spit in the face of a fellow-member of Congress, and had been cudgelled for that insult; he had been fined and imprisoned for a seditious publication; and he had given the casting vote for Jefferson as President. These supreme events and all known incidents in his career were set forth by Pliny H. White before the Vermont Historical Society, and published in 1858. White's work fills 26 pages, the one before us 530. Clearly one book was too short or the other is too long.

The Greek dictum that a big book is a big bore will allow no quarter to the corpulent later comer unless it has fed on such meat as might well have made it grow so great. But its new sources of information are a beggarly account of letters and newspapers. One of the two principal letters, copied from the Monroe manuscripts, is a chronicle of Lyon's merits by himself (not without misstatements), in an application for an office; and it may have helped him to one years afterward. The other was from his youngest child, seventeen at his death, with a few family records and traditions. The best printed scraps were gleaned from the *Vermont Gazette* and the New York *Spectator*, besides several quills plucked from fretful Peter Porcupine's paper. These materials and other unconsidered trifles snapped up here and there would not naturally swel White's pages to a hundred. The bulk the new book which asks pardon for bei born, turns out to be either vain repetitio or irrelevant digressions, uncalled-for pansions and cumbersome padding.

Thus, Dr. Dwight, in his 'Travels,' had mentioned Lyon's improvements at Fair Haven, as "busy mills and other water-works." These five words are the text for a ten-page sermon about Dwight. Lyon lived for years in Litchfield (some of them as a bondman, having been bought for a pair of stags), and hence we are treated to pages on Litchfield, more than one of them about its Law School not yet born. Lyon said in Congress that Randolph would do well to emancipate his slaves. Hence we are fully told in prose of Randolph's so doing, with a page of poetry thrown in. Lyon was born in

Ireland, and so English oppressions there are traced to Cromwell and further through the ages. Lyon was a redemptioner, and a monograph on his class is inserted. The result from such a heap of heterogeneous patches is a crazy-quilt which could not be small.

But the three bubbles which are blown up into the biggest balloons—clouds like a man's hand which spread till they fill the firmament—are, first, four months in jail and a thousand-dollar fine for printing that the President's message was "bullying," and that "Congress, who ought to have sent him to a madhouse, were more servile to him than Parliament to King George"; then, the single vote, feeding fat his ancient grudge against Adams, which shut Burr out of the Presidency; and, lastly, the spitting which brought on a beating like that of Sumner by Brooks, and which for the first time turned the national capitol into a bear-garden. These matters are dwelt on *ad nauseam* throughout more than 200 pages. Allusions to them, seemingly viewed as veins of gold enriching the vulgar earth, pervade the volume. In respect to the altercation in Congress, the author "presents its most abhorred ingredient to the eye" as persistently as Bryan forced the shibboleth 16 to 1 upon his recalcitrant votaries. By an unfair comparison with the "Merchant of Venice," the biographer would also fain extenuate Lyon's meanness.

Several dark and grained spots on Lyon will not lose their tinct. As a military officer he was cashiered by a court-martial for deserting his post, and so was nicknamed Knight of the Wooden Sword. He would have been arrested on his way to Congress, but for his privilege as a member. When one of the Council of Safety, he was impeached and condemned for concealing his accounts concerning confiscated property. Our author becomes so zealous an advocate that in his eyes the deed of his client, whatever in itself, seems wisest, virtuousest, discreetest. He writes well of Lyon's activities in founding towns on the frontier fringe of both Vermont and Kentucky. His research has left no corner untouched. In the suppressed lines of the letter he obtained from the writer of an abolition booklet in Kentucky, one wonders if Lyon was shown to have become himself no less a slaveholder than Randolph had been.

In Lyon's career as an opportunist, what strikes us most is that Adams's sedition law gave him a chance to pose among the noble army of martyrs, even while gaining his heart's desire in politics and a memorable name among champions of a free press. He was the "Hotspur," not the "Hampden of Congress." This phrase, borrowed from Waddy Thompson, and forming the alternate title of this biography, suggests many a contrast rather than one solitary similarity to the spotless English hero. A sort of greatness thrust on Lyon, chiefly by the tie in electoral votes for President, turned his head. One of his sayings, when falling out with Jefferson, was, "I made him, and, by the bulls that redeemed me, I can unmake him!"

Acetylene. By Vivian B. Lewes. Westminster: Archibald Constable & Co.; New York: The Macmillan Co. 1900. 8vo, pp. xxviii+978.

If, not so very long ago, when French and German chemists were disputing as to whether acetylene was most economically prepared from the bromide of ethylene or by the imperfect combustion of a Bunsen burner, some *diseuse de bonne aventure* had told them that within forty years the seventh handbook to be devoted exclusively to this subject would contain over a thousand pages and yet be rather too condensed than otherwise, they would have smiled at the absurdity of the prediction. Yet here it is; and it is incomparably the best upon its subject, and one of the most thorough, intelligent, and judicious digests that have ever been made of our knowledge of a single chemical product, in a narrow sense of that term, so as not to include water, iron, and such things. It is divided into three parts—the first, Scientific, occupying 170 pages; the second, Technical, 525 pages; the third, Legal and Miscellaneous; the rest in small print. In order to show that our praise of the work is well deserved, we may mention such of the defects which we have noticed in its scientific part as are not too technical for our columns.

Considering how important Professor Lewes's own work on the luminosity of flames has been, it is singular that he should fail to remark that Edmund Davy, the original discoverer of acetylene, noticed that the fact that its flame is brighter than that of olefiant gas is contrary to Henry's theory of the luminosity of flames. Neither does Professor Lewes call attention to Davy's not noticing any bad smell about the gas, which shows that he made it purer than it was ever made afterwards down to recent years.

Professor Lewes says: "In 1830 Torrey noticed in the gas mains of New York, which at that time were made of copper, the formation of a brown deposit which could be exploded by a blow or by heat, and which was probably the acetylene-copper compound." This does not do full justice to Dr. John Torrey. One of the workmen engaged in replacing the old copper pipes by iron ones, took up one of the old pipes, raised it to his mouth, and blew through it. Instantly, an explosion shattered his jaw, so that he died in a few hours. Some pieces of the pipe having been sent to Dr. Torrey for examination, he came to the conclusion (not stated by Lewes) that the brown explosive powder they contained was a compound of copper with some hydrocarbon, and he would have gone further had not Mr. Chilton claimed a prior right to investigate the problem without being able to advance towards its solution, himself, in any measure, great or small.

Prof. Lewes says that "during 1859 Boettger made some researches," etc. But in fact these researches were commenced in 1852, and were published in 1858 in the *Jahresbericht des physikalischen Vereins zu Frankfort-am-Main*. And he not only "was of opinion" that the precipitate formed by leading lighting gas into an ammoniacal cuprous solution was "a compound of copper with a hydrocarbon," but he proved it, and proved further that the hydrocarbon in question was one not well known to chemists, and that it existed in small proportion in the illuminating gas.

The fact that Adolphe Perrot made acetylene in 1858 is not mentioned; but it was hardly worth mention, since he failed to recognize its true nature.

The first of Berthelot's researches is said by Prof. Lewes to have been published in 1860. In fact, a note by him on the subject appeared in *L'Institut* for 1859. This is worth mention, because three days before Berthelot's first note was presented to the Académie des Sciences on April 30, 1860, Victor Sawitsch had shown that monobromethylene treated with caustic alkali would give this new gas, as it was then understood to be, Davy's discovery having been forgotten. Lewes does not mention this paper of Sawitsch, nor does he mention that Bacologlio in 1860 detected acetylene in illuminating gas. Other facts not noticed are Vohl's method for preparing acetylene from American petroleum, proposed in 1865; Thénard's discovery of the conversion of acetylene into a horny substance by the silent electrical discharge; Coquillon's studies of the combustion of acetylene made in 1878. The question of how far acetylene is poisonous is fully discussed, though Hatton's observation that it does not act upon bacteria is omitted. The physiological action being treated under "Chemical Reactions of Acetylene," contrary to the general usage of chemists, it would have been well to refer to the discussion in the index under Acetylene, Physiological, and Poisonous, and not merely under Toxic. Nothing is said about the refrangibility of acetylene, investigated by Mascart in 1878, and shown by Brühl in 1887 to have an important bearing upon the problem of its chemical constitution. But this all-important problem is not attacked at all by Professor Lewes. For that reason the discussions of Paternò and Peratoner, in 1890, of the iodization of acetylene are passed over in silence.

Some of these faults are certainly to be regretted; but the fact that we can bring no more serious criticisms will be sufficient to show how admirably Professor Lewes has executed his task.

The Story of John Adams: A New England Schoolmaster. By M. E. B. and H. G. B. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1900.

Thousands of young eyes have gazed with admiring awe on the fine portrait of which a photogravure makes the frontispiece of this book. It hangs in the great hall of Phillips Academy at Andover, and is an enduring proof of the existence of qualities in our Puritan ancestors that commanded respect and reverence. No erring boy could have looked into these steel-blue eyes without quailing; and we may judge from what is here told us that there was reason for trepidation on the part of all who deviated from the straight and narrow path. The records available for the construction of this story were meagre, but they have been skilfully used. The particulars of John Adams's life are not in themselves of deep interest, although it is certainly remarkable that, after many years of service as Principal of Phillips Academy, he should begin life again as a pioneer settler in Illinois. After he was seventy, he labored actively for twelve years, establishing during that time no less than three hundred and twenty-two Sunday-schools. The nine years of life that remained to him after retiring from active missionary service were spent in well-earned repose, under peaceful and happy conditions.

While there are many incidents here detailed that bring the life of our forefathers clearly before us, the conditions of society in Andover are most vividly presented. It is difficult to read of the grim severity of those days without a shudder. The physical priions, as we should regard them, seem in- erable. There were days in winter when was impossible to raise the temperature the Academy above freezing, and on one ccasion 18° was the highest attained. With he food and clothing used, comfort, as we nderstand it, was frequently out of the question. The ten children borne by Mrs. Adams were supplemented by six pupils taken to board, one servant only being employed. This servant, by the way, was paid one dollar a week, but managed to save enough out of it to support two boys for several years in a mission school in Ceylon, and even indulged in the luxury of publishing, at an expense of $20, a tract entitled "The Swearer's Prayer." It is satisfactory to be assured that this tract was highly valued in its day.

Descriptions of the observance of Sunday in New England are so numerous that we need not quote the impressive one here presented. Andover Hill was not a place where laxity was tolerated, and the remaining six days of the week could have hardly sufficed for recuperation from the toils of the Sabbath. Human nature occasionally rebelled, as when one of Mr. Adams's daughters told her Sunday-school teacher that she thought Aaron was a wicked man, thereby incurring peril of expulsion for blasphemy. This youthful reprobate has left a charming description of the weekly prayer-meeting in behalf of the Jews, held at the house of one of the professors in the Theological Seminary under the supervision of his wife. This worthy dame was also deeply interested in rescuing children from the doom entailed by Adam's fall, and frequently invited them to spend the day with her. "We were then," our informant says, "shut up in the parlor, with Doddridge's 'Rise and Progress' and bread and water for refreshment. From time to time our hostess would drop in to offer a prayer and would then retire, leaving us to think of our lost condition." We can commend this book to all who are acquainted with Andover.

Economics and Industrial History for Secondary Schools. By Henry W. Thurston. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co.

This interesting volume is the outcome of certain recent tendencies in American secondary-school instruction. There has been a growing demand, especially in the Middle States, that economic teaching, if attempted at all, should be made more descriptive and concrete; that it should stimulate boys and girls to the intelligent observation of surrounding conditions; and that it should dispense with, or at any rate postpone, the formulation of abstract "laws." Mr. Thurston has sought to direct and assist this movement; and he has produced a teachers' manual which, whatever else may be said of it, is certainly marked by originality and suggestiveness. It is divided into three parts, each designed to afford occupation for a third of a course of eighty recitation-periods. The first is devoted to "Industrial Observation and Interpretation." It gives elaborate instructions for the preparation by the pupils of a number of simple diagrams and schedules, for such subjects of interest as the local distribution of occupations, the rate of wages, personal consumption, and the The only criticism that need be offered probably just a little ried out in its entirety. But it would sharpen many a boy's wits to be made to try his hand on two or three of these tasks, especially if he is given to understand that to do them intelligently and neatly is no very great achievement.

The second part, comprising some 144 pages, gives the "Outlines of the Industrial History of England and the United States," and can be commended with much less hesitation. It is based upon some half-dozen well-known treatises; but it presents their results in a shape which is likely to be more attractive to most young Americans—and this applies to universities as well as to high schools—than that they were originally clothed in. Indeed, this part of Mr. Thurston's work can be recommended to "the general public" as perhaps the most enlightening exposition of the bearing of economic history on current economic questions that can well be named.

In his third part, the "Elements of Economic Theory," we cannot but think Mr. Thurston has tried to run with the hare while hunting with the hounds, and that he has given altogether too much space to the trivialities of "Utility." Yet even here there is much that a teacher who knows how to use a book without being dominated by it, would find of great service. But, after all, the chief question is not whether the book and the lessons which it suggests are useful or no, but whether they are likely to take the place of something even more valuable in secondary-school work. If "Economics" can be taught in secondary schools only by the sacrifice of the old-fashioned "culture-studies," the gain will be dearly purchased.

London Souvenirs. By Charles W. Heckethorn. New York: A. Wessels Company. 1900.

This is a hodge-podge made out of antiquarian, historical, and biographical books. Its nineteen chapters treat of everything connected with the past of London—gambling-hells, coffee-houses, clubs, taverns, tea-gardens, barristers, rogues, doctors, Hampton Court, and even "the Lost Rivers of London"—possibly the most valuable, though not the most readable, division of the book. The author has saved the reader the trouble of verifying the statements made, by dispensing generally with citation of authorities; and, indeed, three-quarters of what he tells us is what a lawyer would call "common learning." For the remaining quarter we should have liked some references to the author's sources of information—the more so that there is something about his style that leads one to hesitate to accept what he says blindfold. He has a high standard in verse—refusing the Canterbury Tales altogether the rank of poetry (p. 153)—while on the other hand his prose canon seems to be liberal, at least to judge by his own practice.

On the whole, it is idle to criticise Mr. Hackethorn's book—to read it through would be impossible; at the same time no one can take it up without finding some bit of information of a curious and out-of-the-way sort, *e. g.*, that relating to the London antetype of the "confidence trick." In his chapter on "Bars and Barristers" he makes the statement that a barrister who has once accepted a retainer may be compelled to go on with the case after he has discovered, not merely that the case is bad, but that his client is a thorough scoundrel. This is Lord Brougham's theory; but a compiler like our author ought at least to know that there are others. Dr. Johnson, if we remember right, threw a great deal of light on this layman's *crux* by observing that it rarely happens that a lawyer, once engrossed in a case, does find it wholly bad.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott, C. C. In Nature's Realm. Trenton, N. J.: Albert Brandt. $2.50.
Bacheller, I. Eben Holden: A Tale of the North Country. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Co.
Barlow, Jane. From the Land of the Shamrock. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Baylor, Frances C. A Georgian Bungalow. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Bennett, Lieut. F. M. The Monitor and the Navy under Steam. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Bodley, J. E. C. France. New ed. Macmillan. $2.50.
Bowman, R. C. Freckles and Tan: A Book of Illustrated Verse. Boston: Alfred Bartlett. 75c.
Braddon, M. E. The Infidel: A Romance. Harpers. $1.50.
Bradford, Rev. A. H. Spiritual Lessons from the Brownings. T. Y. Crowell & Co.
Bryce, L. Friends in Exile: A Tale of Diplomacy, Coronets, and Hearts. 3d ed. Harpers. $1.25.
Buchan, J. The Half-Hearted. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Carpenter, Prof. G. R. Elements of Rhetoric and English Composition. Macmillan. 50c.
Catalogo Generale della Libreria Italiana dall' anno 1847 a tutto il 1899. Milan: Ulrico Hoepli; New York: Lemcke & Buechner. Part I. 60 cents.
Caxton, W. The Golden Legend, or Lives of the Saints. [The Temple Classics.] London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 50c.
Child, F. S. The Little Dreamer's Adventure: A Story of Droll Days and Droll Doings. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.25.
Condon, W. H. Life of Major-General James Shields, Hero of Three Wars and Senator from Three States. Chicago: Blakely Printing Co.; New York: The Author. $4.
Conway, Sir W. M. The Alps from End to End. London: Archibald Constable & Co.; Philadelphia: Lippincotts.
Cook, Dr. F. A. Through the First Antarctic Night 1898-1899: A Narrative of the Voyage of the "Belgica" among Newly Discovered Lands and over an Unknown Sea about the South Pole. Doubleday & McClure Co. $5.
Counsel upon the Reading of Books. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Cullen, C. L. Tales of the Ex-Tanks: A Book of Hard-Luck Stories. New York: Grosset & Dunlap. $1.25.
Dobson, A. William Hogarth. New ed. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.; Philadelphia: Lippincotts.
Dole, C. F. The Problem of Duty: A Study of the Philosophy of Conduct. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 35c.
Douglas, L. Fra Angelico. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $5.
Douglas, Amanda A. A Little Girl in Old Washington. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Durfee, Prof. W. P. The Elements of Plane Trigonometry. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Ebers, G. In the Desert. Translated from the German by Mary F. Safford. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Farrar, Dean F. W. The Life of Lives: Further Studies in the Life of Christ. Dodd, Mead & Co. $2.50.
Fiske, H. S. The Ballad of Manila Bay, and Other Verses. Chicago: The Author.
Frick, Mrs. M. J. Macaulay's Essay on Warren Hastings. Macmillan. 25c.
Frost, W. H. Fairies and Folk of Ireland. Scribners. $1.50.
Gibb, E. J. W. A History of Ottoman Poetry. Vol. I. London: Luzac & Co.
Hastings, Rev. J. A Dictionary of the Bible: Dealing with its Language, Literature, and Contents, Including the Biblical Theology. Edinburgh: T. & T. Clark; New York: Scribners. Vol. III. Kir-Pleiades.
Hazard, Caroline. Some Ideals in the Education of Women. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 35c.
Hemstreet, W. Electricity and the Resurrection; or, The Soul and Science. Chicago: Universal Truth Pub. Co. $1.
Howells, W. D. The Smoking-Car: A Farce. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 50c.
Howells, W. D. An Indian Giver: A Comedy. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 50c.
How to Make and How to Mend. By an Amateur Mechanic. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $1.25.
Hurd, Grace M. The Bennett Twins. Macmillan. $1.50.
Hyde, W. D. The Art of Optimism as Taught by Robert Browning. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 35c.
Hyne, C. The Lost Continent. Harpers. $1.50.
Ireland, J., and Nichols, J. Hogarth's Works, with Life and Anecdotal Descriptions of his Pictures. First Series. London: Olyphant, Anderson & Ferrier. 3 vols.
James, H. The Soft Side. Macmillan. $1.50.
Jókai, M. Dr. Dumany's Wife: A Romance. Doubleday & McClure Co. $1.25.
Kenealy, Arabella. Charming Renée: A Novel. Harpers. $1.50.
Leonard, Mary F. Half a Dozen Thinking-Caps. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 50c.
Lewis, C. M. The Beginnings of English Literature. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Livermore, T. L. Numbers and Losses in the Civil War in America, 1861-65. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Lorris, W., and Clopinel, J. The Romance of the Rose. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. Vol. I. 50c.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 4, 1900.

The Week.

We are getting out of China, bag and baggage. A legation-guard, larger than usual on account of the unusual conditions, is to be left in Pekin, but the orders significantly state that these troops are to be under the command of Gen. Chaffee. That is to say, Waldersee may give orders to British or French or Russian soldiers, but not to American. The remainder of our army in China is to be shipped to the Philippines as speedily as may be. If we were ever in the concert of Powers, we are now out of it. The other nations may wrangle and jangle as they did in the affair of Crete, and let China plunge into anarchy while they debate; we wash our hands of the whole business. The Germans may chuckle or snarl at us; England may express her pained astonishment; Russia may wonder what has become of her American bed-fellow, but we snap our fingers at the lot of them. The United States takes its own independent line. Appropriating the old Italian boast, we say, "America farà da sè." In all this we have merely clung to the historic American policy. A foreign entanglement was dangled before us, but we have shunned it as we would the plague. We have kept our pledges. The world was cynically expecting us to display bad faith, but we have shown good faith. We said that we were sending an army to China for a specific purpose, and lo! we are not keeping it there for another and unavowed purpose. Meanwhile Mr. McKinley may not see, but others will not fail regretfully to perceive, that the same wise and American decision which he has reached in China might have been made in the Philippines, and might have taken us as quickly and honorably out of the islands as out of the Middle Kingdom. Nearly every argument which has been adduced in favor of our setting about the subjugation of the Filipinos, could have been urged as a reason for our staying indefinitely in China.

Senator Morgan of Alabama has made his first speech of the campaign, and he lends the weight of his position as the Democratic leader in the upper branch of Congress to the theory that the financial question is the immediate one. He said nothing at all on the issue of Imperialism, for two obvious reasons; first, that he bluntly declared, some weeks ago, that "there is no such issue"; and, secondly, that he has from the outset supported the Republican policy in the Philippines. Mr. Morgan said that "finance is the most interesting topic to me and to the people," and he proceeded to make a free-coinage speech of the familiar sort. For example, he declared himself in favor of silver, as a circulating medium, "because it is the money of the poor man." Another reason why he favors free coinage is that, while silver is circulating, it draws no interest, whereas the paper dollar is constantly drawing interest, which some one is paying.

Carl Schurz's speech on Imperialism on Friday evening drew a large audience to Cooper Union, and will reach one far larger through the press. It was the most searching analysis of the course pursued by the Administration towards the Philippines which has yet been made, and it should be read by everybody who would master the record of that extraordinary policy. Whether one agrees with his conclusions as to political duty in the pending campaign or not, every candid man will welcome the opportunity to learn how the situation appears to one who has thoroughly studied our Constitution, our political history, and our national character.

Mr. Bryan easily makes his point when he reviews the record of the Republican party, as he did in his speech at Yankton, South Dakota, on Friday, and convicts it of "inconsistency" in regard to the greenback and the silver questions. There is no answer to such an indictment. The Republican party must plead guilty to the charge. The wonder is that so shrewd a politician should not see that, the more thoroughly he convicts his opponents of inconsistency, the more strongly does he commend them to the confidence of the country. The Republican party was once terribly wrong on the greenback question, and, a quarter of a century ago, passed an Inflation Bill, which would have done vast harm if Grant had not vetoed it; but it is right on the greenback question now. It was once terribly wrong on silver. William McKinley voted for the free coinage of silver in 1878, and as "leader of the House" in 1890 he carried through the Silver-Purchase Act, which President Cleveland had to convene Congress in extra session to repeal, three years later; but he is right on the silver question now, and so is the Republican party. On the other hand, the Kansas City platform expressly reaffirms the "16 to 1" plank in the Chicago platform of 1896, and Bryan himself declared at Scotland, South Dakota, on Friday, that "we stand to-day opposed to the gold standard as we did then."

Mr. Oswald Ottendorfer, in an interview in the *Tribune*, puts his finger on a sore spot in Mr. Bryan's record, considering the latter's opposition to militarism. Mr. Bryan enlisted for the war with Spain at a time when his services were not needed. In order to get into the service with his regiment, it was necessary to crowd out another regiment previously organized and desirous of entering. Not only so, but Mr. Bryan had promised to use his influence in favor of the first regiment. Instead of doing so, he raised, or assisted to raise, a second one, of which in due time he became the Colonel, and then his regiment was, by his influence, put into the service in place of the first, and against its protest. Can it be doubted that Mr. Bryan's aim in this movement was political rather than military? Although he never saw actual war in consequence of his enlistment, he promoted militarism to the extent of his ability, and under the circumstances disqualified himself for appearing on the stump as an opponent of militarism at any time thereafter. Mr. Ottendorfer has rendered a public service in calling attention to this evident mark of the trickster in Mr. Bryan's career.

Senator Hoar's *North American* article again lays the damning charge at Bryan's door of having wickedly helped to ratify that horrible, that fatal treaty which the wisest, strongest, and most beloved President negotiated. The Senator impales himself on his own logic with all his former delightful unconsciousness. He has, however, heard at last of a fact which was well known at the time. This is, that the Republican managers would not have allowed the treaty to come to a vote at all unless they were sure of ratifying it. They had only to wait a month, and then their greatly increased majority in the new Senate would enable them to do what they pleased. When Gorman, some three weeks before the vote actually was taken, offered to have the Senate polled at once, Senator Davis, in charge of the treaty, objected. The President wanted no chances taken, and would have waited, if necessary, till after the 4th of March. All this, we say, was matter of notoriety at the time. It was repeatedly brought out in the press. But Senator Hoar now loftily waves it all away with a simple "I do not believe it." Does he really believe, however, something which he himself says in this article? He declares that the ratification of the treaty "made it the Constitutional duty of the President to reduce the Philippine Islands to subjection." The reason we ask if Senator Hoar really believes this is, that, in his speech in the Senate of April 17 last, he explicitly asserted (and this was more than a year after the ratification of the treaty), "I maintain that the holding in subjection an alien people, governing them against their will for any fancied advantage to them, is not only not an end provided for by the Constitution, but is an end *prohibited* therein."

Prof. Goldwin Smith has sent out a small pamphlet in which he warns the American people against the dangers of Imperialism and plutocracy, and especially against partnership with England in the lust of empire, and in the greed of gain which is supposed to come through an Imperialist policy. Personally he does not believe that England has ever got back the cost of her colonies, not even in the case of India, if we count all the expense she has incurred and still incurs on its account. None the less is she deceived by the glamour of foreign conquest and possession, and now she would like to have the United States for a moral backer, imitator, and ally in that kind of work. Professor Smith finds an element in American society wiling to join the Tories of England in the policy of external aggression. It consists of the multi-millionaires "whose social centre is shifting more and more from the United States to monarchical and aristocratic England, where they can take hold of the mantle of high society, get more homage and subserviency for their wealth," etc. In other words, a social influence lures an influential section of our public life to the policy of foreign empire and conquest, partly in imitation of England, partly in emulation of her supposed gains in foreign adventure, and partly in the way of gratitude for her diplomatic support in our war with Spain.

Professor Smith does not believe that England interposed to prevent the other European Powers from taking action adverse to us in the war with Spain. The fact has been denied by the other Powers, and no proof has been given. But if any gratitude is due from us, it is due, he contends, to the Liberal party, the constant friend of the United States, the foe to Imperialism at home, and the ally of the Anti-Imperialists in America. If America wishes to exercise a truly Imperial influence in the affairs of the world, let her adhere to her original position as the friend of the oppressed of all nations. If she had done so, he thinks that the war against the Boers would never have occurred. "It is doubtful," he says, "whether Mr. Chamberlain would have ventured on the South African war had he not been assured at least of benevolent neutrality at Washington." This is surprising when we remember that the declaration of war came from the Boers themselves. It implies *that Mr. Chamberlain expected* and desired war, and that he conducted the negotiations in such a way as to force the Boers to strike the first blow. This may be true so far as Mr. Chamberlain was concerned, but was it true of Lord Salisbury, without whose concurrence there could have been no war?

Senator Beveridge of Indiana has given the nation a real surprise. After acquiring the reputation of an orator given over to "hifalutin," he made a speech at Columbus, Neb., on Friday on Trusts, which is the most sensible deliverance on the subject that has come from any speaker on either side. Mr. Beveridge did not make Mr. Hanna's mistake of asserting that there are no Trusts, nor Mr. Bryan's of "pitching into" all Trusts indiscriminately. He defined a Trust comprehensively as "a great combination of capital designed to simplify and unify business, or a great combination of labor designed to simplify and unify industry," whereas the average politician of either party entirely ignores the patent fact that every organization of laborers is a Trust. He proceeded to say that there are good Trusts and bad Trusts. As an excellent illustration of the former, he cited the department store, because it sells at a lower price better goods in more convenient form than could be previously obtained; and as another, the "Big Four" railroad system in Indiana and Ohio, which enables the passenger to travel in faster time on better cars at cheaper fares, and the farmer to ship grain at lower rates, than in the days when the lines which are now combined into a strong union were separate and weak. Mr. Beveridge held that the real question as to any Trust is its effect on the consumer, declaring that "the consumer is the sovereign factor in civilization."

Holding that there are bad Trusts, Mr. Beveridge maintains that there is necessity for restrictive action by the Government. Although he believes in the organization of labor, he says that a labor Trust sometimes does wrong, and then it ought to be resisted. In like manner he admits that a Trust of capitalists sometimes raises prices dishonestly, and "when it does that, it ought to be restrained or put out of existence," but he would not destroy all combinations of capital because one is dishonest. The Indiana Senator thinks that there is only one possible way of regulating Trusts—by the action of the national Government. He says that the Constitution does not now permit this, and consequently he endorses the proposition of the Republicans in Congress at the last session to amend it so that the national Government may control Trusts. There are two difficulties, however, about applying this remedy. One is, that everybody sees that it is hopeless to think of getting two-thirds of each branch of Congress and three-fourths of the States to approve any such proposition; the other, that the particular proposition brought forward in the House last summer was condemned by so able a Republican lawyer as Representative McCall of Massachusetts as one that, "if finally adopted, would have the effect of ultimately overturning free institutions in this country." Mr. Beveridge is quite right when he says that the Democrats opposed this amendment because it was a Republican measure. If they had been in the majority, they would doubtless have brought forward the same proposition—and then all of the Republicans would have voted with Mr. McCall against it.

Archbishop Ireland's London interview, reporting the Pope's entire satisfaction with President McKinley's treatment of the Catholic Church in Cuba and the Philippines, several of our morning contemporaries of the Republican press found themselves unable to print. The less astute and cautious supporters of McKinley in the ranks of evening journalism fairly smacked their lips over the interview. McKinley praised by the Pope! Why, he will get the Catholic vote, after all! But the sober second thought perceived the political inexpediency of picturing McKinley arm in arm with Leo. Have not the embattled Methodists already said unfraternal things of their good brother in the White House on account of this very complaisance of his in dealing with the Scarlet Woman in the Philippines? And shall they now be told that, while they are immensely dissatisfied, the Pope is entirely satisfied? No, no; we are sure the demands upon the space of really wise Republican newspapers will be too great to allow them to make room for this dangerous item of news. They will remember what Bagehot says of that fine and deep instinct of English-speaking peoples which leads them to rise and destroy anything labelled Papistical. Besides, if the Pope is so pleased, how can Lodge keep his promise to take away from the Catholic Church in the Philippines all the land of which, he says, it had "robbed" the people?

Kansas this year again takes the lead as a wheat-producing State, with a yield estimated at 78,000,000 bushels. The Kansans are said to have gone "wheat crazy." The yield in the State has been very uneven from year to year. In 1887 Kansas produced only 7,000,000 bushels, and in 1889 30,000,000 bushels; it produced 70,000,000 bushels in 1892, and 23,000,000 bushels in the year following. This year's crop is a record-breaker, and the railroads are having great difficulty in moving it. Thousands of bushels of wheat are now piled up in the open air waiting for some means of transportation. It is estimated that 130,125 standard cars would be required to hold this year's crop of wheat in Kansas, and that these cars would make more than 5,000 trains of twenty-five cars each, and would extend in a solid block nearly from Kansas City to Buffalo, a distance of about a thousand miles. The railroads are confronted with the task of moving crops eastward each year, and the car-famine is a regular feature of the season. This year one of the big grain roads is expending a million dollars for new equipment in cars and locomotives. The annual moving of these great crops is perhaps the greatest achievement of American railroading. The task becomes each year more difficult and apparently impossible, yet it is each year performed.

New testimony as to the character of the police of New York was given on Thursday in the annual Convention of the Episcopal Church, where it was made known that the efforts of the Rev. Dr. Paddock, rector of the Pro-Cathedral, to prevent the seduction and ruin of young girls in or near his parish were met by insults and threats from the highest police authorities of the district. This is, perhaps, the most direct and flagrant accusation brought against the force in recent years. It amounts to a charge much worse than the licensing of houses of ill-fame. Nevertheless, this fresh revelation is no worse than the disclosures made through Dr. Parkhurst's society a few years ago. It illustrates the truth of the maxim that a persistent force always overcomes an intermittent one. The constant forces here are the demand for fresh victims of licentiousness and the demand for money by the Tammany politicians. Against these ever active forces we have only the volunteer service of a few workers, clergymen, philanthropists, and reformers. Occasionally the latter find some opportunity out of the common, by which they can make themselves heard. Occasionally they find some member of the church militant like Dr. Parkhurst who will go into the dens of iniquity and fight the devil, not with fire, but with holy water. In every such case the disciples of the Lord prevail over those of Satan for a time. Then comes a little weariness and reaction. The persistent forces begin to prevail over the intermittent ones, and the battle has to be begun *de novo*.

Minneapolis has a new primary-election law, under which voters nominate candidates by direct vote. It was framed to do away with party conventions, and to take the power of nominating candidates out of the hands of professional politicians, and place it in the hands of the voters. The results of the first election are interesting and instructive, if not altogether promising. The nomination of candidates takes place when voters are registered, and the most remarkable feature of the first election was the surprisingly large vote polled. More ballots were cast at the primary election this year than were cast at the regular election two years ago. Primary elections in the past have seldom brought out half the regular vote, and in some cases not more than one-tenth. The voters of Minneapolis thus gave the lie to the predictions of indifference at primary elections, under the new law, which had been freely made by professional politicians and ward heelers. In several instances "combine" Aldermen who were running for renomination were defeated. ,

The result of the election which caused most comment, however, was the nomination of the notorious "Doc" Ames by the Republicans for Mayor. Ames ran as Democratic candidate for Governor in 1886, and has been elected Mayor of Minneapolis three times on Democratic and Independent tickets. He only recently declared himself a Republican, and Republicans generally regarded him as a weak and objectionable candidate. The only Democratic candidate suggested, Gray, was sure of nomination, and his manager is reported to have begun, a week before the election, urging the Democrats to vote for Ames, on the ground that he would be an easier man for Gray to defeat than Schlener, the other Republican candidate for nomination. It would appear that thousands of Democrats voted for Ames, to "put the Republicans in a hole." The success of the trick seems to be good evidence that there is a defect in the Minneapolis Election Law, which might easily be remedied by inserting some provision like that in the New York statute, which restricts the right to vote in a primary to those who have declared themselves members of one party or another at a preceding registration.

The theory of extension of trade through extension of empire is not working out to the entire satisfaction of Germans in the Chinese imbroglio. Trade with China is said to have diminished greatly of late, and German manufacturing interests have suffered severely in consequence. Two thousand hands out of work, and 1,000 looms standing idle in the textile industry of Aachen, is one item. One factory stopped altogether, and many operators discharged in the needle factories, is another. Those engaged in Chinese trade generally are complaining, while reports from China state that German trade is handicapped there by advancing prices. The German Imperial Navy Department estimates the amount of German capital invested in China at 300,000,000 marks. Germany's exports to China during 1899 were approximately 29,000,000 marks; her imports, 50,000,000. So that the trade argument is bound to have some weight. Empire and trade make an unruly team at best. They drive better singly.

A highly significant remark fell from the lips of the Emperor Francis Joseph, in his address to the Polish Deputation in Galicia, a fortnight ago. He said to them that the dissolution of the Reichsrath and the coming elections would be the last form of Constitutional resort employed by his Government. This declaration, if lived up to, means that the old Emperor is determined to put an end to the turning of the Austrian Parliament into a bear-garden. For more than three years now this national disgrace has been endured. The most extreme forms of obstruction, and incredible disorder systematically promoted, have not only brought the Reichsrath into disrepute, but have upset successive Ministries—five of them—paralyzed legislation, and shaken the very foundations of the Austro-Hungarian Empire. Now, says the Emperor, this thing must stop. Exactly what is implied in his threat remains somewhat in doubt. Some say he intends to suspend the Constitution entirely, and govern as arbitrary monarch. But it is pointed out that an essential part of the compact with Hungary is that a Constitutional Government shall exist in Austria. Hence the rumor that Francis Joseph means to proclaim a new Constitution, under which a riotous Reichsrath may be called sharply to order.

The recent Congress of French priests at Bourges was rendered notable by a striking discussion of the attitude of the Roman Catholic Church towards modern society. The central figure was the Abbé Birot, who spoke with uncommon vigor and candor on the failure of the Church to play its proper part in the world at the end of the nineteenth century. "Though we love our country," he said, "we are out of touch with our times." With uncommon frankness he confessed that "our temper has become soured, through the changes of fortune, and we have shown it too much." He recalled the fact that the Church made the older society, and thus held the first place in it, whereas "modern society is made without us, and almost in spite of us." In short, he admitted that the Catholics have "practised a policy of abstention, when not one of obstruction," and that, while continuing to think themselves indispensable, they have taught the world to dispense with them. These were bold words for a priest to speak before his fellows, and they were salutary words to be heard in France, where the cheap Voltaireism of the ruling bourgeois class has made the priestly function an invidious one. All the more reason, said the speaker, for frank and cheerful acceptance of the new order.

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To match such an abuse of language, one has to go back to the times preceding Lincoln's election, when the defenders of slavery, North and South, made moral topsy-turvy of the dictionary. "With slaveholders," said Peleg Sprague in 1835—and in Faneuil Hall, too—"our fathers made the Declaration of Independence, coming from the pen of that other slaveholder, Thomas Jefferson, *a name dear to every friend of human rights.*" In 1852 Charles J. Ingersoll of Philadelphia stood ready to "vindicate Slavery as part of that American liberty which the treaty of independence recognizes, and no foreign nation must meddle with." At the same epoch, Kossuth, to justify his refusal to take notice of American slavery while in this country, had resort to the current perversion of speech: "I am," he said at Castle Garden, on landing in New York, "the man of the great principle of the sovereignty of every people to dispose of its concerns; and I most sol- ner, as to the sovereign faculty." He hailed America as "the soil of freedom" and "asylum of the oppressed." He called the war with Mexico for slaveholding expansion "the glorious struggle." Another visitor from abroad, Father Mathew, taken to task by Judge Lumpkin of Georgia for anti-slavery expressions in Ireland, wiped his glasses and saw only "this emphatically free country"—astigmatism like Webster's two years earlier, in 1847, with an eye to Charleston, which he styled "the home of the oppressed," though it had in 1844 expelled Senator Hoar's father, the official agent sent down by Massachusetts to protect the rights of her colored citizen seamen in that port. In 1850, after Webster's 7th of March speech in support of the Fugitive Slave Bill—his last desperate bid for the Presidency—seven hundred Boston addressers flattered him that "he had touched the conscience of a nation." Not so ex-Senator John A. Dix, who wrote three months later and before the bill had become law—in words which have an ominous application to our present politics:

> "Commercial interests rule the day. The prices of stocks and of merchandise are considered, by a large portion of the business men, as of more importance than the preservation of great principles."

It is not too much to say that the civil war was the price of the euphemisms with which the fathers of the Republic cloaked the pro-slavery provisions of the Constitution. The entire nation was committed to the use, with reference to its great iniquity, of a hypocritic terminology which salved the conscience and checked for two generations the humane impulse to put an end to slavery. We have now come round to similar conditions. Webster's "disagreeable duty" of joining in slave-catching is matched by McKinley's "duty" to exercise our "rightful influence in any territory over which our flag floats." Cruelty and bloodshed lurk in such immoral expressions, and woe be to the people which habituates itself to them. They are met with at every turn in McKinley's letter. Not with impunity can a people read without a rising of the gorge such a statement as this by its chief magistrate and commander-in-chief:

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It is speaking mildly to say that there is not a word of truth in this representation of an act stealthily performed without consultation with the Civil-Service Commissioners; or if there be a grain of truth, it only aggravates the general falsehood. It was the clearest case of "desertion" in place of "duty"; and desertion from the only bold and manly stand ever taken by Mr. McKinley in his political career. He presumes, no doubt, upon his countrymen's short memory; but more, and with better reason, upon their gullibility by dexterous display of linguistic duplicity, in which he is past master.

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REPUBLICANS AND THE STRIKE.

The Republican managers are nervous about the great coal strike. Some of them admit it publicly; all of them confess it privately. Their Congressional Committee fears that it may cost them the control of the next House. Some timid souls among Republican politicians, remembering the Homestead strike of 1892, dread that a huge labor disturbance may a second time deprive them of the Presidency. In so far as this alarm is based upon the danger, the wickedness, of stirring up class hatred, we share it. We have no words strong enough to use in denunciation of the man who would array one social rank against another. Whether it be an agitator inflaming the poor against the rich, or a wealthy schemer urging capitalists to combine in order to exploit and oppress labor, we see in him only an enemy of society. Nor has our position respecting the reckless and tyrannical methods too often employed by labor unions ever been open to question. In both these matters and up to this point, our sympathies and our fears go with the Republicans.

Where we part company with them is in the political and economic doctrines with which they confront the strike. We see, if they do not, into what an awkward and helpless position, in the face of 100,000 men on strike, their campaign cries and political shibboleths have brought them. They have been putting the argument from prosperity in the grossest and most material form. This, they have shouted from every stump, is the campaign of the "full dinner-pail." Have you not enough to eat? Are you not busy, contented, warmed, and fed? Then how can you think of being ungrateful to the Republican party which has given you all these blessings? This has been the argument, full worthy, in its crass materialism, to be used by that class of men of whom the Scripture says that their god is the belly. It was an ignoble appeal from the beginning, and the gigantic coal strike has now come to shatter it.

Do the Republicans expect never to enter another Presidential campaign? One might think so from the rash way in which they are assuring in advance, by their arguments, the defeat of any future Republican Administration which may fall on evil times. Such an Administration might be clean, honest, devoted to the good and honor of the country; yet if crop failures or bad industrial conditions should bring depression of business, the cry would be, "Away with such a party!" and the Republicans themselves, if their logic this year is sound, could not say their opponents nay. Political short-sightedness could no further go. Hanna, for his part, appears ready to say, "After me, the deluge," and to risk everything on this blunt, coarse argument from the full stomach. Gov. Roosevelt, however, who may be supposed to take a deeper personal interest in future campaigns, has seen the danger of staking everything on "the chicken in the pot," and has occasionally put this matter of prosperity as if his hearers were men and not wallowers in Epicurus' sty. He has rightly exalted thrift and industry and honesty and enterprise as the manly qualities which must always be more important than mere favoring material conditions.

The true line of reasoning for the Republican party to have taken up in this campaign is very simple. The gold standard is an honest and equable standard. It is good for the rich man; it is the security and hope of the wage-earner. That it works well in good times when Providence sends big crops which sell for unusually high prices in the world's market, we now see. Bryan's prophecies of disaster under the gold standard have proved ridiculous. Republicans may dwell on this to excellent advantage. But what they should also maintain is that the gold standard will also show itself the best in the times of adversity which will surely come. It will make values fall with less of a crash, when fall they must, and recover afterwards the more speedily. "You can see," Republican orators should have been saying to workingmen, "that the gold standard has been a source of strength in prosperity. We believe it will be a help in bad times as well." Instead of that, the Republican policy has been to hazard everything on the "full dinner-pail" of to-day, thus directly inviting the empty dinner-pail of to-morrow to sweep away party, gold standard, and all.

That there is also a grave social peril in the doctrine that the workingman owes all the good things of life to the Government, we need not stop to argue. The thing is bad for laboring-men, tending to make them flabby, dependent, unenterprising, querulous, or revolutionary; it is bad for the party that preaches it, since it leads to all kinds of promises impossible to fulfil, and surely entails political disaster in the long run; it is bad for our whole social and governmental fabric, pointing, as it does, to the destruction of individual initiative and responsibility, and straight towards a vicious paternalism, if not to State Socialism outright. The crying need of the time is for manlier appeals to the voters. Republicans are now saying that the striking coal-miners are showing themselves very selfish and greedy. Who taught them to be? What is the Republican doctrine of protection but embodied selfishness? Protection points to the great factories built up under laws favoring the few at the expense of the many, and then innocently laments the fact that the men who work in them are selfish and want more than their share! Republican stump-speakers make swinish appeals to workingmen, and are astonished and pained if they act like swine. The whole thing goes deeper than a single campaign or the fear lest one election be lost. If the Republicans are wise, they will lay to heart the great and lasting lesson of this strike. It is that selfishness comes home to roost; that an attempt to play upon the low instincts and physical needs of man is a political blunder and a social crime; and that a party's strength, like a country's, lies not in commanding success, but in deserving it; not in the worship of the God of Things as They Are, but of the God of Things as They Ought to Be.

BRITISH PROSPERITY AND PROSPECTS.

In the September number of the London *Economic Journal* Sir Robert Giffen sets forth in a systematic way the conditions of British trade and industry during the past ten years, the past single year, and the current six months (as far as returns permit), with his expectations of the immediate future. The results of his examination bear such resemblance to our own experience during the same time that we think some particular account of them will prove interesting to American readers.

The chief point of resemblance is the great advance in prosperity during recent years, manifested in increased railway traffic, in the ocean-carrying trade, in imports and exports, in coal production, in ship-building, in public revenue, and in the proceeds of the income tax. While this growth has been subject to variations of ebb and flow, there has been a steady augmentation in the face of severe competition, as regards foreign trade, and this augmentation has been most marked in the two years 1898 and 1899. Thus, while imports increased 25 per cent. in ten years (1888-98), they increased 9 per cent. in one year 1898-99. Exports did not increase at all in the former (ten-year) period, but they increased 16 per cent. in the last-named single year. The increase in national revenue during the period 1888 to 1899 was £18,000,000 without any increase in taxation, but it leaped up £11,500,000 more in the year ending March, 1900. Being £90,000,000 in 1888, it rose to over £108,000,000 in 1899, and to £119,800,000 in 1900. The incomes upon which a tax is levied rose from £592,000,000 in 1887-8 to £729,000,000 in 1897-8.

These figures do not betoken an early decline of Great Britain to the condition of a second-rate Power. Yet Sir Robert notes a reaction, and a temporary slackening of the pace which the nation has been making during the past decade. The half-yearly traffic returns of the railways show in some cases an increase of 1 or 2 per cent. only, while in of life are rising throughout all the interior of the country. And, even so, the railway is not sufficient for the military necessities. Seven thousand soldiers are waiting here at Krasnoyarsk for means of transportation eastward. Fortunately, we are travelling westward, and so can find room in the trains moving in that direction.

G. FREDERICK WRIGHT.

THE PARIS EXPOSITION.—X.

FURTHER NOTES ON THE ART COLLECTIONS.

LONDON, September, 1900.

The English have virtuously stayed away from Paris this summer, to nobody's loss but their own, as Mr. Frederic Harrison has just been reminding his countrymen—and they are doing their best, therefore, to prove the Exposition a failure. Thirty million tickets remain unsold (I do not vouch for the number; I am quoting from the English papers); the moving platform is in the hands of a receiver; half the restaurants and side-shows are bankrupt; and, altogether, the whole thing is a fiasco, and, another time, France had better not sympathize with England's enemies and insult England's Queen.

But every commercial enterprise in connection with the show might fail, every big or little speculator be ruined, and the success of the Exposition, if looked upon as something more than a huge country fair, would still be assured. And, moreover, though the English, because they do not go themselves, think that no one else goes, the rest of the world understands what an opportunity has been offered, and is making the most of it. Indeed, on my second visit to Paris, the question to me was, what would happen if the English were to change their minds and come in such hordes as the Americans and, above all, the Germans? It seems impossible that Paris, or the Exposition, could hold more people than are now crowding it. Many, it is true, are there from motives of the idlest curiosity. But the great success of the Exposition is due to the fact that those whose object is to study any special subject, find such facilities as they have never had before, and probably never will have again. In my case, certainly, I have felt this only too keenly. At first, bewildered by the size and scope of the art collections, it seemed to me that I must restrict myself to the Grand Palais, and, of course, it is here that the history of the painting, sculpture, and black and white of the century can best be followed. But, on going back to Paris, I realized that I should be giving but a weak idea of the value of the Exposition to the student of art if I did not at least point out a few of the many things worth seeing outside this inexhaustible building.

I have already referred to the Petit Palais, with its marvellous retrospective show of French art, from the very first days when there was art of any kind in France, down to the end of the last century; a show to which almost every great church and museum and private collection throughout the country has contributed. Several of the pavilions of the nations have, naturally, on a much narrower scale, their own treasures to display. In the German, there are the famous Watteaus, sent by the Emperor from Potsdam, where the ordinary public is so seldom allowed to see them; in the Spanish, the gorgeous tapestries from the royal palace; in the English, masterpieces by Reynolds and Gainsborough, Romney and Raeburn, Constable and Turner; while when you wander to the amusing colonial labyrinth near the Trocadero, you can leave Algerian and Tunisian streets, with their little tawdry bazaars and noisy, persistent natives, for the sober pavilion of Japan, into which the Japanese imperial palace has emptied, for the time, some of its rarest carvings and lacquer-work. Among them are gods and coffers that date back to the sixth and seventh centuries, and a series that covers the ages between the first great periods of art in Japan and to-day, when the Japanese artist, thanks to "Western civilization," threatens to outdo the European in commonplace, as no one can doubt who has visited the Japanese section in the Grand Palais. Each of these different collections alone would repay the specialist for the journey across the Channel or the Atlantic.

There are other minor shows, which, though not actually within the Exposition, may be considered a part of it, and, unquestionably, are to be studied in connection with it. One is the Exposition Rodin, in the Place de l'Alma, close to the gates that open into "Vieux Paris." It is a wonderful refuge from the heat and bustle and confusion of the big palace. It gives you a chance to take breath again, to remember that, after all, art may sometimes be enjoyed in peace, without a struggle. There is a feeling of repose in the very decoration of the large, airy room, with its quiet scheme of cool green and gray and yellow, and the high windows veiled from the glare by the overshadowing branches of the trees that surround the building. Besides, by no stretch of imagination can M. Rodin be called popular; the tourists do not rush to see his work, and you have the pleasant room almost to yourself. I am not so sure that he was wise in including so much, in apparently stripping his studio bare for the benefit of the passing crowd. Many of the sketches and studies only an artist would understand. Several important statues and monuments, the "Victor Hugo," the "Porte de l'Enfer," for instance, are shown in a fragmentary, unfinished state. Limbs are missing, details are supplied by numbers in pencil. It is a privilege, without doubt, to see his work in this stage, but to have sent it thus to a public exhibition seems almost a deliberate pose or affectation on his part. Nor do I think the "Balzac" strikes you as less of a heroic failure than when it was in the new Salon. But, even as I make these criticisms, I must admit that I would not have the exhibition other than it is. No less complete series would be so intimate and eloquent a revelation of the great sculptor who is the master of perfect form, as beautiful groups like "L'Éternel Printemps" and "Amour et Psyché" prove, but who is also the dreamer, the seeker after the unattainable, for ever striving to express a thought, an emotion, a passion which never has been and never can be expressed in the materials at his command. The very strength of this emotion, this passion, M. Carrière says, has led him to discover ways by which to give it visible form in marble or in bronze. But M. Carrière, as his paintings explain, prizes the suggestive in art above all else. His opinion as an artist, however, whether you agree with it or not, is of the deepest interest, and it may be found elaborated in one of the short prefaces which he and M. Monet, M. Jean-Paul Laurens, and M. Besnard have written for the Rodin Catalogue; a little volume, further adorned by M. Carrière's portrait of the sculptor and a number of illustrations, that can be recommended, not only to all admirers of Rodin, but to the collector of the literature of art as well.

The other outside exhibition is at the Luxembourg, where the drawings and prints of M. Alphonse Legros have been hung in one of the galleries under Government supervision, the fourth show of the kind already given there. M. Legros is a Frenchman, almost forgotten in Paris because he has lived so long in London, where, however, he has received but scant recognition. He has not the force or originality of M. Rodin; he has added little of his own to the methods of the old masters, so evidently the source of his inspiration; but he is an artist of distinction, with a fine sense of style, and the one drawback to pleasure in the collection is the endless stream of stray tourists, Cook's parties, and personally conducted classes that just now overflow from the Exposition into both the Louvre and the Luxembourg. Here again there is a catalogue, arranged by M. Léonce Bénédite, Director of the Gallery, that is well worth having as the record of the life and work of an artist of genuine note.

If I have hurried away as far as the Luxembourg from the Place des Invalides, it is by no means because the Exposition is exhausted. A great deal is still to be seen and learned—less to be enjoyed—in those two colossal Palaces of the Applied or Industrial Arts. I must confess it requires moral and physical courage to study them thoroughly. The crowd, I hardly know why, is denser here than elsewhere, and makes the shortest visit a task. But if you are interested in modern decorative art, you cannot regret the discomfort or the fatigue. The first thing that strikes you, as in the Grand Palais, is the pride and care with which the Austrians and Germans have endeavored to make their sections fine and impressive, each as a whole. "Ils voulaient nous épater!"—I heard a Frenchman say of the Germans, as he wandered through their spacious central court; and it really seems as if they did. Each section has its palatial entrance and stairway; there is an imposing colonnade in the Austrian, great bronzes in the German, and in both a general scheme of color and decoration carried consistently throughout the entire enclosure. The thing is overdone, perhaps; or, rather, there can be no doubt of it. There is again the tendency to German heaviness and Austrian affectation, felt to be a drawback in the picture galleries. But, even so, the result is an improvement upon the no arrangement at all of the British, or the tawdry white and gilt outbreak of stars and stripes and mediocre frescoes of the United States, section. Indeed, the latter, in design, is as commonplace as the absurd national pavilion on the Seine; and the American, after his first regret for the poor appearance his country makes, must take what patriotic comfort he can in the greater activity of the American exhibitors and the greater intelligence of the American officials.

As for the exhibits, in all the sections, they can scarcely be said to disappoint. Any one who has followed the recent development—if development is the right word for it—in decorative art, must have known what to expect; though, curiously, only now, in the face of this collective display of mistaken zeal, has the French critic, M. Arsène Alexandre, suddenly discovered that there is such a thing as a definite style in the furniture and decoration of to-day—"Modern Style" is his name for it—and that "ce style est malade"; his phrase would lose in translation. Now, this fact has been evident to many people for a long while. It has been revealed in almost every recent exhibition of the Arts and Crafts in London and on the Continent, and, from month to month, suggestively recorded in the *Studio*, an art journal that strives always to be "in the movement" and to keep pace with every new phase and fashion. This "Modern Style" is not easy to define, for it is like nothing that has gone before, and, let it be hoped, like nothing to come after. Excess is its chief doctrine, and its chief characteristic is the use of violent and eccentric lines, absolutely without meaning or beauty, and with no other motive than extravagance, no other end than sensationalism. They are the lines that now confront you on any and every thing capable of decoration, from the covers of your books to the posters on the hoardings, from the plates you eat out of to the beds you sleep in; the lines from which there is no escape in the Palaces of Industrial Art. Where German chairs and tables are not mediæval or ecclesiastical, they are a mass of distracting, impossible, and uncomfortable lines and curves. Austria gives her official approval to the new convention by making it the basis of ornament in a little room furnished by the school of the Museum of Arts and Industries in Vienna; while I have brought away with me a haunting impression of another room—the design of a private exhibitor—where the mad lines and crazy convolutions on the walls were repeated again and again—embroidered on the sofa and chair cushions, woven in the carpet, carved in the tables and cabinets, until my brain fairly whirled as I tried to follow the patterns.

The same angular device, with variations, again awaits you in Belgium, in Scandinavia. In France, you pass from one collection of bewildering angles and lop-sided furniture to another, until you arrive at the very sanctuary of *L'Art Nouveau*, M. Bing's Pavilion, where to the incoherent lines and curves in the furniture is added such a riot of mural decoration that, in the model dining-room, where the walls are decorated by M. Sert, a Spanish artist whom I here met for the first time, dinner would become a sort of nightmare. In the British Section, also, eccentricity rules, though the Arts and Crafts Society, responsible for so much of it, makes no representative showing, and though some of the shopkeeping exhibitors have the good sense to adhere to dignified old English models. The most affected performances are in the bedrooms of the British Pavilion, where the Bromsgrove Guild of Applied Arts has been given free play. The American Section contains little but the most practical furniture—school and office desks, hammocks, and so on—so that there is a respite from the prevailing debauch of angular ugliness. But to me, it seems, that, even in Tiffany's Favrile Glass and the Rookwood Pottery, the growing tendency is to the extravagance, the over-elaboration in ornament, that is the evil of the day. It is the utter lack of repose in modern decoration that is most depressing and deplorable. Sensationalism must now follow poor weary mortals from their papers, their novels, their plays, to what should be the quiet of their firesides. The crimes committed in the name of decoration are enough to send you to the opposite extreme of Puritanism in art, and to set you to longing for whitewashed walls and plain rush-bottomed chairs. In the French Section there is a delightful centennial collection of furniture that, serving as contrast, emphasizes the modern restlessness. A series of rooms represent the several periods from Louis XVI. to the Second Empire, by no means the finest periods of decoration in France. But the frankly vulgar gorgeousness of the Second Empire is distinction itself compared to the foolish struggle after eccentricity and the affectation of to-day. It may be wondered why, when modern decoration is so bad, any exhibition of it should have the slightest value. But I think such a universal revelation of the evil will open the eyes of other people besides M. Arsène Alexandre, and may eventually lead to the much-needed reaction.

The one change that the summer months have brought to the Grand Palais is that the exhibits are now duly adorned with the awards they have won. The system of medal-giving, theoretically, is excellent. It was intended not to expose the artist to a foolish and mortifying competition, but to confer upon him honors somewhat equivalent to the degrees the universities give to the distinguished literary man. But, practically, the system does not work so well. The split it caused in the ranks of the French artists in 1889 is an old story, and it is impossible to go through the galleries of 1900 without wondering at the vagaries of the jury. In the American section the higher rewards are discreetly enough distributed. In painting, the *Grand Prix* goes to Mr. Whistler and Mr. Sargent; the gold medal to Mr. Abbey, Mr. Alexander, Miss Beaux, Messrs. Brush, Chase, Homer, and Thayer. In engraving, the *Grand Prix* to Mr. Whistler; the gold medals to Mr. Pennell and Mr. Cole. But, after that, there is such a suggestion of haphazard that it looks as if some truth were in the rumor that the *International* Jury did not occupy itself with the matter, once the gold medals were distributed. I have already insisted upon the absurdity of classing illustration with painting. The jury comes to the drawings after having squandered most of the medals and all its energy on the paintings; while a man like Mr. Abbey, unquestionably more distinguished as an illustrator than as a painter, because his painting has been awarded a gold medal can receive nothing for his drawing. Similar inconsistencies occur in the other sections. For example, the Grand Prix for etching is given to M. Vierge, though I could not find that he had sent prints of any kind save a few process blocks after his designs for 'Pablo de Segovia,' and also to Herr Menzel, who, on general principles, merits the highest honors, but whose three etchings, apparently from some publisher's collection, are of comparatively slight importance. It would have been much more to the point, anyway, had he exhibited and been medalled as illustrator. The reforms needed in the next International Exhibition—should there ever be another, which is doubtful—are, first, a new classification that will give illustration a section apart, and then greater care in the constitution and methods of the jury of awards. There is no reason why the medals should not be to all who receive them the honor they now are only to the few.

N. N.

Correspondence.

OF TWO EVILS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

SIR: Regarding the Presidential candidates, I think your paper has taken a very sensible stand in not supporting either of the nominees, but in comparing the strength and weakness of each. In this campaign, as in that of 1896, there is no candidate worthy of an American vote. It would be too much, of course, to find a man satisfactory to all factions, but the present leaders are pleasing to politicians only. McKinley is condemned by the people on account of his Philippine policy and his relations with Mark Hanna. Bryan, on the other hand, is a leader of Populists and Anarchists, who, should they get control, would doubtless ruin the country. Bryan, however, has sensible views on the question of expansion, but the free-silver fallacy hurts him.

Which of these men to vote for is a difficult matter to decide. It is a choice of evils, and it lies with the voter to choose the less dangerous leader. At present, Imperialism is the chief issue. Bryan is opposed to McKinley's policy, and, as there will doubtless be a Republican Congress to check any attempt of his to force free silver on the country, I feel that he is the safer man.

Congress is supposed to check the power of the President, and in the present crisis rule by Congress is necessary. When we have a strong President, one who will not cater to the bosses, and one with courage to follow his own convictions, then it is well to have a Congress in unison; but, in the present case, a man like Bryan can do less damage than a man like McKinley—ruled by "bosses," and without courage to say "No"—with a Congress supporting him.

Yours, ROBERT MONTGOMERY.

BOSTON, September 27, 1900.

HOW THE SUBSIDY WORKS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

SIR: Why has not some one exposed the following feature of the shipping-bill subsidy scheme?

Valuable subsidies are secured for two steamship companies of a certain transatlantic company, under the terms of which they are given American registry and sail under the American flag. Two new steamers of the same company are also built and registered here under the same subsidy arrangement. The grounds upon which the subsidy is granted are, the greater cost of building the ships in this country and of operating them under our flag. For the alleged patriotic purpose, therefore, of encouraging American shipbuilding and the employment of American instead of foreign seamen, the subsidy is sought and obtained, and an easily gulled public rejoices. But wait! The subsidy having been secured, the shipbuilding firm becomes an incorporated company; the capital is increased, and the officers of the steamship line are "taken in on the ground floor" in the matter of stock and bond issues. Large dividends are subsequently paid upon the stock. Thus the subsidy paid by the United States Treasury to the steamship company goes mainly into the coffers of the shipbuilding company (to meet the alleged cost of building ships in excess of the cost if built abroad), and, to a considerable extent at least, *back into the pockets of the steamship company's officers, as profits made out of the alleged excessive cost of building in this country.* Very pretty game, is it not? Should we marvel, then, at the pressure brought by the steamship company's officers to bear upon Congress to open wider the doors of the United States Treasury through the new shipping bill? Need we wonder at the very intimate relations subsisting between the "boss" of the steamship company and the "boss" of the political machine which is to be used to work the little game further?

It is a matter for wonder, however, that men claiming to be free and intelligent can possibly believe that this scheme, by which money is to be transferred from the people's pockets to the pockets of the steamship company's officers, is *pro bono publico*. But they would not so believe were they not slaves to party and blinded by the god of this world, called "Business"—"with a big, big B"! Still greater is the wonder that men claiming to be honest gentlemen, and holding high their heads in the business world, should consent to get rich by such robbery of the people and call it "business"! H.

JARGON OF THE PHILIPPINES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

SIR: A curious example of the change of form a word may undergo in passing from one language to another through the medium of speech alone has come to my notice here. A common slang among American soldiers for the word "credit" is "jawbone." By means of signs and the few words of Spanish and Tagalo he has picked up, the soldier asks the native keeper of the little *tienda* to sell him a bottle of beer or a package of cigarettes "on jawbone"—which means, credit him till next pay-day.

The natives have adopted the word as their ears catch it, and they pronounce it and write it "diubun," *di* being the only combination of letters in Spanish that approximates the sound of the English *j* before hard vowels.

I found on the church door some time ago a very well-written anonymous *manifiesto* whose last paragraph read: "Ah! Americanos! Fuera el Gobierno Imperialista, fuera la esclavitud, fuera contribuciónes, fuera la diubun, y viva la independencia del pueblo filipino."

Of another expression the natives and the soldiers have made a mutual exchange: every native can say to you, "No got," and every soldier uses "No hay."

M. F. STEELE.

LUCBAN, ISLAND OF LUZON, P. I.,
August 12, 1900.

THE VOCABULARY OF SCHOOL-CHILDREN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

SIR: May I add my word to the discussion concerning the vocabulary of school-children—school-girls even more than school-boys? Boys generally have some sort of slang in which to express themselves, but girls often have no words at all.

Is not the whole trouble due to the hurry and pressure of modern life, which we allow the children to feel almost from the cradle? Certainly, any grown person with a sense of the real needs of the case can do his little toward reducing the speed and improving the quality of the child's training; and so, in spite of faulty systems of education, the teacher of taste can help the boy to appreciate a skilful choice of words and to use a fitting vocabulary. The weak spot on which I should put my finger, however, is the literature which is read to children before they go to school, or which they are encouraged to read by aunts and cousins who always give them a book at Christmas.

I have lately been examining a few children's books which I judge to be fairly typical. There is no repose in them. They are continually stimulating the child to jump chasms of thought or climb impossible steeps of fancy; or, still worse, they are written in easy conversational style—the conversation of children like the readers, trivial, impatient of any difficulty in expressing an idea. Where the thought is not hard to understand, the book is mere chatter; where it is didactic, the words are too big, or else all reduced to the level of one syllable.

The books of a generation or fifty years ago were of quite different character, and I am encouraged to mention them because last week I found them recommended as good reading for the modern four-year-old. At least they had good points which are lacking in many children's books of the present day. 'Sandford and Merton,' 'The Parents' Assistant,' and the Rollo books, distasteful as they may be to the older reader or to a child that has been "fleshed" with stronger meat, form a healthful diet for the young mind; and the real 'Robinson Crusoe'—not the emasculate editions one often sees—and the 'Arabian Nights' give plenty of stimulus without the nervous hurry of a ten-minute meal.

With those old books, there is really leisure enough to digest the long words, because the ideas are presented slowly and often repeated. Strange words are inserted among easy words, so that the meaning stands out strikingly and clearly. In general, the ideas are so simple that the child is not left in the dark as to the meaning. On the other hand, I have in mind one or two modern books in which the play of thought is so subtle, and the changes so quick, that the child must have only an impression of something exciting, not a real picture of what is taking place.

I know this is not true of the best books, but the best books usually go into the families where the children have a somewhat careful training and do not show so lamentable a lack of vocabulary. Neither should I recommend a wholesale adoption of all the old story-books. They had faults. But surely, if we surrounded our boys and girls in the nursery with a more leisurely atmosphere, if we gave them books in which the thought is sensible but simple and presented slowly, and the vocabulary not too difficult, our school-children of fifteen would stand a better chance of understanding an ordinary paragraph in a history or rhetoric, and of themselves giving an interesting account of a sail down the bay or a trip to the mountains.

ELINOR M. BUCKINGHAM.

WELLESLEY HILLS, MASS.,
September 24, 1900.

THE ORIGIN OF CHESS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

SIR: In a recent communication (*Nation*, No. 1833) I enumerated (p. 134) certain more or less recent publications concerning the forms of chess in easternmost Asia. Had I been more familiar with that portion of the chess-field, I should have called the attention of your readers to the titles of other similar productions cited by Mr. Stewart Culin in his remarkable treatise 'Chess and Playing-cards,' contained in the Report of the United States National Museum for 1896 (pp. 665-942, Washington, 1898). These titles occur especially in the foot-notes of pp. 682, 865, and 867-8, and embrace several invaluable contributions, by Mr. Karl Himly (to one of whose essays I referred), in various later volumes of the *Zeitschrift der deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft*; Mr. W. H. Wilkinson's 'Manual of Chinese Chess' (Shanghai, 1893); Mr. Stewart Culin's own 'Korean Games' (Philadelphia, 1895), which may or may not treat of chess; Mr. O. Von Möllendorff's 'Schachspiel der Chinesen' in the *Mittheilungen der deutschen Gesellschaft für Natur- und Völkerkunde Ostasiens* (Vol. II., ii.); an apparently anonymous article, 'Das schachähnliche Brettspiel der Chinesen' in that oldest and ablest of all chess-journals, the *Deutsche Schachzeitung* of Leipzig (March-July, 1891); and one or two other papers of minor importance. Other foot-notes in Mr. Culin's elaborately illustrated volume will interest all students of chess bibliography, notably those on pp. 862-3, which reproduce a striking communication from Mr. John G. White of Cleveland, Ohio, the owner of the largest and far the most valuable collection of books and manuscripts on chess which has ever been brought together. Nothing can exceed, in point of just discrimination, Mr. White's characterization of the virtues and defects of that ardent and laborious investigator of chess history, Antonius Van der Linde. He concludes that all later researches "have left substantially unchanged the more important features" of Van der Linde's works, which he regards as "mines of information." Mr. White is equally just in his statement: "As to the historic study of the game, there is nothing in the English language worthy of mention. Forbes's 'History' is antiquated. He did not even make good use of the material known to him." W. P.

Notes.

J. B. Lippincott Co.'s autumn list contains a 'History of America before Columbus,' according to documents and approved authors, by P. de Roo; 'Two Centuries of Pennsylvania History,' by Isaac Sharpless, President of Haverford College; 'The Germans in Colonial Times,' a study of German immigration to America, by Lucy Forney Bittinger; 'Famous American Belles of the Nineteenth Century,' by Virginia Tatnall Peacock; 'Rambles in Colonial Byways,' by Rufus Rockwell Wilson; 'Literary Rambles at Home and Abroad,' by Dr. Theodore F. Wolfe; 'The Other Man's Country: An Appeal to Conscience,' by Herbert Welsh; 'Great Battles of the World,' by Stephen Crane; 'Van Dyck,' illustrated by fifty photogravures; 'Stories of Famous Songs,' by S. J. Adair Fitzgerald; 'Paris and the Parisians,' by John F. Macdonald; 'Sands of Sahara,' by Prof. Maxwell Sommerville; a new 'Dictionary of Foreign Phrases and Classical Quotations,' edited by Hugh Percy Jones; the 'Complete Angler of Izaak Walton and Charles Cotton,' edited by John Major; and White's 'Selborne,' edited by R. Bowdler Sharpe.

Fleming H. Revell Co. will shortly bring out 'The Chinaman as We See Him,' by Ira M. Condit, D.D.; 'Chinese Mother Goose Rhymes,' translated and illustrated by Prof. Isaac Taylor Headland of Pekin University; 'Verbeck of Japan: A Citizen of No Country,' by Wm. Elliot Griffis; 'Pandita Ramabai: The Story of her Life,' by Helen S. Dyer; 'Wrongs of Indian Womanhood,' by Mrs. Marcus B. Fuller; 'Arabia; The Cradle of Islam,' by the Rev. S. M. Zwemer; 'Forbidden Paths in the Land of Og,' travels east of the Jordan River; and 'Pioneering on the Congo,' by the Rev. W. Holman Bentley.

Among the latest announcements of Charles Scribner's Sons are 'A Literary History of America,' by Prof. Barrett Wendell; 'A General History of Europe, 300-1900,' by Profs. Oliver J. Thatcher and Ferdinand Schwill; 'English Composition for High Schools,' by Prof. Hammond Lamont; 'Songs and Song Writers,' by Henry T. Finck; 'The World of the Great Forest,' by Paul B. Du Chaillu; 'Mooswa and Others of the Boundaries,' denizens of the Canadian wilderness, by W. A. Fraser; 'Overheard in a Garden,' by Oliver Herford; 'Oriental Rugs,' by John Kimberly Mumford; 'With Both Armies in South Africa,' by Richard Harding Davis; and 'Prince Charles Edward,' by Andrew Lang, sumptuously illustrated from original sources.

Tolstoi's 'Slavery in Our Times,' an inquiry into the results of modern industrialism, is soon to be published in this country by Dodd, Mead & Co.

'The Sower, and Other Poems,' by Edwin Markham, will be issued directly by McClure, Phillips & Co.

A posthumous volume by H. D. Traill, 'England, Egypt, and the Sudan,' will be shortly published by E. P. Dutton & Co.

Thomas Whittaker announces 'The Four Evangelists in Classic Art,' by Rachel A. La Fontaine.

Dana Estes & Co., Boston, announce 'Paris in its Splendor,' by E. A. Reynolds-Ball, F.R.S., with fifty full-page half-tone plates; a humorous version of 'The Animals in Aesop,' illustrated also, by J. J. Mora; and 'Traveller Tales of South Africa,' compiled by Hezekiah Butterworth.

Elder & Shepard, San Francisco, promise 'Haphazard Quotations,' by L. E. B.; 'Observations of Jay (a Dog), and Other Stories,' by Morgan Shepard; and 'The Sphinx and Other Poems,' by Prof. William Henry Hudson of Stanford University.

Of Dr. Joseph Wright's 'Dialect Dictionary,' a work indispensable to every student of the English language in its entirety, the progress through the press is such that its completion may be looked for at a date which, considering its magnitude, must satisfy the most exacting. Commenced in 1896, two volumes of it, handsome quartos, aggregating 1,660 pages, are already before the public. The third volume, containing H—L, will be printed off by the middle of November; and it is expected that vol. iv., containing M—R, will be ready in the course of next year. Vol. v. will contain S—T, and vol. vi., U—Z, together with a supplement, a bibliography, and a comprehensive comparative grammar of all the English dialects.

We continue our bare mention of the season's reprints with the revised edition of Austin Dobson's 'William Hogarth,' a work which we noticed at length nine years ago, and which the unwearied author has enlarged and amended (London: Kegan Paul; Philadelphia: Lippincott). The bibliography has been considerably extended; so has the catalogue of prints and paintings. The index, too, has been made fuller; and there are four new illustrations. It remains, therefore, as before, the latest and the best work on the subject. We do not find in the Bibliography the three-volume 'Hogarth's Works with Life and Anecdotal Descriptions of his Pictures,' which has the London imprint of Oliphant, Anderson & Ferrier, London, and comes to us from J. B. Lippincott Co. as a new issue from old plates. It is an acknowledged compilation from Ireland & Nichols, and takes up the prints and paintings seriatim, explaining each reduced copy with an amplitude characteristic of the early period to which the text goes back. The plates vary considerably in clearness, the best answering well enough the purpose of memoranda for reference. More cannot be said in praise. The "Sigismunda" facing p. 76 of volume i. has no earthly relation to the delightful picture bearing that name in the National Gallery, of which a photogravure direct from the canvas is given by Mr. Dobson at p. 134.

Ernest Rhys's "illustrated record of the life and work" of another English artist reaches its third edition—'Frederic Lord Leighton, late President of the Royal Academy of Arts' (London: Bell; New York: Macmillan). It differs from the second edition of 1894 chiefly in giving a chapter to Lord Leighton's house in 1900, by S. Pepys Cockerell, who treats his subject architecturally, the contents having all been dispersed at public sale.

The reissue by Macmillan Co. of John Edward Courtenay Bodley's 'France' means uniting two volumes in one at a lower price, but with no significant inferiority in mechanical execution. The text is as readable as ever, and the binding is tasteful if simple.

The "Stories" in the distinguished uniform edition of Mr. Frank Stockton's writings (Scribners) are left behind with a fourth volume, and the companion volume is taken up with "Mrs. Lecks and Mrs. Aleshine" and "The Vizier of the Two-Horned Alexander."

The Dent-Lippincott presentation of 'John Halifax, Gentleman,' a story whose sale has been continuous for nearly half a century, is handsome in all respects. For a portrait of the author, we have a copy of the memorial medallion of Mrs. Craik in Tewkesbury Abbey, and there are a few authentic views of buildings and scenes. The imaginative illustrations, however, twelve in number, are all in color, and lend a certain quaintness to the single volume of 421 closely but clearly printed pages. A companion to the foregoing is Scott's 'Ivanhoe,' but the colored drawings are concerned with the action of the story alone. It contains, also, a hundred more pages.

The "Riverside Aldine Classics," five in a box, which embody selections from Holmes, Longfellow, Lowell, Whittier, and Hawthorne (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), boldly profess to carry on the traditions of Aldus Manutius and his disciple, William Pickering. That they are "free from eccentricities" will be readily conceded, and their convenience for the pocket or the hand speaks to the eye. For the rest, at a moderate cost, they certainly worthily carry on the traditions of the Riverside Press, and the binding is exceptionally attractive and well conceived. The series is but begun.

A compact little 'Notes for the Guidance of Authors,' compiled by Mr. William Stone Booth and published by Macmillan Co., contains the pith of the gospel of the orderly preparation of manuscript for the press, very clearly put. The proof-reader's hieroglyphics, too, are shown and interpreted; and J. S. Cushing & Co. of the Norwood Press, Boston, append their rules for spelling, punctuation, and style—safe to follow by the uniformitarian, if subject to a higher law of taste and the variation of original genius.

The last volume of Briggs, Driver & Plummer's 'International Critical Commentary' to make its appearance is 'Proverbs' (Scribners), by Professor Toy of Harvard. This volume is an evidence of the continuing tendency of critics to assign the literature of the Old Testament to constantly later dates. In his 'Job and Solomon,' published in 1887, Cheyne, a fair representative of the most advanced school, argued with much positiveness that Proverbs was pre-Exilic, against the view advocated by Kuenen, Wellhausen, and a few others that it was composed in the fourth century B. C. This latter was the most extreme date proposed for the book at that time. To-day, thirteen years later, rather conservative scholars accept the date then deemed untenably extreme by Cheyne, while Professor Toy assigns the final composition of the book to the second century B. C., although placing the two large collections of proverbs which constitute the bulk of the work at the close of the fourth century B. C.

The sixth volume of Schrader's "Keilinschriftliche Bibliothek," the first half, which appeared this year, contains 'Assyrian and Babylonian Myths and Epics,' edited by Dr. P. Jensen of Marburg. Almost one-half of the 300-odd pages of this volume are devoted to the Gilgamesh Epic, which Dr. Jensen also designates as the Nimrod Epic. As appendices to this appear fragments of a second and third version of the Flood Story, which constitutes part of that epic, a conjuration formula, and a hymn to Gilgamesh, with some other fragments. In his preface Professor Jensen likens the work of Assyriology to "a field with hop poles, of which very many are approximately or altogether straight and upright, but many stand crooked, bending in all directions." He calls attention to the lack of finality and of completeness in the best text available, namely, that of Dr. Haupt, and of the inability of the best scholars as yet to translate with certainty everything, even in a poem so often worked over as the Gilgamesh Epic. His own translations are, intentionally, as he says, most literal, to the extent, sometimes, it must be said, of utter unintelligibility to the ordinary reader. His object seems to be to reproduce in his German as exactly as possible the condition of the text, and leave the student unprejudiced to struggle with its interpretation. The second half of this volume, now in preparation, is to contain religious texts of all sorts—hymns, magical, ritual, and omen texts, proverbs, and the like. This library of transliterations and translations of Assyrian and Babylonian texts is of the greatest value to the student.

With no flourish of trumpets, or even simple announcement on the covers, the first fascicule (of some thirty) of 'The Italian Catalogue,' as we may call it, makes its appearance ('Catalogo Generale della Libreria Italiana dall' anno 1847 a tutto il 1899.' Milan: Ulrico Hoepli; New York: Lemcke & Buechner). Practically half of the expiring century's output in Italian books will be recorded; and not in the peninsula alone. Take, in the portion before us (A—Arena-Natoli), the rubric Alighieri, Dante; we meet with Boston, London, Paris, Berlin, Leipzig, Zweibrücken, Freiburg, Stockholm, etc., imprints. There are eight columns of entries under this title, and their bibliographical value is obvious. The particulars are ample: place, date, publisher, size, pages, price. The "six-point body" in which the Catalogue is set corresponds to our nonpareil; and, while it would be trying to read, it is made easy of author-reference by a full-face catch-title. The sub-alphabetizing, as is unavoidable in Continental languages, involves a complete search without classification. This enterprise, we need not say, is worthy of wide support. In following the lead of the 'American Catalogue' it shows again that peace hath her victories.

We announced last week a forthcoming "Dante Calendar." A "Goethe-Kalender" for 1901 now comes to us from Lemcke & Buechner—cardboard sheets fastened with a pink ribbon, ornamented with floral and scenic water-color designs, having no relation to the poet or to his accompanying verse. We like better, reaching us from the same house, the familiar colored "Münchener Kalender," in its seventeenth issue, with its display of princely and noble arms, which amount in the past seven years, as the publishers say, to the elements of a great heraldic work; and Munich "Deutscher Hauskalender," noticeable for its decorative colored borders and convenient tablets.

The revival of the *Magazine of American History*, with William L. Stone and William Abbatt as editors, is assured. It will have its old form of a square octavo, and be issued monthly from January 1, 1901, at four dollars a year, payable on the appearance of the first number. Mr. Stone's address is No. 151 Park Avenue, Mount Vernon, N. Y.

The Royal Library of Munich, Bavaria, is now celebrating the fifth centennial anniversary of Gutenberg's birth by an exceedingly interesting exhibition of its incunabula, most of which are very rare and quite a number absolutely unique. First is a collection of "block-books." Especially noteworthy are three editions of the 'Biblia Pauperum,' a Netherland edition of the Latin text not earlier than 1460, and two editions in German issued at Nördlingen in 1470 and at Nuremberg in 1471; the only known copies of a Dance of Death dating from the sixth decade of the fifteenth century, and of a 'Symbolum Apostolicum' (about 1475); an 'Ars Moriendi' declared by Dutuit to be the oldest xylographic edition of this work; and a guide for pilgrims to Rome prepared for the jubilee of 1475, and entitled 'Mirabilia Urbis Romæ.' This largest of all the block-books bears the escutcheon of Pope Sixtus IV., and contains a history of Rome till the time of Constantine, with a description of the churches, their sacred relics, and the means of obtaining absolution. We can mention further only a perfectly preserved copy of the first printed (42-line) Bible (1454-'56); the sole existing copy of 'Eyn manung der Cristenheit widder die durcken,' a folk-book of German rhymes issued in the form of a calendar for 1455, two years after the conquest of Constantinople by the Turks—a circumstance that renders the "admonition" peculiarly appropriate.

The death at Montreal on September 15 of Thomas Davidson will be regretted by a large number of friends and disciples. Mr. Davidson led a life devoted to high philosophical ends, and, while the philosophy which he propagated was not of the sort that forms an established foundation for further structure, it was, nevertheless, both a delightful intellectual exercise and an ethical consolation to many inquiring minds. His summer encampment in the Adirondacks was the Mecca of a large body of adherents. He continued his lectures there this summer in spite of rapidly advancing weakness, and he was finally obliged to seek medical aid in a nearer city than New York. His most important work was the translation of the 'Anthropology' of the Italian scholar, Father Rosmini, and his writings on the philosophy of education of the same author.

—Mr. J. N. Larned's 'History of England, for the Use of Schools and Academies' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), covers most familiar territory and comes into comparison with several well-known text-books, both English and American. We can partly describe its scope by saying that it stands midway between S. R. Gardiner's 'Outline of English History' and his 'Student's History of England.' However, as the same statement might be made about other text-books of English history, we must add that Mr. Larned, besides writing for an intermediate class of pupils, adopts an explanatory rather than a narrative style. A contrast with existing books by American authors might seem invidious, and so we shall try to bring out the strongest aspect of Mr. Larned's history by placing it at the other extreme from a treatise which is widely used in England, India, and the British colonies. We refer to the late Cyril Ransome's 'Short History of England.' The great success of this manual is traceable to the skill with which it compresses a large number of facts into a relatively small space, and to its tact in steering between controversial opinions. But while it contains many more facts than Mr. Larned's book, it is less instructive; certainly it is less adapted to the needs of beginners. Mr. Larned follows the progress of English national development in such a way as to reduce the scale of all but the most important tendencies. He pursues a "path to a clear-purposed goal" much more resolutely than Ransome does, for where he cannot stop to interpret the bearing of a certain fact he rejects it altogether. The learning of history is too often made a *tour de force* of memory. It is not enough that an elementary narrative should be clear and correct or even interesting. It should also appeal to the pupil's reason and impress it with a sense of coherence. Here Mr. Larned has succeeded. He avoids the system of memory "cram," and addresses the intelligence. We may give a list of several other valuable features which this text-book possesses. Much judgment has been shown in the choice of illustrations, and (an important and often-neglected point) the authority for each is mentioned. The text keeps in close touch either with original authorities or with the conclusions of recent specialists like Maitland, Round, and Vinogradoff. Finally, very full bibliographical notes have been furnished by Mr. H. P. Lewis, with good research questions and topical analyses. We must give Mr. Larned's 'History of England' warm praise, and not the least because it explains the true historical connection between England and the United States.

—The chief interest in 'A History of the Oxford Mission to Calcutta,' by George Longridge (London: John Murray), lies in its graphic pictures of the Babu as the English system of education introduced by Macaulay in 1835 has made him, a man with a keenly alert and inquiring mind, but absolutely without moral or religious convictions. English and natives alike deplore this result of the attempt to educate Eastern youth on Western methods. A profound sense of responsibility for present conditions prompted the establishment twenty years ago of the Oxford Mission for work among the six thousand students of the University of Calcutta, mostly young men exposed to all the dangers of city life, and who are "under no system of supervision or discipline of any sort or kind." This has mainly consisted in forming close personal relations with them. The Mission House is open to them at all times. "Most afternoons there is a pretty constant stream of them coming in to use the reading-room, to borrow books, to talk or to 'read Bible,' as they express it; and our aim is to draft them off to our rooms by ones or twos—seldom more at a time—and then learn from them their thoughts, their difficulties, their doubts; to teach them the great truths of the faith, and to press home to their consciences those moral and spiritual facts which they are generally willing enough to recognize intellectually." Later a students' boarding-house was opened and was an immediate and permanent success, although it was made perfectly clear that while no religious conditions were imposed on the residents, they would be brought directly under Christian influences. The Mission also maintains an industrial school for the children of Christian natives, with 160 pupils. The studies of its members are directed mainly to the investigation of the great Indian religious systems, in order to place them in their right relation to the Christian faith. With rare exception these members are University men.

—The happy idea of Prof. Basil Hall Chamberlain in condensing into a duodecimo a cyclopædia treating of Japan was quickly borrowed for China (with permission) by Mr. J. Dyer Ball of her Britannic Majesty's civil service at Hong Kong. Long a resident, and we believe a native, of China, Mr. Ball handles his manifold themes with firmness and ease. Without wit or sparkle, his handbook is rich in information. Successive editions, of which the third is now before us (Scribners), show improvement as well as enlargement. The alphabetical arrangement of subjects, backed by a good index, makes consultation easy, and the topics selected are those upon which we need most light. Mr. Ball, though a prophet in insight, is not a foreteller of the future, but whatever Chinese literature and history as well as contemporary life have to show is set clearly and tersely before us. After many of the articles, condensed in treatment as they necessarily must be, occurs, under the heading of "Books Recommended," a list of the literature of the subjects as set forth in European languages. Naturally at this time one turns to the article on Secret Societies, to find there nothing said about the "Boxers," which, however, is perhaps no discredit to the editor, since letters received from Pekin within a week of the outbreak made no reference to the uprising. Furthermore, Mr. Ball, as a scholar, would not, except under protest, use this most misleading term, for there are no native boxers in Chinese. The only Chinese acquainted with the art of boxing are of the feminine and maternal sort. Even these use their tongues far oftener than their palm or fist. Whether treating of pagodas or poetry, leprosy or literature, tombs or topsy-turvydom, land tenure or tigers, we have abundance of accurate and luminous information in this volume of nearly 700 pages, which has also a good index.

RECENT WORKS ON SHAKSPERE.

Shaksper not Shakspeare. By William H. Edwards. With Portraits and Facsimiles. "Let every tub stand on its own bottom."—Apt Proverb. Cincinnati: The Robert Clarke Co. 1900.

A New Study of the Sonnets of Shakspeare. By Parke Godwin. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1900.

Shakespeare: The Man. An Attempt to Find Traces of the Dramatist's Character in his Dramas. By Goldwin Smith. Doubleday & McClure Co. 1900.

In Jean Paul's 'Quintus Fixlein' he sketches a delightful village pedant who spent his life in such literary labors as were involved, for instance, in counting the number of times that the letter A appeared in the Holy Scriptures; and who recorded with pride that in this case the total figure was 323,015. He justly observed, furthermore, on completing his task, that important results were to be drawn from this, and advised his readers to draw them. Had the German humorist lived a century or so later, he would doubtless have devised for his hero a class of themes yet more inexhaustible, and affording the reader still more effort in discovering any valuable results from them. He would unquestionably have shut his hero up in some village garret, and have had him take up the problem whether Shakspere wrote Shakspere; and if so, when, why, and wherefore. In pursuing this theme as adequate food for the decline of life, he would have had, among many examples, the authors of the three books now before us. Mr. Goldwin Smith is now seventy-seven years old, Mr. Edwards seventy-eight, and Mr. Godwin eighty-four, and each has earned, by good literary service in the past, the right to bestow his time as he will.

The types of these three works are wholly distinct, and they take up the vast theme of Shakspere in ways altogether different. Mr. Smith's book has the vast merit of brevity; it is, indeed, so brief—covering sixty small pages only—as almost to come within the class of primers. A man of his literary training might easily have dictated all the original part of it in two working days, leaving it to a secretary to copy out the illustrative extracts which constitute its larger portions. He covers the life of Shakspere as a whole, but does it microscopically; Mr. Godwin, on the other hand, breaks up the life into little bits, rearranges them to suit himself, and then applies the microscope to each part, illustrating each by a sonnet. Each of these authors, however, does his work seriously, and is no severer on the work of others than the vexed subject of Shakspere seems inevitably to require. One learns at least to recognize the comparative courtesy and humility of Messrs. Smith and Godwin when one turns to Mr. Edwards, who supplies on every page some epithet of opprobrium for the traditional Shakspere, and yet has epithets enough left to distribute them with impartial vehemence upon all who hold by such a tradition. If he shows any gradation in his wrath, he directs it with especial force against two classes, namely, professors and women; the latter class being represented by Mrs. Caroline H. Dall, and the former by such critics as Messrs. Fiske, Rolfe, and Wendell. If there be among these a supreme object of hostility, it is Professor Wendell, in regard to whom Mr. Edwards expresses himself with a frankness surpassed only by that bestowed on Shakspere, when he mentions it as the crowning merit of certain authors that "they have cooked Shakspeare's goose" (p. 265).

If we now ask ourselves what is really added by such a book as that of Mr. Edwards towards solving the Shakspere perplexity, the reply must be that he has given absolutely nothing. There stands the perpetual wonder: the author of dramas which are at the head of all literature received unquestionably no just appreciation in his own day, and at any rate won no supreme honors; he sprang from obscurity, and never wholly emerged from it during life. This fact remains the same after reading a hundred commentaries. On the other hand, there are the dramas themselves; it is certain that some one wrote them, and how does it solve the perplexity if we print a different name or a dozen names on the title-page? If you put the name of Lord Bacon there, you encounter a greater puzzle than any other—that the most conspicuous man of his time should have kept his own secret and successfully counterfeited obscurity. Mr. Edwards does not go so far as this assertion. The only positive hypothesis he puts forward is that there may have been a syndicate of authors; in other words, in order to get rid of the difficult theory of a single Shakspere, he conjectures that there may have been a dozen. To abolish a single world's wonder he conjures up a copartnership of wonders, and calls them (p. 309) "the band." In designating this band he falls back on one of the few modern critics for whom he has a good word, Mr. T. W. White, author of 'Our English Homer' (London, 1892), who easily settles the perplexity by distributing the plays, some to Greene, some to Nash, others to Marlowe, Peele, Drayton, Daniel, or Lodge, vouchsafing to Lord Bacon the authorship of 'Hamlet' only. These possible authors were, as Mr. Edwards exultingly says, "every man of them from the universities" (p. 308). But have the English universities proved themselves, in a series of years, to afford so unerring a source of supply for great dramatic works as to justify us in assembling a syndicate of former undergraduates to claim all that bears the name of Shakspere? If so, why not imagine some future Mr. Edwards as conjuring up a band of similar college-bred men who shall be credited with Keats's 'Endymion,' steeped as it is in classical allusion, in order to displace the half-taught stable-boy who has hitherto been credited with its authorship?

The fact conceded by Mr. Edwards, that many early plays, not now included in Shakspere's writings, were published under his name in the original quartos (p. 71), is an admission that this name was at least familiar to the printers. It recognizes Shakspere as at least a favorite *nom de guerre* among the dramatic wits, and we surely know that imitators in all ages have as keen a scent for real prominence as boys and blackbirds, according to Goethe, have for cherries. All neglect of Shakspere by contemporary authors, all attempts to prove that, "up to 1598, the Shaksper myth had not got a start" (p. 75), sink into insignificance before the fact, not disputed by anybody, that during that period publisher after publisher put the name of the poet on books he never wrote, in order to sell them. As for the miscellaneous knowledge implied in Shakspere's plays, there is more of common sense in the view taken by Professor Wendell than in all the ridicule heaped upon it by his critic. Dr. A. R. Wallace echoes the same thing, where he says of Shakspere, that, whatever else he was, "he was a transcendent genius, and it is the special quality of genius to be able to acquire and assimilate knowledge . . . under conditions that, to ordinary men would be impossible." This does not imply that Shakspere was a miracle, for, even if we stop short of genius, we constantly see in the world around us that the men of encyclopædic information are not necessarily the college graduates; they are simply men who have a quick ear for knowledge, and whose memory holds on to everything. It is, after all, a secondary gift; and when we are dealing with the mind that created "Hamlet" and "Macbeth," it is hardly worth while to pronounce it quite incredible that he could use words so learned as "deracinate" and "oppugnancy" (pp. 203, 205).

Of all this oft-told and unsatisfactory tale, Mr. Godwin, in his book, gives us nothing. He is not free from that habit of vehement personality into which the Shaksperian critic is almost always led, and in which he is wont to be surpassed only by the professional politician. Mr. Godwin, for instance, ranks Professor Dowden almost at the head of Shakspere's editors (p. 30), but cannot resist the temptation, within twenty pages, to characterize Dowden's whole interpretation of the Sonnets, after quoting it in full, as "this farrago of nonsense, contradiction, sycophancy, and degradation" (p. 49). But he soon, fortunately for the reader, gets beyond these preliminary passages at arms, and deals only with two authorities, Shakspere, namely, and himself; a contest in which, it must be said, Shakspere gets the worst of it. The dramatist is, indeed, at great disadvantage because he does not appear at the witness-stand in person, but in the so-called paraphrase which Mr. Godwin provides for him. He states his own method fearlessly and frankly: he went through the whole body of Sonnets, paraphrasing them in prose, and producing something much like the old-fashioned Latin paraphrase of Virgil printed for the aid of students in the Delphin editions. He says: "Of course, in making these paraphrases, I varied the language when clearness of meaning appeared to me necessary, but in no case substituted a wholly new text except by confessed conjecture" (p. 55). What he means by such conjecture is evident from the very first sonnet quoted, where he alters, "and sable curls all silvered o'er with white," to "its sable color silvered o'er with white," and gives in a note (p. 74), as a sufficient explanation of this change, his thinking it would read better. It sounds harmless, but a little reflection will show that it is very much as if an attorney, appearing before a court, should claim the right to base his argument, not on the certified documents in the case, but upon his own paraphrases. It would not be very hard to win cases if one could remould every document into something which the counsel thought would read better.

What still further arouses distrust in this method of paraphrasing the documents is when the author allows himself to deal in the same way with other poets, as where he speaks thus of Shelley (p. 168):

"Every modern reader, in this connection, will recall Shelley's magnificent 'Hymn to Intellectual Beauty,' in which he avers that 'The awful shadow of some unseen power floats, though unseen, among us, visiting this various world with an inconstant wing-like summer wind that creeps from flower to flower, most dear, yet dearer for its mystery.'"

It is obvious that to begin by denuding a poem of its garment of metrical form is to make the next step very easy, viz., of altering the words by inserting something which would read better. This perilous familiarity soon leads to utter disregard of that element of beauty which, as it is essential to the production of a poem, should also be foremost in the discussion of it. This is almost wholly wanting in the discussion of the Sonnets by the present author. In his whole volume of 306 pages, we can find only two instances of recognition of the literary value of any particular sonnet (pp. 109, 224). Granting that his primary object was exegesis, it seems strange that he should not, among one hundred and fifty sonnets, have felt more than two which tempted him into a compliment, were it only as Charles Lamb bought George Dyer's epic, on the ground that there must be at least one good line in a volume of four hundred pages. Sonnets that have been the delight of every poetic mind, as those beginning

"Shall I compare thee to a Summer's day,"
"When to the sessions of sweet silent thought,"
"That time of year thou mayst in me behold,"
"When in the chronicle of wasted time,"

are here passed by without a word, except such as help to number each in a new order, for which the next critic may substitute still another. What have those exquisite productions done that they should in succession, like prison convicts, forfeit their very names and receive only a distinguishing number when placed in their cells? They forfeit their names, not only because there is no index in the volume, but because each is translated into modern prose and appears in *disguise.*

Nor is this all, for Mr. Godwin, in his zeal to interweave the Sonnets, has inserted phrases referring from one to another, such as are not to be found in the originals. Thus, we have, "Nor shall my own glass ever persuade me that I am old, so long as youth and thou, as we have just seen, are of one date" (p. 101). This represents the first two lines of the sonnet—

"My glass shall not persuade me I am old
As long as youth and thou are of one date."

The "as we have just seen" is contributed by the editor, and yet not distinguished by brackets or by italics. Again, on the opposite page, we have, "Thy summer is the summer of love, which is perennial, and does not fade. Besides, and here the enthusiastic and self-confident poet breaks out: Death;" etc. This is a substitute for the verses;

"But thy eternal summer shall not fade
Nor lose possession of that fair thou owest,
Nor shall death brag thou wanderest in his
shade";

and it will be seen that one whole line is left out and the commentator's phrase substituted—again without brackets or italics. It is also worth mentioning that after this paraphrase the editor cheerfully continues, in order to bring the whole affair within easy reach of common life;

"As the lad repeated these lines to the girl, either at Shottery, her home, or in his father's house, she, if she was the woman I take her to have been, threw her arms about him and gave him some hearty kisses, exclaiming, 'O, Willie, boy! if ever there was a poet, you are one; but, alas! you make too much of my good looks, for remember that I am older than you are, and beauty is a thing that soon decays'" (p. 100).

Far be it from us to underrate the amount of labor which has been bestowed upon this book, or the essential candor and honesty of its distinguished and venerable author. But it is the duty of a sincere critic to consider the value as well as the motive of an author's work; and, in this case, that consideration must peculiarly enter. Grant that it is desirable, were it possible, to ascertain the precise order and object of each of Shakspere's Sonnets, the trouble is that Mr. Godwin leaves us at the end as at the beginning in the conviction, which was Richard Grant White's final attitude, that, in their present order, they are "distractingly and remedilessly confused." All modern efforts are thwarted by what Mr. Godwin calls, in one of his boldest phrases, "the obliviating enmity of death" (p. 224); the witnesses are dead, the documentary evidence is lost; and, as we turn page after page of this well-intentioned book, we find only a series of guesses, no worse than those of the previous guessers, but no better than those of the next. We are at the end, as at the beginning, face to face with that yet unsolved enigma called Shakspere.

A History of American Privateers. By Edgar Stanton Maclay. D. Appleton & Co.

Mr. Maclay, evidently appreciating the close connection between the history of our navy and the story of American privateers, has followed his new edition of the 'History of the American Navy' with a history of that other most notable feature of our early maritime wars, and the most complete account of American privateering yet published; in fact, the only one worthy of mention, except that of Coggeshall, which was confined to the war of 1812, and is now, we believe, out of print.

Privateers and privateering began early on the Atlantic sea-coast. Colonial armed vessels were fitted out as early as 1646, while in 1652, as Mr. W. P. Sheffield, in his address before the Rhode Island Historical Society, states, the colony of Rhode Island was authorized by the home Government to issue commissions to private armed vessels against the persons and property of the Dutch, then at war with England. Rhode Island seems to have been the nursery of privateers in the colonial days, as well as in the time of the Revolutionary war, and the Browns and De Wolfs of that colony and day attended to other matters than the establishment of universities and the recruiting of the ministry of the churches. This part of the history under review does not seem to be as full as it might have been, considering that the suggestive address of Mr. Sheffield and the other records of the Rhode Island Historical Society were at the service of the author. There was somewhat of a blend between the slaver and the privateer in those early days, which disappeared in the time of our independence. The custom of taking a horoscope before sailing existed as late as 1745, when two large privateers, owned by Godfrey Malbone, sailed from Newport on the day cast—Friday, December the 24th—in a violent snow-storm, and were never afterwards heard from. Tradition says that the top of the old stone mill in Touro Park, Newport, was used to cast the horoscope.

In the two wars with England, however, is traced the best-known and most brilliant history of our privateering. Letters of marque and reprisal were, it is true, issued also during our quasi-war with France from 1798 to 1801, but these were used more particularly for prize-making incidental and secondary to voyages of trade.

Our regular navy in the Revolutionary war, exclusive of the Lake Champlain flotilla, numbered less than fifty vessels of all kinds, while our privateers must have constituted a thousand craft. The author varies in his statements as to their number, giving 792 in his preface and 1,151 in his concluding pages, with captures variously reckoned from 343 to about 600 in number. The capture and destruction of the regular men-of-war of the American navy in this war reduced its number gradually to but seven in 1782; and as the assistance of the French navy after the alliance was but occasional, very much naval work fell to the privateers, and they became a school of training for the future navy of the United States. Barney, Barry, Alexander Murray, Truxton, Preble, the Decaturs, Biddle, Cassin, and David Porter are historic naval names, which were also connected with these Revolutionary privateers. The military results of privateering were naturally great with these men in the service, and the capture of British vessels, men-of-war, transports, and supply-vessels contributed materially to the final success of the colonists. Sixteen vessels of war and sixteen thousand prisoners from all branches of the land and sea forces of Great Britain captured by privateers make a brave showing. The interruption of communications between England and the North American Coast and West Indian possessions, and the raids made in the waters surrounding the British Isles, created a cry for peace which penetrated the walls of the houses of Parliament.

The second war with Great Britain, however, witnessed the high-water mark of

American privateering through a combination of circumstances never likely to happen again. Speed in our merchant vessels had been fostered at the sacrifice of carrying capacity before the outbreak of hostilities, in order to avoid search and impressment by British vessels of war; also by the forced running trade to France and the West Indies in the Napoleonic wars. When, therefore, ordinary commerce was closed, our merchantmen, as they existed, became privateers. Notwithstanding all the inducements to steer clear of the British vessels of the regular navy, there were a number of instances in which our privateers gave battle to them, and so raised the American privateer and privateersman to a high position in the maritime forces of the day. Among the actions were those of the *Decatur* under Dixon, with the English cruiser *Dominica;* the *Prince de Neufchâtel* and the British frigate *Endymion*; the *Montgomery* and the *Surinam;* while most brilliant of all was the well-known defence of the privateer *General Armstrong* in the harbor of Fayal against the attack of a British squadron, which, unsuccessful though it was, can be classed among the most brilliant events in maritime warfare, the English losses amounting to sixty-three killed and one hundred and ten wounded.

But privateering, considered in its broad sense, had even in those days the defects which, with modern changes, make it impossible at the present time. No one has discussed the question of privateering in the second war with England more comprehensively than Henry Adams in his 'History of the United States from 1813 to 1817.' He concludes that if the Government had kept twenty sloops-of-war constantly at sea destroying commerce, the result towards the enemy would have been the same, while the regular service would have been fostered rather than injured as it was by privateering. Seamen naturally preferred the shorter and more profitable cruise of the privateer to the discipline, fighting, and poor pay of the man-of-war. The scarcity of men obtainable for our frigates was a serious evil: the *Constitution* was nearly lost by this cause at the beginning of the war, and the loss of the *Chesapeake*, it is claimed, was largely due to the determination of the old crew to quit the Government service for that of privateers.

In the war of 1812 came the first opportunity during our existence as an independent state to prove our capacity to excel upon the element open to all the world; and we proved it not only by our fighting upon the high seas and the lakes, but by the creation of the privateer. "Beautiful beyond anything then known in naval construction," says Henry Adams, "such vessels roused boundless admiration, but defied imitators."

Mrs. Delany (Mary Granville). A Memoir (1700-1788). Compiled by George Paston. London: Grant Richards; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 1900.

There is to-day a more tolerant view of the historical interest of such a record as Mrs. Delany's 'Memoirs' than when, in 1861, *Blackwood's* reviewer dismissed and damned it for a "female book." Decidedly, on its first appearance in six volumes (price five pounds), it fell in the wide and growing category of biographies whose sheer length is out of all proportion to the part played in the world's drama by the persons concerned. That edition is practically unattainable, and there is every reason why, in her reincarnation in one volume, abridged and intelligently edited, so vivacious a lady should win a new lease of life. Her lively journal of the court and social life of a century so dull is worth reading, if only for the light it throws on the minor antiquities of dress and manners, and for the curious pieces of gossip that only a clever woman knows how to retail.

Mary Granville was the daughter of the famous house of Grenville or Granville, and an immediate descendant of the immortal Sir Richard of the *Revenge*. Her father, who was a younger son and poor, intrusted her to his prosperous brother, the first Lord Lansdowne; and at seventeen, to her great and freely expressed disinclination, Mary was married to a rich old Cornishman named Pendarves. Then follows the hackneyed eighteenth-century story of the jealous husband with a young and beautiful wife exposed alternately to the ennui of a remote Cornish grange and the temptations of London society. The wit and beauty of Mrs. Pendarves were steadied by strong common sense and good nature, so that when, at twenty-four, she was left a widow, she had fairly earned her freedom. She won all hearts, but, except for a passing fancy for Lord Baltimore, kept her own affections completely disengaged to the last. During a visit to Ireland in 1731 she entered on an intellectual flirtation with Swift, which was maintained by correspondence till his death. Mrs. Pendarves, who was troubled by a carefully concealed hankering after learning—on one occasion, being caught in the act of "studying geometry," she "blushed and looked excessively silly"—was handicapped in her intercourse with Swift by her peculiar veneration of genius; and her letters to the Dean of St. Patrick's, written chiefly in 1733 and included in the published 'Letters' of Swift, are self-conscious and stilted. No wonder that he writes (p. 89), "Nothing vexes me so much with relation to you as that, with all my disposition to find faults, I was never once able to fix upon anything that I could find amiss, although I watched you narrowly." The letters written from Dublin, when Mrs. Pendarves was in constant intercourse with Swift and his friend and (later) executor, Dr. Delany, are full of entertaining descriptions of the manners, the dress, the dirt, and interminable dinners of the Irish gentry in Swift's circle.

Unlike her cousin, the beautiful Duchess of Queensberry, whose eccentricities and championship of the poet Gay figure largely in these pages, and who never changed her dress for the fashion, Mrs. Pendarves was devoted to finery and fashions, and taxed her slender fortune to keep pace with such costumes as that of Selina, Lady Huntington, which appeared at a Court ball in 1739:

> "Her petticoat was of black velvet embroidered with chenille, the pattern a large stone vase filled with ramping flowers that spread almost over a breadth of the petticoat from the bottom to the top; between each vase of flowers was a pattern of gold shells and foliage, embossed and most heavily rich. The gown was white satin, embroidered also with chenille mixed with gold, no vase on the sleeve, but two or three on the tail" (p. 106).

Here was a gown after her own heart:

> "It was of white satin embroidered, the bottom of the petticoat brown hills covered with all sorts of weeds, and every breadth had an old stump of a tree, that ran up almost to the top of the petticoat, broken and ragged, and worked with brown chenille, round which twined nasturtiums, ivy, honeysuckles, periwinkles, and all sorts of twining flowers, which spread and covered the petticoat; vines with the leaves variegated as you have seen them by the sun, all rather smaller than nature, which made them look very light; the robings and facings were little green banks covered with all sorts of weeds, and the sleeves and the rest of the gown loose twining branches of the same sort as those on the petticoat. Many of the leaves were finished with gold, and part of the stumps of the trees looked like the gilding of the sun. I never saw a piece of work so prettily fancied, and am quite angry with myself for not having the same thought, for it is infinitely handsomer than mine, and could not have cost much more" (p. 114).

After her unromantic marriage in 1743 with Dr. Delany, for whom her *beaux yeux* promptly secured the Deanery of Down, Mrs. Delany's life in Dublin and Down was uneventful, but on her husband's death in 1768 she returned to London life with her interest but little abated by years. She lived for the most part with the Duchess of Portland, where she quickly became intimate with George III. and Queen Charlotte. She was treated by them with peculiar consideration, and it was in a house at Windsor, given to her by them and carefully fitted up for her use by the King himself, that Mrs. Delany died at the age of eighty-eight, having played an active part in court life almost to the last hour. Her life and letters cover much the same period as do those of Maria Josepha Stanley. But Mrs. Delany was a childless woman of fashion, and in her memoirs such items as that on p. 178, "Earrings go round the neck and tie with bows and ends behind. Night-gowns are worn without hoops"—indicate a very different range of interests from Maria Stanley's, with her large family and several country estates to manage. They both held the orthodox ladylike views of current literature that were considered becoming to a female of the period. Mrs. Delany writes of 'Tristram Shandy' that neither she nor the Dean will read it themselves, but they are content to think it a wicked work, and to lament that "it diverts more than it offends."

From the mass of gossip about distinguished men and women, we give one anecdote of historical interest:

> "The Duke and Duchess of Marlborough had upwards of £90,000 per annum in places, besides Blenheim and all their family and children in places. They would not even pay the taxes of the house granted them at Whitehall, and when the Duke made a campaign he was always furnished with every material of linen, etc., at the Queen's expense. The Prince Eugene once, when he received a letter from the Duke, gave it to another to read to him, as it was a difficult hand to read; and the person said: 'The Duke puts no tittles upon the "i's."' 'Oh,' said the Prince, 'it saves his Grace's ink.'"

Mr. Paston's editing has been well done, the binding, print, and paper are excellent, and the book is enriched with admirable reproductions of portraits of some of the most celebrated members of Mrs. Delany's circle.

Economics of Modern Cookery. By M. M. Mallock. Macmillan Co.

First Aid to the Young Housekeeper. By

Christine Terhune Herrick. Charles Scribner's Sons.

The average cookbook is of little use to residents of the country, removed from sources of abundant and varied supply, with the sole exception of recipes for sweets, which call for ingredients that are procurable at almost every village store. Those for soups, sauces, and entrées, on the other hand, are of a character that only the well-equipped purveyor of a large town can provide. With this difficulty removed, we are still confronted with the weird and involved phraseology in which culinary formulas are embalmed, and which can be interpreted only by those who are more or less learned and experienced in the mysteries of cookery. Mr. Mallock, in his 'Economies of Modern Cookery,' seeks to remedy this defective method of presenting recipes, and to render them intelligible and easily carried out. His success in this direction is unequivocal.

He starts out with the idea that a plain cook in a small household, especially in the country, does not need to learn much in the way of treating truffles and ortolans, any more than the mistress who employs a thoroughly competent *chef* needs to bother about what to do with the cold mutton. It must be said for the author that this is a distinctively English book, written for a British audience, and much that he has to tell will not be readily understood by Americans who have not some knowledge of English social customs, as when he says that he writes for those Englishmen and women who, when they have left the family roof-tree and settled in homes of their own, find themselves forced to live on incomes diminutive in comparison with those of their parents. Then they have to suffer the hardship of contenting themselves with the services of only four or five domestics instead of the twenty or thirty that were employed at the homestead. Under these deplorable conditions the victims are constantly reminded of their poverty by the meals put before them. With a thorough knowledge of what good cookery consists in, they conceive it impossible, with their present means and small retinue of four or five servants, to make any approach to it. Since they cannot have the best, they yield to hopeless despair, and suffer more or less in silence, according to temperament and length of duration of the conjugal relation. The idea of the author is to inspire these gastronomic pessimists with courage, to dispel their fatalistic theory, and to show them how, with the assistance of discriminating taste, some talent for organization, and an amount of technical knowledge not hard to acquire, they may economically secure a cuisine which in most particulars will equal the best that unlimited outlay can command.

Those of Mr. Mallock's readers who have more or less knowledge of the culinary art will be delighted with the skill with which he makes good this promise. His explanation of the making of a béchamel sauce offers a conspicuous example of his lucid treatment of a recipe when he gives and explains one—which is rare, as his purpose, as has been stated, is only to make intelligible certain formulas contained in kitchen compilations. He offers one bit of information which will be of interest to those who are in the habit of making a mayonnaise sauce —the reason why, through the mixture of the yolk of egg and oil, the peculiar jelly-like texture is obtained. This is caused by the division of the oil into very minute globules, each enclosed in its little film of egg; the whole thus forming a sort of solid egg and oil froth. The author follows the usual plan of taking up in succession all culinary processes, from soups to sweets, with details of household expenditure and management.

A man once asked a friend on what day he should marry. He was told to select Friday, the 13th of the month, for then "he would have something to blame it on." The ill omen may now be averted by marrying a woman who takes to heart the admirable instruction contained in 'First Aid to the Young Housekeeper.' It is a book of reference that will remove doubt in moments of domestic bewilderment. It is so agreeably put together that it transforms monotonous drudgery into recreation. It makes "Building the Kitchen Fire" a feverish joy; "Laundry Work and Washing" a longed-for festival; "Starch, Stains, and Ironing" an intermezzo of marital harmony; while "Washing Dishes and Sundries" has the fascination of "rag-time" melody.

China: The Long-lived Empire. By Eliza Ruhamah Scidmore. The Century Co. 8vo, pp. 466.

Miss Scidmore, with experience, knowledge, and penetration, avoids the mistakes of most writers on China. Evidently the average female traveller and author has served her as a woful example. It is hard to tell, when reading her book, which subjective element, sprightliness or modesty, is more manifest. Her pages are rich in vivacity and glow, often sparkling with a wit that makes reading of them very easy. Nevertheless, despite all the information given and the experience gained during her seven visits to China, all made within the last fifteen years, this is rather a book that distils the wisdom of many previous writers than one of original investigation. Hence it serves better for immediate reading than for reference. The value of it is in its timeliness. Its pictures of Tientsin and Pekin are wonderfully detailed and bright with local color. Although it contains a chapter on Canton and several on the Yangtse Valley, including lively episodes of wayfaring and adventure, yet it is essentially a sketch of travel in northeastern China. What we are told about the empire and the natives is presented as the result of accurate and critical reading of the best writers on China.

Her personal narrative reveals a valorous woman whose senses are very keen, and who perseveres through difficulties, bravely striving to find the ideal and pathetic. This she does, in spite of "the true flavor of China, that heavy, half-sickening smell of bean oil, of incense and opium smoke, and of filthy human beings," which pervades the air and dispels any illusion. Yet her conclusion is pessimistic enough. She will even have it that "no one has penetrated, or uncovered, or satisfactorily analyzed the Chinese brain, or whatever lies behind those blank, solid, immovable yellow countenances; no one has comprehended the temperament so opposite, so unsympathetic, nor unravelled the threads of a character too complex and tangled, too contradictory and inconsistent, too baffling and evasive, too Asiatic for us ever to have insight there. There is no starting-point from which to arrive at an understanding; always the eternal, impassable, gulf yawns between the mind and temperament of Occident and Orient." After this deliverance, on her initial and closing pages, by an author who, after all, seems to us to be writing more to impress her audience in a Boston parlor or her readers in Yankee land, it is well to add her own quotation from "one serious observer," who has been "twenty years trying to find out how they [the Chinese] are governed": "The longer we stay here the less we see, the less we are fitted to judge." Suffice it to say, over against this, that, with astonishing uniformity and persistency, the even more "serious" observers who live closest to the people and most altruistically work for their uplifting, are more and more confirmed in the idea that the Chinese is a normal man.

Calendar of Letter-Books; from the Archives of the City of London. Letter Book B, *circa* A. D. 1275-1312. Edited by Reginald R. Sharpe, D.C.L. London. 1900.

A brief notice of Letter-Book A appeared in the *Nation* of September 14, 1899, when that volume had recently been published. Of the present volume the editor says in his preface that the greater part of it, "like its predecessor, is devoted to the record of recognizances. . . . Besides these recognizances . . . there are a variety of other matters recorded here which, if not of national interest, at least serve to illustrate civic life and the municipal government of London in the thirteenth century. Thus, at the outset we have a record of inquests or trials by jury (the jury consisting of no less than four representatives from each of the wards) held in 1281. . . . The names of the offenders and of their several trades alone are worth studying." And much else; but these words sufficiently indicate the character of the volume for our present purposes—at least, if it be added that it has also records of proceedings of larger interest, such as those relating to the dealings of Edward I. with the liberties of the City of London, and of others touching the weights and measures of London, and the proceedings and offices of the local coroners, which may interest students of history and legal antiquities.

The multitude of recognizances here, as in the earlier volume, bears interesting witness to the ordinary way in which men incurred obligations, and preserved the record of them at a time when the practice of writing was unusual.

Among the proper names, Richard *le Kissere* is accounted for as indicating a maker of "cushes" for the thighs. "Roger the Shearman" is explained as belonging with "William *le Retundur,*" as a *retonsor,* a shearman, or shearer of cloth. Is this the original of our Roger Sherman? It would be interesting to know. John Amys, Richard de Ware, and many another name will attract attention. Geoffroy de Burdeus shows the mediæval English pronunciation of Bordeaux; or *Burdews,* as it is sometimes written in the Year Books.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bearne, Catherine. Pictures of the Old French Court: Jeanne de Bourbon. Isabeau de Bavière. Anne de Bretagne. E. P. Dutton & Co. $3.
Berger, F. French Method, 1900. New York: The Author. 75c.
Brooke, S. A. English Literature. Macmillan. $1.

Brooks, Amy. Randy's Summer: A Story for Girls. Boston: Lee & Shepard.
Browning, Elizabeth Barrett. Complete Poetical Works. [Cambridge ed.] Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Burroughs, J. Squirrels and Other Fur-Bearers. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Colville, W. J. Fate Mastered, Destiny Fulfilled. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 35c.
Counsel upon the Reading of Books. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Crew, Prof. H. The Elements of Physics. For use in High Schools. 2d ed. Macmillan. $1.10.
Crowninshield, F. Pictoris Carmina. With illustrations by the Author. Dodd, Mead & Co. $2.
Dickens, C. The Cricket on the Hearth. Cassells. 10c.
Dillingham, Frances B. A Christmas Tree Scholar, and Other Stories. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 50c.
Dumas, A. The Valois Romances: Marguerite de Valois, La Dame de Monsoreau, The Forty-five Guardsmen. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 3 vols. $4.50.
Gates, L. E. Studies and Appreciations. Macmillan. $1.50.
Gilder, Jeannette L. The Autobiography of a Tomboy. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.25.
Green, Anna K. The Circular Study. McClure, Phillips & Co. $1.25.
Harris, J. C. On the Wings of Occasion: Being the Authorized Version of Certain Curious Episodes of the Late Civil War, including the Hitherto Suppressed Narrative of the Kidnapping of President Lincoln. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.50.
Kofler, L. The Art of Breathing as the Basis of Tone-Production. 5th ed. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.; New York: Edgar S. Werner Publishing and Supply Co. $2.
Marble, Annie R. Books that Nourish Us. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 35c.
Marden, O. S. Good Manners a Passport to Success. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 35c.
Marden, O. S., and Bayley, A. The Hour of Opportunity. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 35c.
Merrick, L. The Worldlings. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.50.
Miller, Rev. J. R. Unto the Hills: A Meditation on the One Hundred and Twenty-first Psalm. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 60c.
Morrison, A. Cunning Murrell. Doubleday, Page & Co $1.50.
Munroe, K. Under the Great Bear: A Story of Adventure in Labrador and the Arctic Sea. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.25.
Neely, Rev. T. H., and Doherty, R. R. Illustrative Notes: A Guide to the Study of the International Sunday-school Lessons. New York: Eaton & Mains. $1.25.
Otis, J. Aunt Hannah and Seth. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 50c.
Pott, W. H. Stories from Dreamland. New York: James Pott & Co. $1.25.
Rand, E. A. Fifer-Boy of the Boston Siege. Boston: A. I. Bradley & Co. $1.25.
Raymond, Evelyn. Divided Skates. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 50c.
Raymond, Evelyn. The Story of Delight. Boston: A. I. Bradley & Co. $1.25.
Rizal, Dr. José. An Eagle Flight: A Filipino Novel. McClure, Phillips & Co. $1.25.
Roberts, M. The Fugitives. McClure, Phillips & Co. $1.
Rouse, Adelaide L. Helen Beaton, College Woman. Boston: A. I. Bradley & Co. $1.25.
Royal Academy Pictures, 1900. Being the Royal Academy Supplement of "The Magazine of Art." Cassells.
Semple, L. B. Longfellow's Evangeline. Macmillan. 25c.
Sinclair, Rev. W. M. "Unto You Young Men." London: Grant Richards; Philadelphia: Lippincotts.
Smada, A. Rus Divinum: A Poem. London: T. Fisher Unwin. 3s. 6d.
Smith, G. G. The Transition Period. [Periods of European Literature Series.] Scribners. $1.50.
Some Great Cause God's New Messiah: A Novel. By the Authors' Syndicate. New York: J. S. Ogilvie Publishing Co. 25c.
Stockton, Frank R. Novels and Stories. Vols. XIII. and XVIII. Scribners.
Stratemeyer, E. Between Boer and Briton, or Two Boys' Adventures in South Africa. Boston: Lee & Shepard.
Strylenski, O. Memoirs of the Countess Potocka. Translated into English by L. Strachey. Doubleday & McClure Co. $3.50.
Tappan, Eva M. In the Days of Alfred the Great. Boston: Lee & Shepard.
The Complete Poetical Works of Robert Burns. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 2 vols. $4.
The Complete Poetical Works of Geoffrey Chaucer. T. Y. Crowell & Co.
The Confessions of St. Augustine in Ten Books. Philadelphia: Lippincotts.
Watrous, G. A. Literary Essays of Thomas Babington Macaulay. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 50c.
Wickhoff, F. Roman Art: Some of its Principles and their Application to Early Christian Painting. Translated by Mrs. S. A. Strong. London: William Heinemann; New York: Macmillan. $8.
Wilson, J. D. How to Study Nature in Elementary Schools: A Flexible Manual for Teachers. Syracuse, N. Y.: C. W. Bardeen. 50c.
Year-Book of the Holland Society of New York, 1900. New York: Published by the Society.
Yechton, Barbara. Fortune's Boats: A Novel. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 11, 1900.

The Week.

The upshot of the latest official correspondence in reference to China is that Germany has receded from her demand that, as a preliminary to negotiations for peace, China should surrender to the allied Powers the persons deemed by them guilty of the recent outrages at Pekin. The nature of this demand was so extraordinary as to suggest that Emperor William had, in this instance, taken the conduct of foreign affairs away from his Minister, and had shaped it to correspond with the gloomy speeches which he addressed to the German soldiers embarking for China. These speeches, if made by any person of less importance than the Kaiser, might have been fitly called howls. Whoever may have originally conceived the German proposal, it has been definitively abandoned, and the United States has the credit of causing it to be abandoned. Our diplomacy in this instance was commendable for its bluntness. It was such as Germany was accustomed to employ when Bismarck was Chancellor. It embodied the art of saying what you mean not uncivilly, but plainly. It has had a good effect in more ways than one.

Resolutions were passed a few days ago by Americans in Tientsin deploring the contemplated withdrawal of United States troops from China; affirming that the work of the allied armies is far from accomplished, and that the refusal of the American Government to take its part therein is sure to be regarded as an unworthy act by the allies, and as a sign of indifference by the Chinese; and urging the Government to maintain a sufficient force there to secure protection to mercantile and missionary interests until a settlement of the present trouble is accomplished. Now, if the Government desired to keep its forces in China, these resolutions would be quoted as a sufficient reason for doing so; and thus Duty and Destiny would conspire to retain our troops there. But as it does not desire to do so, it takes no notice of the resolutions, and the public forgets them the next day; and thus Duty and Destiny conspire to withdraw our soldiers from China. A convenient team is Duty and Destiny, capable of pulling in any direction at any time. It is now pulling the right way.

The programme put forward by the Government of France for the settlement of Chinese difficulties embraces six points. Three of these look to the permanent occupation of China by the Powers. One calls for the dismantling of certain Chinese fortifications; another for the military occupation of certain points on the road from Tientsin to Pekin; and the third embodies a prohibition of the import of arms by China. All of these are a denial to China of the rights of sovereignty and of nationality. It is to be hoped that she will refuse them; but whether she does or not, they will, if pressed, lead to prolonged disputation, and not improbably to war. Every step now taken, every new proposition put forward, every new complication that befalls, is a fresh cause of rejoicing that we are well out of it, or shall be out as soon as existing orders to our troops can be executed. Mr. Josiah Quincy is not far wrong when he says that the late outbreak was largely a national one, and that the punishing of individuals would not meet the case. The truth is, that China has been under torture at the hands of Europeans for at least fifty years, and the wonder is not that there was a Boxer outbreak in the last year of the century, but that there has not been a series of such uprisings. The United States has not been a party to the spoliations of the past, and has consequently the best opportunity to conduct separate negotiations with China, and to obtain fair terms from her. As regards the rights of Americans in China, there is no doubt we shall get those rights as well protected as the rights of the Chinese are in America, and that is all we can decently ask for.

"What thou doest, do quickly" should be the motto of all the Powers concerned in the Chinese difficulty. The situation is one which necessarily worsens by the mere fact of not improving. No wonder that the German official press is again pessimistic. The Chinese Government has put 300 miles more between its location and the long arm and mailed fist of the German generalissimo. Gen. Chaffee is reported to have said that he could not imagine any European monarch returning to his capital while it was occupied by the allied troops of his enemies, and that it was not strange that the Emperor and Empress were shy about going back to Pekin. They were openly urged to go back. The Russian Minister addressed a special memorial to the Dowager Empress on September 21, desiring her to return to Pekin, and promising her protection, and on the same day forty high Chinese officials remaining in the capital besought the Emperor and Empress to rejoin them. The answer, we now see, was flight further inland, to a position where a foreign army of 100,000 men could scarcely follow them. Meanwhile, the Powers are doing a vast amount of negotiating and pourparlering with each other, but have made no appreciable advance in the crying duty of the hour—to negotiate with their Chinese adversary and agree with him quickly.

As we enter the last month preceding the election, the number of men noted for singleness of purpose, independence of mind, and strength of character who have declared themselves against Mr. Bryan's election, although opposed to Mr. McKinley's policy in the Philippines, is the most striking feature of the campaign. We are not referring to Republicans or to those of Republican antecedents, but to the class who may be called Independent Democrats, like Wheeler H. Peckham, John G. Carlisle, George Hoadley, Francis Lynde Stetson, George L. Rives, etc. We have heard of no criticism upon these men which imputes to them aught but patriotic and disinterested motives in declaring the position which they have taken. It is not merely that they are unalterably opposed to the financial heresy which Mr. Bryan espouses. Perhaps even more is it the general tendency of Mr. Bryan's leadership toward the arraying of classes against each other which impels them to take a stand against what they regard as a disintegrating force in society and politics. The 16-to-1 campaign, however, is the feature which is exercising the most decisive influence against Mr. Bryan, since it appeals most strongly to the instinct of self-preservation. If men are once convinced that the election of a particular candidate will be bad for business, nine out of ten of them will vote against that candidate.

Mr. William M. Ivins, Gold Democrat, formerly City Chamberlain of New York, has added his name to those who oppose the election of Bryan. He has published a letter in which he answers the arguments of Richard Olney and Bourke Cockran and others who support Bryan in the present campaign. His reply to Mr. Olney is in the nature of the *argumentum ad hominem*, and is rather effective. He says that Mr. Olney has left us in doubt as to what he really thinks about Expansion and Imperialism; that he was in favor of the war with Spain, and that he wrote a strong article in favor of Expansion and the necessity of our taking a place as a world power, but now says that McKinley is about to join the European land-grabbers in dismembering China—a prediction which has already been falsified. All this, says Mr. Ivins, comes from a gentleman "who carried the Monroe doctrine to its extreme limit, asserted for the United States rights which no other American of eminence ever dared assert, and which no foreigner of prominence ever admitted, and in behalf of which rights he was quite willing to have precipitated a war with England, concerning the boundaries of a swamp in which he had no real interest, political or commercial—in fact, no interest whatever, other than that of sustaining a theoretical right which had never been advanced before." To complete the picture of his inconsistency, it only needs to be said that in his *Atlantic Monthly* article Mr. Olney took a step in Imperialism beyond McKinley, and beyond any doctrine avowed by the Republican party, by declaring that we ought to retain Cuba, even though we had promised to withdraw and make her independent as soon as Spain should be expelled and the island pacified.

In the exchange of compliments between Mr. Bryan and Gov. Roosevelt which is now in progress, the Democratic candidate had decidedly the better of it on Thursday last. Mr. Bryan, in his address to the Democratic Clubs at Indianapolis, was speaking on his favorite topic of Trusts, and remarked that the only one that any Republicans seemed to know about was the Ice Trust, and that they did not know much about that. "If they knew more about the Ice Trust," he continued, "they would know that its harm was confined to the people of New York, and if they knew that they had as Governor of the State of New York a man who would not let any harm come to his people, they would know there would be no Ice Trust there or the Governor would kill it." Mr. Bryan added: "New York has a Republican Governor and a Republican Legislature, and you Republicans who have been worrying so much about the Ice Trust can just ease your minds, for, as long as the Governor is out West making speeches, you may be sure nobody is being hurt in New York." This is making game of Roosevelt in a fair way as stump speeches go. The serious aspect of the matter for Roosevelt is, that the attention of the whole country is thus called to his gross neglect of duty through his prolonged absenteeism. The Governor most likely could not do anything very effective against the Ice Trust if he were in Albany, but he could at least discharge promptly, decorously, and intelligently the duties of the Executive. These just now include consideration of as grave a question as could come before the Governor—whether he ought to remove the Mayor of the chief city in the State for misconduct in office.

Gov. Roosevelt is plainly convicted of violating the Constitution of the State in the proclamation which he recently issued asking contributions for the relief of the Galveston sufferers, and appointing a committee to receive and forward subscriptions. This proclamation purports to be "done at the Capitol, in the city of Albany," by the Governor, Theodore Roosevelt. On the day that it was issued, Theodore Roosevelt was not in the city of Albany, or in the State of New York, but was rushing through South Dakota on an electioneering tour. The Governor being absent from the State, the powers and duties of the office had devolved upon Lieut.-Gov. Woodruff from the moment that Mr. Roosevelt crossed the border line on his Western trip, early in September. The proclamation signed by Theodore Roosevelt, therefore, was nothing better than waste paper, and his appointment of a committee was without the slightest authority. Happily no actual harm was done, but it is never well to have an official set the example of violating the Constitution.

In spite of positive predictions to the contrary, Senator Hanna is again the central figure of the Republican campaign. Last year it was common rumor that he would retire into the background His personality was thought to be offensive. The *Tribune's* fearless correspondence from Ohio showed him up as a vulgar boss, of the same mercenary methods in politics as McLean, and a man whose prominence in party counsels was driving away thousands of Republican votes. It was even telegraphed from Washington, as if by authority, that the President had astutely interposed to rid his second candidacy of the burden of a manager who had come to stand unblushingly for commercialism in politics. But, as we say, Hanna is nevertheless at the helm again. He is also on the quarter-deck. He has suddenly become enamored of his own eloquence, and is planning extensive speaking tours. If his personality is offensive, he is going to make it offend as many people as possible. Instead of being content, as it was promised he would be, to be the power behind the throne, he acts as if he were himself the candidate for the throne. The explanation is, we suppose, that he is known to have an endorsement in blank from McKinley. Whatever pledges Hanna may make, whatever appointments to office, no matter how discreditable, he may promise, the President will stand by to the foot of the letter. Then, besides, Senator Hanna is in a position to promise legislation as well as offices. This makes his power as a collector of contributions unique.

Croker has backed down. The scheme to refuse Justice Patterson of the Supreme Court a renomination, in order to make a place on the bench for Corporation Counsel Whalen, has been abandoned. This result is a signal triumph for public opinion. The protest against the threatened outrage was so quick, so general, and so emphatic, that the boss was forced to yield. Even the managers of the Democratic national campaign felt constrained to interfere, so evident was it that the party throughout the State would suffer if the man who is managing its New York campaign should furnish such an object-lesson of what Crokerism really means. The surrender of the boss shows that our ruler still finds it necessary occasionally to pay some heed to public opinion.

Returns from the Georgia election on Wednesday week show that the result was exactly what was expected. The Populist vote has fallen off to only half what it was in the corresponding election of 1898, and to less than a third of the total in 1896. Except for the fact that there were spirited local contests between the Populists and the Democrats in a number of counties, there would have been hardly any interest in the election throughout the State. The result assures a great majority for Bryan in the Presidential election, because the Populists will then generally vote for him, while the Republicans are making no effective campaign for their electoral ticket. But this will not signify that a great majority of the people of Georgia wish the Democratic-Populist candidate to be elected. In point of fact, there is little warmth in the support which he receives, except from the Populists, who like him because he has accepted their platform. The Bryan majority will simply mean that the white men of the State still feel it necessary to vote the Democratic ticket in all elections on account of the race issue.

The Michigan Supreme Court has refused to grant a mandamus to compel, under an act of 1897, the payment of bounties on beet sugar refined in the State. The Court is unanimous in declaring this law to be class legislation, and, therefore, unconstitutional, and cites an opinion of Justice Cooley, the great Michigan jurist, that it is not in the power of the State, under the names of bounty or any other cover or subterfuge, to furnish capital to set private parties up in any kind of business, or to subsidize their business after they have entered upon it. The Court not only declares the act of 1897 unconstitutional, but refuses to permit the payment of bounties due on sugar manufactured last year and year before, and it is even suggested that action may be brought by the State to recover bounties which have been paid. The honor and integrity of the State, the Court holds, are not involved in the case, since the State is not bound by an unconstitutional act; but while people generally will uphold the Court in refusing to allow the State to be turned into an eleemosynary institution for the benefit of industrial paupers, those who have taken the constitutionality of the law for granted and made investments in the beet-sugar industry seem entirely justified in protesting that the State has broken faith with them. It is another instance of the dangers lurking in this sort of vicious paternalism.

The use made of their technical training by colored graduates of industrial schools at the South is a matter of general interest, and in the annual report of the Tuskegee (Ala.) Normal and Industrial Institute, Booker T. Washington gives some interesting facts concerning its graduates. Referring to a newspaper report that few of the negro graduates of industrial schools worked at trades learned at the school, he states that a careful examination shows that at least three-quarters of them are actually using, during the whole or a part of the time, the industrial knowledge gained at the school, while those who do not use this knowledge in earning a living, use it as housekeepers or indirectly as teachers. As an illustration of the instruction at Tuskegee, he gives an account of work done on a new brick building, 283x315 feet, dedicated at the Institute last January. The plans for this building were prepared by an instructor, who was a colored man. Eight hundred thousand bricks required to construct it were manufactured by students learning the trade of brick-making. These bricks were laid into the building by students learning the trade of brick-masonry, and the plastering, carpentry work, painting, and tin-roofing were done by students learning those trades. Electrical fittings are being put in by those learning electrical engineering, and a one-hundred-and-twenty-five-horse-power engine and a seventy-five-horse-power boiler have been installed in the building and are operated by students.

Sir Charles Tupper casts a brand-new issue before the Canadian electors—national cold-storage as a Conservative policy. His manifesto is of formidable length, and is addressed to the farmers of Canada. Its major premise is that the farmer can thrive only by a cold-storage system which shall enable him to ship his perishable products without loss to England. "Canada must have mechanical refrigeration, or our farmers will be driven to the wall," is Sir Charles's cry. The minor premise is, the Conservative party binds itself to provide a national cold-storage system. The conclusion is obvious, "Farmer, return a Conservative member, or go to the wall." There are other points in Sir Charles's lengthy essay. Historically, he writes, the last Conservative Government had planned for a perfect cold-storage system. The execution of the plan was interrupted by the fall of the Conservative Ministry, and the succeeding Government, with their characteristic blindness to the needs of the country, provided only a lukewarm Liberal cold-storage. It still remains for Sir Charles Tupper, scorning half-way measures, to give the Canadian farmer the real chill. While the department-store issue is seriously raised in this State, it would be unseemly to poke fun at Sir Charles and his cold-storage plank. It will be felt, however, that Sir Wilfrid Laurier is hardly to be thus circumvented. Sir Charles dangles cold-storage before the farmer. Sir Wilfrid has only to promise "something equally as good." Two can play at the game of bidding for the farmer vote.

The most interesting feature of the recent International Copyright Congress in Paris was the agreement upon a so-called "type" law for the protection of literary property throughout the civilized world. In so far as the proposed law looks forward to the absolute reservation of all rights of reproduction, in whole or in part, of modification, or of dramatization, to the author, it is a radical measure, and even, when one considers the practical conditions of obtaining uniform copyright legislation, doctrinaire. In suggesting a compromise between the much-discussed perpetual copyright and the present varying but always too short terms of the actual laws, however, the "type" law is distinctly practical. The compromise proposed is this: the author is to enjoy the full rights to his property for life, and his heirs are to retain copyright in his book for a further period of eighty years. Opinions may differ as to the term for which copyright should run after the author's death, but no one will seriously contest, in the author's case, the right, denied to no other occupation, of assuring the profits of his intelligence to his immediate family and heirs. Persistent agitation by the Copyright League should at least obtain relief from laws which, as was illustrated in the cases of Holmes and Whittier, may terminate an author's rights during his own lifetime.

Just as President Loubet has made his peace with the army, through attendance at the late grand manœuvres, and carried through successfully his Gargantuan banquet for French mayors, a cloud falls upon the growing prosperity of the Moderate Republicans in the failure of the Paris Exposition. To say that the Exposition is a failure does not mean that the city of Paris has not gained enormously from the host of strangers that have paid their scot handsomely in shop and inn, nor that the Exposition has not been an artistic and industrial success. It means rather that the multitudinous holders of bonds secured by tickets to the Exposition will never get their money back. These bonds were issued in small denominations, with a tempting lottery privilege, and were eagerly subscribed throughout the Republic. The failure to pay the bonds will consequently bring disappointment to thousands of thrifty families which imagined that they were combining a conservative investment with a gambler's chance. The Government will be held responsible for this loss, and with a certain right, for it is largely to delay in opening the Exposition that the loss is due. From this very palpable grievance may possibly come the thrust that, on the assembling of the Chamber of Deputies, will upset the tottering Rousseau Ministry.

The stubborn obstruction that for two years baffled the Pelloux Ministry in Italy, shows signs of disintegration. Ettore Sacchi, whose Radical followers formed an important part of the obstructionist "Left," has practically recanted for himself and his party. In an address delivered at Cremona on the national holiday, he eulogized warmly not only the personality but the public policy of the late King. He expressed the desire that a common grief and a common horror of the crime might reconcile traditional enmities and stifle the seeds of future strife; that, just as the supreme work of liberation had united all Italians, so the supreme need of social and economic reform should unite them now. "Work," he said, "will bring less division than has discussion." The very favorable comment of the Liberal press upon this speech shows that a portion at least of the Radicals are willing to join with the Administration in some such programme of social reforms as that recently advocated by Sonnino. The sagacious voice of Professor Pasquale Villari warns the nation how far it is from the mere expression of benevolent intentions to their realization in concrete policies and laws. The gravest of all Italian problems, that of tax reform, has not passed from the stage of discussion to that of working plans. The crucial test will come when the Chamber of Deputies assembles for the winter session.

A fresh crop of scandals has just come from the Cameroons, where colonial officials are again accused of cruelties. Even the semi-official *Norddeutsche Zeitung* has had to take notice of them, recording the fact that a Captain von Besser had been recalled for trial on the charge of excesses committed against the natives. It also appears that "an extremely bad impression" has been created in the capital of German East Africa by the spectacle of the chief judge of the colony brawling at a public banquet, and going out to fight a duel with an apothecary. Furthermore, the German Governor of Kiao-Chau is under charges of inhuman conduct, such as dragging a Chinaman about by the pigtail. His defence is that he did not do it himself, but ordered soldiers to do it. He adds that this is "the usual manner" of making an arrest in China. That is, to govern brutes, you must be a brute yourself.

OUR EXPANDING TRADE IN OCEANICA.

The official Monthly Summary of Commerce and Finance of the United States naturally, under present conditions of our empire, turns the official search-light upon our expanding commerce with Oceanica. For the fiscal year ending June 30, 1900, our exports to Oceanica have been 45 per cent. greater than they were for the year ending in 1899. Our trade with Hawaii and the Philippines has been increasing rapidly, and furnishing an "expanding market for American goods."

There are some items in this growing trade with our new dependencies in the Orient which are of considerable significance. The largest amount of goods exported from the United States to the Philippine Islands during any one year up to the outbreak of hostilities was for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1896. when our total exports amounted to $162,466. This was considerably above the average. In 1892 our exports to these islands had amounted to but $60,914. In 1897 they were only $94,597, and the next year but $127,804. Up to this time our export trade increased in some years and fell off in others, showing no marked tendency either to expand or to contract permanently. But, marvellous to state, during the war period this trade of ours has flourished wonderfully, mounting up to $404,193 in the fiscal year ending June 30, 1899, and to more than two and one-half millions during the year ending with last June. Such a rapid expansion of trade is well calculated to arouse official pride and unofficial suspicion. Obviously it is a rate of growth which will, if continued, in a very few years, perhaps two or three, bring our Philippine trade up to a level with that which we have with a first-class European Power.

A glance at the articles entering into this promising trade, however, does much to dispel any illusions of this sort. By far the largest single item in it is "malt liquors," $563,950. The exportation of malt liquors last year exceeded our total exports in the year preceding by more than $150,000, and was in amount four or five times our average total export trade before the war with Spain. Another large item is "spirits distilled," $150,252, which itself alone again exceeds our average ante-bellum trade. There were, of course, small items of a kindred sort, such as wine, $8,397, and tobacco, $12,493.

How much of our two and one-half millions of exports, which is not represented in our soldiers' bills for beer and whiskey, and in their officers' bills for wine, represents other "war supplies," cannot be accurately determined. The next largest item after beer is "all other animals" (except cattle), $441,950. Now, apparently all other animals except cattle are horses and mules, for there have been exactly $441,950 worth of horses and mules exported from the United States to the Philippines during this fiscal year. The next largest item is for "iron and steel and manufactures of iron and steel," $383,892. This item is somewhat baffling, owing to the fact that $259,937 out of the total amount represents manufactures of iron and steel, machinery, machines, and parts described only as "all other." The next largest item is breadstuffs, $168,726, of which $126,553 stands for 327,741 bushels of oats exported. This is a new trade, indeed. There were no oats at all exported to the Philippines in the month of July, 1899. The first large exportation of oats came in November, 1899, $60,092, shortly after the great export trade in horses and mules sprang up. The next largest item, hay, is of the same character. No hay went in July, 1899, but in July, 1900, our exports of hay amounted to $23,434. Taken all together, our export trade with the Philippines has "expanded" in two years from $127,804—a normal amount when contrasted with earlier years—to $2,640,449. It is not necessary to point out, however, in view of the above figures, that this increase is an abnormal growth, and that when our army is withdrawn, if it ever is withdrawn, our "expanding trade in the Orient" will suffer a killing blight.

A curious feature of our Philippine trade has always been the great excess of imports into the United States from the islands over exports to them. This is clearly shown in the following table of imports and exports:

	Imports into the U. S. from the Philippines.	Exports from the U. S. to the Philippines.
1890	$11,592,626	$122,276
1891	5,167,209	124,572
1892	6,308,653	60,914
1893	9,150,857	154,378
1894	7,008,342	145,466
1895	4,731,366	119,255
1896	4,982,857	162,466
1897	4,383,740	94,597
1898	3,830,315	127,804
1899	4,409,774	404,193
1900	5,971,208	2,640,449

Of the $5,971,208 worth of imports into the United States last year from the Philippines, $5,014,770 is designated under the single heading "vegetable fibres." There are, in fact, only two other items in our imports, sugar, $925,335, and tobacco, $1,068. These products are all agricultural, and are produced almost entirely by cheap imported Chinese or native labor. There are no opportunities for investment of any considerable amount of capital except in land suited for the production of these chief exports.

The conclusion is simple and obvious. It is that the only certain way of insuring a continuance of that rapid growth in our trade with Oceanica which the Administration in Washington notes with pride in its official report, will be to ship more troops to the Philippines. That will stimulate the export of beer, and incidentally of other commodities, too, and build up a trade which will require a larger army to protect it, and more beer and incidentals for the larger army *ad infinitum.* It is a novel and withal a costly way of inflating our foreign commerce—but what would the islands be worth without commerce? If the islanders themselves do not want our goods, we must send an army with an appetite for American drinks and incidentals, and then ship stuffs to satisfy that appetite. Incidentally, that will encourage our shipping as well as our breweries. The wonder is that our Government has delayed so long in adopting so simple an expedient for insuring to the United States a dominating and, if we may trust our war news, a lasting commercial supremacy in the Philippines.

THE BANKERS AT RICHMOND.

Ex-Senator Hill's remark, in his Elmira speech of September 25, that "the situation of the currency of the country," after the passage of the new finance bill, "was left substantially as it was before any such bill was enacted," is reinforced by similar statements in a very different quarter. The addresses delivered last week at the convention of the American Bankers' Association in Richmond uniformly touched on the lack of adequate protection for the gold standard under the act of March 14, and on the danger of intrusting to a hostile Executive the administration of that law. The act, as described by the President of the Association, "does not secure" the gold standard "against the policy of a President or Secretary of the Treasury hostile to gold." "It is an open secret," said the President of the Richmond Clearing-house, "that we are no more committed to a gold basis now than before the passage of the act." Both speakers plainly pointed out the responsibility of the Senate for this lack of proper safeguards. Their statements seem to have commanded the assent of the large and important body of bankers gathered in the convention, and they are substantially correct. That they are correct, reflects little credit on the Senate which, with an Administration majority, deliberately emasculated a House bill which would have provided proper guarantees. But the situation nevertheless remains such as to point out the unquestionable danger of committing to a chronic agitator against the gold standard the administration of this law.

The inadequacy of the so-called Gold Standard Act, which was first exposed by Professor Laughlin in the *Journal of Political Economy*, is now well understood by all persons who are capable of understanding the monetary discussions of the past twenty-five or thirty years. President Hill of the Bankers' Association at Richmond added to Professor Laughlin's paper a true statement of the obstacles which this defective measure puts in the way of our international trade. It is a fact, well known to bankers and to importers and exporters, that England has an advantage over all other countries as a centre of the world's exchanges by reason of the invariableness of her standard of value. Money from all parts of the world is deposited there because the depositors know exactly what they will receive when they draw for it. They know that it will be gold of a certain standard. They do not know this of any other country in which they might be inclined to make deposits. In France and Germany the banks have the right to pay in silver, and sometimes they exercise this right, putting the depositor to the inconvenience of selling the silver coin to brokers, or of paying a premium to the banks for gold. Consequently, when a foreign depositor makes his choice of a place of deposit for idle funds, he chooses London rather than Paris or Berlin. Although the chance of his being required to accept silver in Paris or Berlin is slight, and although the premium on gold in such a case is slight, he prefers not to run any risk, and he knows, too, that in case of a war between those countries the gold premium might rise disastrously. It follows that England has an advantage in international trade by reason of the fixedness of her standard. Her bankers get the handling of the world's exchanges, and reap the commissions which are paid therefor.

Mr. Hill, in the Richmond Convention, drew attention to this feature of our international trade, saying:

> "We need more than a knowledge of foreign peoples, their countries, commerce, and laws, if we are to dominate their trade and be their bankers. To do these things we need a currency of stable value. No one will buy drafts on us or deposit their money with us if these drafts and their credits represent doubtful and changing values, while a competitor nation offers a currency which does not shrink and is measured at all times by an unchanging standard. It is no answer to say that payment in gold, if that is the standard desired, can be secured by private contract. The very fact that it requires a special contract to secure it is a declaration that the general law does not afford the protection desired."

It is true that our Treasury has never failed to pay gold for any valid claim payable in dollars, but it is true also that we have been very near paying in silver several times since specie payments were resumed in 1879, and that great disturbance was caused thereby. All the turmoil and confusion of the years 1893-96 was the result of this danger. The nation paid heavily for its toying with silver in the Bland-Allison Act and in the Sherman Act, and it is not impossible that it may have to pay the same penalty again. It depends on circumstances whether we shall or shall not have to face the crisis hereafter.

Bad crops, slack business, and a lessened demand for currency for retail trade, which now absorbs the silver certificates, would certainly turn this kind of money into the public Treasury, and might, as it has done before, compel the Secretary to resort to his utmost legal powers to avert a panic and crisis. In this event it would be vastly important to have a Secretary of the Treasury who would use those powers to the end of maintaining the gold standard. The perception of this truth, which is making its way slowly but surely through business circles in all parts of the country, is undermining Mr. Bryan.

With the increasing public sense of the real nature of the situation, Mr. Bryan will hardly be left unchallenged as to his views and purposes in this regard when he begins his Eastern stumping tour. The candidate had nothing to say on the issue in accepting the Democratic nomination; but he was frank enough with the Populists, even to the extent of hinting at what might be done for the greenback circulation. Surely the people of New York have a right to hear something from him on the subject.

IMPERIALISM IN JAPAN.

The news from Japan that the Yamagata Ministry has resigned, and that the Mikado has appointed Marquis Ito Premier to form a new Cabinet, is of worldwide interest. The reason for recalling this statesman from his retirement, as frankly stated by the Emperor himself, is that affairs in China are entering upon the diplomatic stage, and that the guidance of Japan's interests in the settlement must be intrusted to competent and skilled hands. The Marquis is not only the most accomplished statesman of the Orient, and easily a match, in his grasp of the problems involved, for any representative of a European Power whom he may encounter, but he is also the man who has the fullest confidence alike of the Mikado, of all the principal political parties in his country, and of the nation at large.

The occasion suggests an inquiry as to the intent of the Japanese Government, and of the nation which it well represents, respecting the great questions at issue in the Far East. Such an investigation is not easy, and the problem may seem almost insoluble to one who is not acquainted with the mental constitution and habits of the Japanese. For there are wheels within wheels, currents and cross-currents, main issues and side issues, and issues seemingly subordinate and yet really powerful in Japanese politics; and the changes in the direction of the resultant of all these forces are often bewilderingly rapid and surprising to the outside observer.

There exist, however, in Japan, deep and strong currents of opinion which dominate all the other drifts of sentiment and streams of influence. It is these which are determining the larger destiny of this interesting and gifted people, and which, when two of them run counter to each other, require such a practical adjustment of the forces represented by both as shall carry with it the sentiments and endeavors of the whole nation. Before the changes introduced through the war with China, such currents had been set in motion by the question of Imperialism internally considered—that is, as an affair of the government of the Japanese people within their own empire. Shall the Constitution, which was theoretically the gracious gift of his Majesty to his subjects, be practically interpreted according to the German type of monarchy, or according to the English? More particularly, Shall the Ministry be unqualifiedly responsible to the Emperor, as his creation; or shall it, at least in some respects and in some clearly recognized fashion, be responsible to the people, acting through their hereditary or selected representatives?

Formerly the practical solution of this question determined largely—perhaps chiefly—the forming and the dissolution of Parliament, and the making and the breaking of alliances among the different political parties. Of late, however, this has been overshadowed by the question of Imperialism externally considered—that is, not only the maintenance, but also the extension, of the influence of the nation abroad. How shall Japan assert and maintain its claim to be considered a first-class and a growing empire among the other Powers operating in the Eastern world?

To understand the problem before the Japanese Government under the premiership of Marquis Ito, something must be known regarding the present condition and relations of the great political parties. There are three of them, no one of which has the numbers or strength to stand alone, and their relations are such that the Government must always be supported by two of the three to carry its measures. Under the Yamagata Ministry, two of these parties were united in the general policy of making Japan strong in its army and navy, in order that it might the more successfully pursue an Imperialistic policy in its relations with foreign nations. The other party, the Liberal, whose leader has been Count Okuma, and which stands rather for moderation in military expenses and internal development, has for some time exercised comparatively little influence. The new Premier will undoubtedly do his utmost to secure the legitimate fruits of the recent expensive efforts of the Japanese Government to extend the power of the empire, while he notoriously defends the more pronounced Imperialistic method of interpreting the Constitution for purposes of internal control and development.

What, then, has the world to expect, if not to fear, from this strengthening of Imperialism by the entrance of Japan into the ranks of the nations that are of the first class for purposes of foreign influence, or even of domination and conquest? Certain Paris papers have tried to excite the fears of their readers—presumably in the interest of Russia—by vividly picturing the results which will follow when, with China civilized and armed with modern weapons, Japan shall lead the combined yellow hosts to overrun again the domains of Asia and of Europe. Nothing could be more absurd. Japan is no more likely to take the lead of a modernized China in any such direction than is England, having first of all armed and drilled the millions of India, to lead them against Asiatic and European Russia.

To understand the real purposes of the guiding minds among the Japanese governing classes, even of those who support the policy of Imperialism, one must have a more sympathetic, appreciative, and just insight into the peculiarities of Japanese character. The spirit and aim with which these leaders undertook the war with China furnishes an illustration in point. It was their contention that the Japanese had no hatred of China, and no wish to conquer and overrun China simply for the sake of enlarging their own empire; that they only wished China to be awakened and prepared, by the adoption of modern methods and resources, to join Japan in preventing the Oriental races, with their characteristic civilization, from being dominated, overrun, and eventually extinguished by the Occidental. Their effort, if we take their word for it, was directed toward both the self-preservation of Japan and the improvement of China; in other words, it was at once self-interested and benevolent.

Sentimental, and even intrinsically improbable, such claims will seem to most people in this part of the world, but the fact that they were seriously put forth is of the first importance in any analysis of the Japanese character and of the situation in the East to-day. Moreover, the theory will not be discredited in wholesale fashion by any one who has sympathetic and intelligent knowledge of the Japanese. Nor do the excesses which were connected with the attempt to carry out this ostensibly beneficent design by any means so much discredit its sincerity as does the atrocious conduct, in certain instances, of our own troops in the Philippine Islands, or of the British troops in South Africa, impugn the sincerity of the claims of their Governments. Indeed, what can be said by the United States, or by England, against the Japanese form of Imperialism, as Marquis Ito, supported by the Emperor, by the parties now in the majority, and by the whole body of the people, will no doubt endeavor to carry it out? If the Anglo-Saxon race may properly seek to dominate the world, why may not the races of the Orient, in their turn, seek to develop themselves so that they may become secure against such domination; and why may they not adopt such measures as they maintain are best calculated to bring about a result which seems to them in the best interest of the human race?

POLITICAL TENACITY.

There is no question that, when you have two candidates in the field neither of whom you consider fit for the Presidency, the natural, human, business-like thing to do is to choose some one else. The assertion that no one else is possible, and that if you don't like Bryan, for instance, you must have McKinley, and that if you don't like McKinley, you must have Bryan, is such an awful confession of the failure of the democratic system that but few men should like to make it. And yet it is what a great many decent supporters of McKinley say.

I was talking to one the other day who furnished a terrible list of objections to McKinley and an equally strong list of objections to Bryan. I thought, as a conclusion, he would say, as a good business man, that he would vote for neither of them. But, to my astonishment, he announced to me that, in spite of all these reasons, he was going to vote for McKinley. I was amused by this, because the reasons given against the selection of Bryan were exactly like those given against the selection of McKinley four years ago. Within those four years, however, the objections to McKinley have gained strength, because he has shown in actual practice what kind of President he makes. The objections to Bryan, on the other hand, still remain possibilities, or presumptions. He will not have an opportunity to catch up with McKinley in "unfitness" without getting into the Presidential chair. At present, Bryan's unfitness is *in posse*, while McKinley's is *in esse*.

My friend, who is a man who has played a leading part in the world in his day, gave me, as what seemed a ludicrous reason for not attempting to do anything else, the fact that the people were so "apathetic." I am concerned in this matter not so much for the triumph of either candidate as for the preservation of the national reputation for rationality as well as humor. One of the virtues of democracy hitherto has been supposed to be the capacity for choosing good candidates for its highest offices, if it so pleases. But there is not, even in an hereditary monarchy, a more absurd provision than that, if you cannot choose a candidate whom you acknowledge to be very bad, you must choose one who is also bad, but not quite so bad. The introduction of such a view into the management of the affairs of a private business concern would be a very direct admission, in the eyes of the world, that the concern was near its end.

I have not seen, as yet, an out-and-out defence of McKinley's career by anybody who thoroughly approved of his policy, except by extremists like Roosevelt or Beveridge. What McKinley's defenders say, as far as my knowledge goes, is that if you do not elect him, you cannot elect anybody else—a very comical *impasse* for a great people.

During the McKinley canvass, four years ago, I received a visit from a German publicist, then on a visit to this country. He had just been passing two hours with McKinley at his home in Canton. I asked him what impression McKinley had made on him. The impression, he said, of the young man who, being asked whether he played the piano, replied that "he did not know, for he had never tried." The answer to this which McKinley's friends make for him, is that no matter how many bad things he has done, stocks will fall 50 per cent. if he is not elected again.

I confess I do not greatly care which is elected, so sure am I that things will go on under Bryan, if it be Bryan, very much as they go on under McKinley to-day. I think the people will put up with from Bryan very much what they put up with from McKinley. There is no denying that McKinley has committed a class of faults unknown to former Presidents. He has disregarded the Constitution by annexing foreign provinces without the authority of law. He has employed 65,000 Americans to massacre foreigners who had done him no injury, and to destroy their homes. He has declared war, without notice, upon a friendly people, to whom he had first promised peace and coöperation. He has allowed his subordinate officers to denounce the organic law which created them, as worn-out and of no effect. He has, in fact, done all the things which usually precede a *coup d'état*, whether under Julius Cæsar or Louis Napoleon, and, what is unheard of in history, he has secured a Congress in connivance with him. I consider any man who has not done these things as more fit for the Presidency than McKinley, even if that other man were considered capable of doing them.

To tell me that such a man as McKinley is fit for the Presidency because his non-election will cause a fall of stocks, strikes me as ludicrous. This might be considered a sufficient answer for a broker, but I hope for a broker only. Among free and self-governing people it ought to excite a smile. It is the old argument by which Napoleon the Third justified his *coup d'état*. What he said was, that he must be Emperor, must kill those who opposed him, and must put an end to the Republic, or stocks would fall heavily. This is exactly the McKinley argument. There is not one unconstitutional act committed by McKinley, the omission of which would have imperilled the happiness of a single American citizen. If he had court-martialled Otis and Merritt, who have been abusing the Constitution and justifying his own violation of it, it would have secured us the respect of foreign nations, and continued the stability of our power, without the loss of a single life. The permission accorded to his military officers to decry the form of government to which they owe their existence, strikes me as one of the silliest things in his career. The proposal to give a man who is elected to the highest office in the state once in four years authority to decide when he will obey the Constitution and when he will not, to annex provinces when he pleases by simple proclamation, and to make treaties of peace through his creatures, seems to me one of the craziest propositions in history. To decide upon the propriety of this, one does not need to prefer either McKinley or Bryan. Great nations do not compose their state papers while hanging over a stock-exchange ticker.

E. L. G.

UP THE YENISEI.

KRASNOYARSK, September 7, 1900.

The great Siberian Railway crosses the Yenisei at Krasnoyarsk, where a Russian fort was established early in the seventeenth century, and has now grown up an attractive city of about 20,000 inhabitants. Commodious steamers ascend the river from this point to Minusinsk, a distance, in a straight line, of about 200 miles, but of 300 as the stream runs. It was our intention to proceed farther up the river to the gorge through which it descends from the high Mongolian plateau; but the Chinese war extends its baleful influence to the farthest bounds of the Empire, and so sets in commotion the frontier tribes of this region that it is not safe to venture among them. We are, however, amply repaid for our trip, both by the beauty and grandeur of the scenery along the river, and by the interesting things connected with Minusinsk, and the district of which it is the capital.

At Krasnoyarsk, the Yenisei is about the size of the Mississippi above its junction with the Missouri; but in its downward course it has come through very different scenery. For the first seventy-five miles of the ascent the steamer winds its way against a stiff current, through the tortuous channel cut by the river across a low mountain range running nearly parallel with the edge of the Mongolian plateau, *i. e.*, southwest and northeast. The rocks are largely limestone and slate, of Silurian age, intersected by numerous dykes of volcanic material. The valley of the river is here narrow, with no flood-plains and consequently no settlements. The mountain tops rise from 1,000 to 2,000 feet above the river, and are clothed, for the most part, with forests of birch, larch, and hard pine. The strata are much contorted, and often present precipitous cliffs several hundred feet in height, and worn into striking and fantastic forms. Variety is added to the scene by the numerous rafts one is sure to meet at this time of the year, bringing the produce of the upper country down to the larger markets below. Several of these were loaded with watermelons, while others were sinking below the water-level under the burden of hay which was stacked upon them.

These indications of a fruitful region further up the stream were at length amply verified by our entrance into a rapidly opening country of plains and low hills, which everywhere bore marks of cultivation, and in which flourishing villages made their appearance on every side. The river grew broader, occasionally being two miles wide and full of islands covered with rich verdure. Still, the great blocks into which the highly colored sedimentary strata had been thrown by the upheaval of the neighboring mountains, and the distant mountain peaks themselves, gave marvellous variety and beauty to the scene. Nowhere is there monotony.

Near the city of Minusinsk two small rivers, the Tuba and the Abakan, join the main stream, occupying in the lower part of their courses an irregularly shaped area of comparatively level and very fertile land, about one hundred miles in diameter. This area is devoid of forests, and constitutes what is called in this region a "steppe." The rainfall is slightly insufficient, but not so much so as to prevent rich harvests in the valleys, or successful cultivation of the hill slopes; while nutritious grasses grow freely everywhere, giving support to a large number of cattle, horses, and sheep. Notwithstanding the high northern latitude (54 degrees), the snowfall is so slight in winter that the stock procures food in the fields the entire year around. Owing to the fertility of the soil, the clearness of the skies, and the beauty of the scenery, the Minusinsk district is called the "Italy" of Siberia; and, notwithstanding its secluded position, it has been occupied by a highly civilized population from the earliest periods of history. A striking evidence of the truth of this statement exists in the admirable Museum with which the city of Minusinsk is provided through the enterprise and generosity of one of its leading but most modest citizens, Mr. N. M. Martianoff, who, in 1887, erected a commodious two-story fireproof building to hold the large number of objects of local interest which were accumulating on his hands. This is now filled with more than 50,000 specimens, scientifically classified and arranged for the inspection of the public. With the exception of a small but excellent pedagogical section, the Museum is entirely devoted to the collection and preservation of objects from the vicinity of Minusinsk. The rich mining region in the neighborhood supplies a remarkable variety of ores and minerals, while the extensive Silurian, Devonian, Carboniferous, and Jurassic strata of the vicinity furnish a very complete set of fossils for those portions of the geologic record. The flora of the region is also one of the richest in the world. This is represented in the Museum by about 800 flowering and as many cryptogamic species of plants; while, of the lower fungi, 1,300 species have been collected, 124 of which, and, perhaps, more, are new.

But to the ordinary visitor the archæological and anthropological collections are of greatest interest. Indeed, so important are these that the societies at Stockholm and Moscow have published elaborate monographs upon them. The palæolithic age is but slightly and doubtfully represented in the collection. The neolithic age is, however, quite fully and certainly represented by a variety of implements and some pottery which reminds one of the collections of Indian relics in America. But it is in the relics of the bronze age and of its transition into the iron age that the Museum can specially glory. These have been collected from the mounds and burial-places by the thousand. They consist of swords, knives, daggers, axes, and ornaments of various kinds, all showing great skill in their manufacture and much taste in their design. Among the daggers are some with iron handles and bronze blades, and others with bronze handles and iron blades. Among the objects disinterred are several silver medallions, of the Han dynasty, in China, which must be more than 4,000 years old. These, with various other things, indicate a Chinese occupancy at that early day. There are evidences, also, that even then the iron and copper mines of the region were worked. Some of the crucibles of that time are on exhibition in the Museum. There are also various early inscriptions of uncertain significance, but evidently in aphabetical characters, gathered from the burial-places and ruined shrines. The post-pliocene deposits, too, have yielded abundant relics of the mammoth, the rhinoceros, and the gigantic elk that occupied the region during the palæolithic age.

Altogether the Museum is one of the most interesting to be found anywhere in the world, and it sheds a flood of light on the bright side of life in Siberia. All the larger towns of Siberia are supplied with museums which, by their appearance, bear witness not only to the high intelligence of their founders, but to the appreciation of the general public. Already the large room in which is collected the excellent library of this museum is overcrowded with books, and a commodious fireproof library building is nearly completed on a lot adjoining. All this in a secluded town three hundred miles from the main line of Siberian travel. In Yeneseisk, the exiles have established a museum which is not only a credit to the town, but a striking commentary upon many of the exaggerated stories concerning the general hardships of the Russian exile system.

The fertility of the soil and the delightfulness of the climate in the vicinity of Minusinsk must always make it attractive to the resident population. For many years, also, there have been added the attractions of the mining regions in the surrounding mountains, from which large quantities of gold have been taken. This has, however, so far, been found in paying quantities only in placer mines. The quartz mines in which the gold was originally contained seem to be individually so thin that it is not profitable to work them artificially. But where the disintegrating processes of nature have been at work upon the mountains for so many ages, the gold of an immense mass of metalliferous rock has accumulated in placers which are occasionally very rich. So much of the almost inaccessible country is still unexplored that the discovery of new deposits is likely to continue the supply of gold for a long time in the future. Several isolated lakes in the region furnish a supply of salt both for home consumption and for export. Recently, also, the water of one of them has been found to have special medicinal value, and this season thousands from all over Siberia gathered there during July and August to experience its benefits. A slight amount of arsenic is found to be one of the constituents of the water.

At one point on the way to Minusinsk the Tchulym, a navigable tributary of the Obi, approaches to within six miles of the Yenisei, and offers [illegible] portage from one river basin to [illegible] the other. The construction of a canal across has often been talked of, but a difference of elevation of 440 feet renders the project impracticable. This, however, illustrates how the remarkable river systems both of Russia and of Siberia are connected together, thus accounting in no small degree for the remarkable unity of the Empire. With only short portages one can go by water from the Danube to the mouth of the Lena and to the Sea of Okhotsk. About 200 miles below Krasnoyarsk, the Ket, a navigable tributary of the Obi, bends so near the Kas, a short tributary of the Yenisei, that small cargoes have actually passed, without breaking bulk, from one river system to the other. The attempt, however, to maintain continuous navigation through the Kara Sea and up the Yenisei has been definitively discontinued. The ice barrier is too formidable to be regularly overcome. But the trans-Siberian Railway renders that route superfluous, and brings to the tourist, among others, easy access to one of the most interesting regions and pleasant summer resorts of the world.

G. FREDERICK WRIGHT.

ENGLISH COUNTRY LIFE.

DEEPDENE, FRIMLEY GREEN, ENG.,
August 27, 1900.

As the beauty of English landscape is in its most quiet and rural scenes, and the substance of the nation in the classes which live in the country, so the charm of English life is in that which one meets and enters into with the people whose permanent existence is in their country houses. The wealthier and the aristocracy, who have their houses in London, and go down only for the shooting and hunting seasons, and who take the country as a change from, or alternative to, the excitement of city and court life, do not interest me; their pursuits and their pleasures do not chime with philosophy or the fruits of serene thought, and if by chance I have passed the "Saturday to Monday" in one of their houses, there was no residuum of satisfaction in the memory of it. The class of English people who cultivate the "Saturday to Monday" worship is large, and in some cases most interesting as examples of varied culture and of the art of displaying it in society; but the worshippers in it are social decorations rather than useful members of society, and, with a single exception, are to me bores. People who are all accomplishments are like those pseudo-fruit trees, the double-flowering kind, like the "flowering cherry," apple, etc., good to put in a hedge for the public enjoyment, but useless to the individual; the results of a one-sided culture that leaves no seed in the plant.

But to the passing foreigner, intent on knowing what the English are, the "Saturday to Monday" institution is indispensable as a branch of the school for studying the social condition. One meets everybody, or at least a little of every kind that enters into society properly speaking, and in certain houses you will see much of what is most notable in England; but the cult is kept up only in houses of a certain importance and magnitude, for to entertain even half-a-dozen people besides one's own retinue and belongings requires a large house and a great staff of servants. Even there the hospitality is [illegible] on the impulsive and often ostentatious [illegible] one meets with in America; there is always a certain measure and reticence of private initiative—you are a guest with reserved rights, and not the captive of the bow and spear of your host. I remember Tom Hughes's expression of surprise, after a visit to Naushon, at his not being allowed to pay for his postage stamps while there, as if the triviality of a few pence was, on account of the form it took, viz., that of a tax payable to the Government, to be regarded on quite other grounds than other expenses incurred for the guest. It was evident that he thought it something of an indignity, or a declaration of insolvency on his part. I have noticed in England a similar reserve in regard to trivial expenses, as when, on a walk with an artist friend, I had invited him to take a glass of beer at a wayside inn, and he insisted, *with a certain amour propre*, on paying *for his own drink*.

I like the English form better than the exuberance of our hospitality, but there is one usage inseparable from it which, I must frankly say, revolts me. That is the custom of "tipping" the servants of your host when you leave—a custom so rigid that amongst Englishmen there is a sort of tariff recognized: so much to the butler, so much to the chambermaid, etc.; and the difficulty and perplexity which arises for one who does not know the tariff, is such that I have renounced staying at the houses even of my most intimate friends, and abjure the "Saturday to Monday" worship entirely. I suppose that when my modest cottage is honored by the presence of an English friend, he, or especially she, insists on giving my servants the usual tip, but it is to me a humiliation, and I have long contemplated putting up a notice in the spare bedroom to request the guests not to tip my servants; and, to content the maids, to establish a tariff of my own for the services they are called on to perform beyond those of our regular routine, to be added to their wages at the end of the month. But a step of this kind, in so conservative a community as ours, would be so grave an infringement of usage that I have never had the courage to take it, the more that I am very doubtful if my guests would pay any attention to the injunction. I have visited (only once) in a great house, the seat of one of the most munificent and generous men I knew in past days in England, and when I left in the morning found the servants in a line at the front door behind my host, to receive their tips, a half-sovereign each. I felt a spasm of momentary mortification, imagining the case to be mine at the other end of the stick. In the days when I shot and fished, I was obliged to refuse all invitations to throw a fly or bring down a partridge because I could not afford the tip which many an Englishman, as poor as I, pays, not to be excluded from the social world which is to him so important. One of them told me of the way it works with such, in a day's partridge-shooting on well-kept preserves. At the end of it, when the shooters and game-keepers mustered in the great hall, he offered the head keeper two sovereigns. The keeper drew back with dignity, saying, "We do not take anything but paper here, sir." "Then probably the underkeeper will take it," the guest replied, handing the money with the word to that official, who did not refuse it. The Marquis of X. once offered me his trout stream, a famous preserved water, which I declined, as I knew that a satisfactory day's fishing on it would cost me at least a £10 note. I have renounced, "for good and all," the murder of my fellow-creatures, but if I wanted to catch a trout I should find it cheaper to go to Switzerland to do it than to try a preserved stream in England.

Perhaps the custom is a useful check on hospitality, for there is no other that I can see to the Englishman's open-housedness, once you are presented with a proper recommendation. Coming into this neighborhood, where I had no acquaintance, and without a letter to any one, we received, with the earliest knowledge of my occupation of a house in the section, the visits of every gentleman and lady residing within several miles of the place—a formal and stately welcome to the community. This is the obligation of English hospitality, unlike that in use on the Continent, where the new-comer is expected to make the first visit and take all the difficulties of the entry into society without the assistance of the resident. Italy was a civilized land when England was yet in barbarism, but I doubt not that the Englishman of A. D. 1000 was a hospitable man, for the usage is bred in the bone, while the Italian, excepting where there has been intermarriage with English people or residence in England, is an extremely inhospitable one. I have lived in Italy many years and have a host of Italian friends, some of them very warm ones, but, except where English influence has reached, I have never been invited to dine or pass the night in an Italian house. It is the same in Greece. But in rural England there is really a great embarrassment for a busy man, especially when his strength is foregathering, in the grave cordiality of his neighbors; and to respond adequately to all the courtesies I receive, I should be obliged to make it my occupation. I keep no carriage; the neighbor who has one even offers to send it to bring me, when there is much walking to be implied in the acceptance of his invitation—and we live far apart, for the Englishman, differing from most Continentals, likes room, and hates the huddling which is, to the Italian and Frenchman, safety and consolation even for a poor estate.

The commercial economical organization of this state of society is noteworthy, and I doubt if there is in America anything to correspond, as there is probably nothing to correspond to the state of the social drift. For this scattered community, the individuals of which reside over an extensive country, not more than one of its members (who enter into society) to a quarter of a square mile, perhaps, and which, it might be supposed, would find difficulties in the commissariat, there is a corresponding organization of shops of all kinds. The butcher, the baker, the grocer, and, except in very warm weather, even the fishmonger, pervade the district with their rapid carts, each day taking the orders for the next day; and, with no more trouble than those in the cities have, we get our supplies, not, it is true, with all the variety in choice the citizen has, but so complete that no one need repine at the deficiencies; and to this is added the service of the parcels-post, rapid and liberal. For instance, we receive this morning a supply of fruit from the Isle of Wight, gathered yesterday and delivered before breakfast. On stated days we may have a hamper of fish, direct from the nets, perhaps a brace of grouse from a friend on the moors, or, in a few days, a couple of partridges from another who has had a good day's shooting, so that in all material comforts we lack nothing. And then we have the pure air, the walks in the open country, and the silence, and as much seclusion as our philosophy demands. There are rare dinner parties (to which I never go), more often a quiet lunch where one may meet the most congenial of our neighbors, but very commonly the five o'clock tea, which here shows its veritable *raison d'être*, for in the city it is a solemn bore. I know no position where so large a balance to the credit of the rational life is given as in this. I have left out of consideration here the lower classes of the country population, but it is only for another letter.

Among those who do not know him, the

Englishman has the reputation of a cold and selfish man, but that is the shell. The hard workers in all humanitarian movements one meets in unobtrusive ways in this country population, especially among the women, make one love the people in proportion as one knows them.

W. J. STILLMAN.

Correspondence.

IMPERIALISM EXPOUNDED.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Is not the position of the babblers of Empire and Destiny exactly described in the following?

> "'Well, Sir,' quoth the Squire, 'since it is absolutely necessary, for the gaining of Kingdoms, to Murther that poor Melon Keeper, I'le oppose it no longer. You may e'en put your Hand to the Plow. Since I am among Wolves, I must howl as well as they. It is true that Orlando has done us no wrong; but why should he stand in our way? When it Rains, unhappy they who stand under the Spouts." (Avellaneda's 'Continuation of Don Quixote,' Stevens's translation, p. 44-5.)—Respectfully,

ALFALES YOUNG.

SALT LAKE CITY, October 3, 1900.

THE APPEAL OF THE DUTCH PROFESSORS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you allow me to comment upon the letter of Prof. de Sumichrast in your issue of May 31, with regard to the appeal of the Dutch professors to their American colleagues? Prof. de Sumichrast says that the Declaration of Independence is the worst thing the professors could quote, because the Boer Grondwet allows no equality between colored and white. But did the colored people in America have equal rights at the time of the Declaration? No; for years afterwards slavery still existed. Had the Americans, therefore, no right to independence and to their Declaration? How can equal rights be granted to mostly still barbaric folks, while the population stands as about 100,000 Boers against a million of blacks?

The Boers are, however, not unconcerned about the natives. In 1890 the Reformed Church had twenty-eight missionaries among them. A German missionary relates how Gen. Joubert, visiting his station, expressed his joy to find himself among Christian Kaffirs, worshipping the same God as his people. The fact is, that the Boer legislation secures a better treatment to the Kaffirs than the laws in the British colonies in South Africa. It is stated in the London *Morning Leader* that in Natal the corvée system exists, by which natives may be compelled to work on the roads six months out of twelve. The treatment of the natives working under the compound system in Kimberley, as described by Cronwright Schreiner, is dreadful—slavery in the worst sense. Under the Boer Government the Kaffirs were not compelled to work, and earned, as did the Uitlanders in Johannesburg, high wages. The benefit of British occupation is shown best in what Major R. White writes in a letter to the *Daily Telegraph*, completed by a telegram from Pretoria September 3:

> "The Imperial Government is at present paying native workmen at the rate of £1 10s. a month, and the mines are paying the same, as compared with £3 a month before the war. It is suggested that the native Labor Departments should be reconstructed under Government control, in order to induce the East Coast and other natives to return to the Rand."

In Boissevain's 'Struggle of the Dutch Republics' several statements by English authorities bear testimony to these facts.

As to the franchise, the Volksraad passed a law that full franchise could be obtained after seven years' residence, the law being even retrospective; the republic offered to make it five years if England would abstain in future from mixing in its internal affairs and agree to arbitration. But England would not. In Belgium the period for residence is fifteen years for unmarried, ten years for married men; in Austria ten years. The English naturalization act of 1870 decrees that the Secretary of State, after a five-years' residence, can grant or refuse naturalization, without giving reasons; his decision to be without appeal. Fancy such a law in a state which England wanted!

The alleged oppression of the Uitlanders was, for England, only the means to the end; as is illustrated by the fact that so many of the non-British Uitlanders defended with their lives that oppressive Government. According to many English and American correspondents, the humane behavior of the Boers contrasts favorably with that of the British, who, under Roberts, are now establishing a reign of terror in the Republics, burning the houses *because* the men are on commando, and declaring men rebels who are fighting for and sacrificing so much for their country. In the *Morning Leader* of last week appeared the following letter written by Private F. Bonsor to his wife:

> "Of course, all farms and houses on our way are looted, burned down, and destroyed. It looks an awful shame, and the scenes are simply sickening at times, when some poor women try hard to save something for themselves and their children; but we cannot pass over the fact that their husbands, fathers, and sons are all away, fighting against us, and are the men who are dealing death among us day after day. It really looks terrible when, glancing back on the way, you see smoke and flames all along the sky-line, and shadows of women and kids running about trying to save something."

One of the English war-cries is that the Boers are averse to their civilization. At the Paris Exposition the S. A. Republic received the grand prize, highest award, for primary and secondary education.

Benjamin Franklin's words, "There never was a country so much and so long persecuted with vehement and malicious abuse," are again true in the case of the Boer Republics. I may quote the following from Prof. Theodor Mommsen as a specimen of European opinion:

> "This war is not only, as every war is, a calamity, but also an infamy. The repetition of Jameson's raid by the English Government (I won't say by the English nation), dictated by banking and mining speculations, is the revelation of your moral and political weakness. If there still remained in England some wisdom and some patriotism, it would send Mr. Chamberlain to Coventry to elaborate there his three-cousin system, and accord to a wronged people not only the peace but the full sovereignty they have a right to. This is certainly not businesslike, but it would be a moral victory effacing every military defeat."

Though their outlook is dark just now, God and their right are with them, and they trust to win, be it that the war lasts seven years, as it did in the case of America, or as with Holland.—Yours truly, A. SWETS.

OXFORD, ENGLAND, September 23, 1900.

TOLSTOI MALTREATED.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have not yet seen, in any review of Tolstoi's 'Resurrection,' anything like an ample tribute to the exceedingly bad character of the translation presented by the American publishers. Whatever may be the literary qualities of the original work, they cannot be other than misjudged in a form which demonstrates that the translator, if versed in the Russian language, knows little of English.

What shall we say of the statement that "the prisoners washed, dressed, and came out for *revision*"? or the felicitous remark of one of the characters, in reference to a deceased friend—"I have been so bountifully treated by *the dear defunct*"? To another class belongs a great number of cases where the translation, if in correct English, is yet so clumsily literal as—probably—to misrepresent the effect of the original. Tolstoi's remarkable collocations of adjectives, for example, should be modified by a friendly translator, so as to preserve us from such statements as this:

> "The strong handsome Philip . . . went on quietly carrying out the orders of the worn, weak, false Sophia Vasilievna."

The most noteworthy of these infelicities is the "squint" which characterizes the eyes of the heroine. Even though Tolstoi's idea of feminine beauty should be as revolutionary as his more familiar heresies, it is unlikely that the word translated "squint" was intended to convey the impression that it does in English. At any rate, to be told in a moment of profound emotional significance that "she looked at him with those unfathomable, squinting eyes of hers," is incontestably bathetic.

We are the less surprised that the American publishers should have let this translation go without revision, when we see how they have let it be printed. Abbreviations and Arabic numerals attract the eye at almost any first glance at the book, in places from which they are debarred by polite printing. It may be unreasonable to object to such labor-saving devices, but until we become more familiar with them their suggestiveness is most unliterary. Examples are the following:

> "She was already 27, and he was hardly her first love."
>
> "Moved his arms 20 times."
>
> "This understanding of him, *i. e.*, the recognition of his superior merits."

One is inclined to wonder, after this, whether we may expect from Messrs. Dodd, Mead & Co. an edition of Tennyson printed in this fashion:

"½ lea., ½ lea.,
½ lea. onward,
Into the valley of death
Rode the 600."

R. M. A.

UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA.

CELTIC CHAIRS IN BRITAIN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your review of 'The Welsh People,' by Professor Rhŷs of Oxford (p. 214

of your No. 1837), the reviewer refers to the author as "the occupant of the one chair of Celtic in a British university." A chair of "Celtic languages, history, literature, and antiquities" was founded in Edinburgh University in 1882, and, as late as 1899 at least, was occupied by Prof. D. Mackinnon. Has it gone out of existence? A SCOT ABROAD.

September 23, 1900.

[We stand corrected; the subject of the book under review did not remind us of Professor Mackinnon's Gaelic researches. It is possible also that one or more of the lecturers on Celtic in the recently created Welsh colleges may bear the professorial title.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

From John Lane's autumn list we select 'The Later Work of Aubrey Beardsley,' with upwards of 170 designs; 'A Guide to the Study of Bookplates,' by J. B. Leicester Warren (Lord de Tabley); 'Old London,' a series of lithographically illustrated volumes of scenes and places; 'Architectural Remains of Old Richmond, Petersham, Twickenham, Mortlake, and Kew,' drawn in lithography by T. R. Way; 'An Illustrated Historical Handbook to the Parish of Chelsea,' by Reginald Blunt; 'The Birds of My Parish,' by Evelyn H. Pollard; 'John Oliver Hobbes Birthday-Book,' arranged by Zoe Proctor; 'Sleeping Beauty, and Other Prose Fancies,' by Richard Le Gallienne; 'Tchaikovsky,' a critical study and biography, by Rosa Newmarch; W. H. Mallock's experimental 'Lucretius on Life and Death, in the Metre of Omar Khayyâm'; 'The Professor, and Other Poems,' by Arthur Christopher Benson; Borrow's Works in five volumes; and Helps's 'History of the Spanish Conquest of America.'

Funk & Wagnalls will publish 'Forward Movements of the Last Half-Century,' by Arthur T. Pierson, D.D.

The Craftsman's Guild, Boston, reverts to a species of "block-books," in two hand-lettered volumes, 'Gray's Elegy,' and 'Two Lyrics,' by Father Tabb. Mr. Herbert Greyson does the lettering in the former case, and Mr. T. B. Hapgood, jr., in the latter, in mediæval fashion, with borders, initial letters, etc., to match. Miss Emile Marthecia Whitten will illuminate the Elegy. In both, burnished gold-leaf will be employed.

A. C. Armstrong & Son announce the second volume of Dr. George Matheson's 'Studies of the Portrait of Christ,' and 'The Minor Writings of Charles Dickens: A Bibliography and Sketch,' by F. G. Kitton.

The Dent-Macmillan "Temple Classics" maintain a reputation for entering the untrodden ways of literature in including a translation of the 'Romance of the Rose' in the series. The translator, Mr. F. S. Ellis, known favorably from his modernizations of 'Reynard the Fox' and the 'Golden Legend,' indicates the significance of the work in a prologue. Of this, it is sufficient to say that the thirteenth-century poem of the Frenchmen Guillaume de Lorris and Jean de Meun perhaps more fully represents the code of courtly love and the social and political ideas of the later Middle Ages than any other single work. The curious in these matters will find its reading in Mr. Ellis's version not only profitable, but entertaining. Except for the fragmentary translation attributed in part to Chaucer, Mr. Ellis has had no predecessors in his task, although critics have necessarily occupied themselves with a poem which so profoundly influenced English literature. The present version will be acceptable to the increasing number who are interested in the history of literature.

From the Thomas Y. Crowell Co. comes 'The Complete Works of Geoffrey Chaucer' in two volumes. The work has a judicious introduction by Professor Lounsbury; otherwise it is hard to see the place this new edition is to fill. The text, unless every indication deceives, is that of Skeat's 'Chaucer,' from which the facsimiles of MSS. obviously come, while the two volumes are each nearly as bulky as the one-volume Clarendon Press edition, with no corresponding gain in typography. We still lack a reader's Chaucer, and that publisher who should have the courage to omit all the prose, reprinting, with a minimum of annotation, a good text of the poetical works in three or four handy volumes, would be certain of his reward.

Uniform in size with the foregoing and with the same ornamental binding is an edition of Burns bearing the same imprint. And the industry of Messrs. Crowell is further evidenced by a little volume of selected 'Literary Essays by Thomas Babington Macaulay,' edited by George A. Watrous, and by three of Dumas's novels in bright attire, viz., 'Forty-five Guardsmen,' 'Marguerite de Valois,' and 'La Dame de Monsoreau.' None of these call for any special comment. The Dumas series is illustrated by Frank T. Merrill.

We have already noticed the extraordinary version of Rabelais by Sir Thomas Urquhart, republished in the beautiful series of "Tudor Translations" (London: David Nutt), and have now before us the final volume containing the fourth and fifth books, put into English by Peter le Motteux. Urquhart, so far as he can be classed at all, was a belated Elizabethan, and never drops his personal dignity and high seriousness even in the wildest extravaganzas of his author. Motteux belonged to the group of recalcitrants, or literary libertines, of the eighteenth century, who registered their protest against the classic and Addisonian style by flippancy, pertness, and vulgarity. Motteux, however, is by no means a bad translator. He understands his author's language better than Urquhart did, being a Frenchman born and bred, of old Huguenot stock, and he has mastered vernacular and idiomatic English as scarce any one not born to the tongue has done. Although he is too often silly and pert where Urquhart would have been grave, and offensive where Urquhart would have been only astonishing, yet the editor (Mr. Whibley) may be right when he says that this version of the fourth and fifth books "will represent Rabelais in English for all time."

The second edition of Oscar Moll's 'European Health and Pleasure Resorts' (Cologne: M. Du Mont Schauberg) is fullest in the case of Great Britain and Ireland, which occupy half the volume, with Germany, France, Holland, and Switzerland next in order at a long interval. The information, however unequally allotted, is very useful, particularly the tables of health resorts under each country (but in France Mont-Dore should not have been printed "Mont-Doré"). At the end will be found a tourists' telegraphic cable code, a dictionary of phrases, and a folded map of "monumental Paris," a combination of plan and bird's-eye view well calculated to aid in the search for public buildings and to give a clear idea of the location of the suburbs. There is a certain number of good illustrations.

The Gildersleeve-Lodge Latin Series (University Publishing Co.) adds a new volume on 'The Roman Elegiac Poets,' edited by Professor Carter of Princeton. The text comprises about thirty pages of Tibullus, sixty-five of Propertius, and twenty-five of Ovid. The introduction, while dealing more fully with these three authors, sketches briefly but carefully the whole history of the elegy as a form of Roman verse. The editor sides with the current reaction against explaining everything in Roman art or literature as an echo from the Greek. The keynote to his method is found in two statements of the preface, that literary and sociological elements are emphasized as the best means to prevent the student from dropping his classics in the later years of his course; and that ideas and things, not constructions and words, are illustrated in the citation of parallels from other poets. Such a treatment of the elegy opens the way to a very profitable term's work in the hands of a competent teacher, and the wonder is that the necessary text-book has been so long delayed.

In a slender volume of thirty-eight pages, handsomely printed and accompanied with a good map of the field, published by Belknap & Warfield, Hartford, Col. Jacob L. Greene has presented a restatement of the part borne by his personal friend, Gen. William B. Franklin, in the battle of Fredericksburg, for the benefit of readers of this generation who are apt to labor under the delusion that contemporary official judgments upon public servants are true and final verdicts. Gen. Franklin was an able and devoted officer, who was made one of several scapegoats for the disastrous failure of Gen. Burnside to carry Fredericksburg on the 13th of December, 1862. What Gen. Franklin proposed to do with his grand division of 40,000 men at the Union left, and what the confused and ever-changing plans of Gen. Burnside restricted him to doing—with one result among others, that Franklin was, later, accused of failure to fully coöperate in the general attack (although few military students attach any weight to this charge)—is set forth clearly and in a moderate temper in Col. Greene's book. It seems to us that the readiness of the Government to allow so competent an officer as Franklin to be permanently dropped from the army, was due less to any especial evidence with regard to his conduct at Fredericksburg than to the cause which brought odium upon other excellent officers (Fitz John Porter, for example), namely, his associations with McClellan. Upon such matters this book does not touch, and it is well to have Franklin's conduct at Fredericksburg discussed so fairly upon its naked merits.

'The Boers in War,' by Howard C. Hillegas (D. Appleton & Co.), while written by an admirer of Oom Paul and his men, gives an entertaining, and in many respects humorous, account of the constitution of the forces which for a year have withstood manyfold their numbers of well-disciplined British troops. Of army discipline the Boers seem to be quite ignorant and destitute. Their force is the sheerest democracy of volunteering. Boys of thirteen jostle in the ranks old men of seventy, although, when the battle losses are counted up, the victims are, as usual, mostly of men between twenty and thirty years old. The Western soldiers of our civil war who fell into roll-call "to please the captain," were prototypes of those farmers, whose vote, in public discussion, many times (according to the writer), decided that a battle should not go on, the opinion of the general to the contrary notwithstanding. The religious conviction of the Boers is their sole discipline. To do their duty to God and country is a more effective summons to combat than any authority of officers; and if, in their judgment, the battle is not promising, they disperse at will, and go home or rally at some more hopeful point. This account throws light upon the utter collapse of Boer resistance when their positions seemed impregnable, and it also explains the audacity of many an assault upon and capture of English bands by mere handfuls of men used to hunting wild beasts and savages at a perilous disadvantage.

The Boston Public Library, at the date of its annual report just issued, contained 746,383 volumes, an increase of 30,333 for the year. The circulation was 1,251,541 volumes, a number slightly greater than that of the previous year. There are seventy-one branches and agencies for the distribution of books, which would seem to show that every section of the city is brought into the library system. Included in these are eleven schools, and it is certainly encouraging to note that the annual circulation at the Hancock School at the North End, the home of Italians and Jews, is nearly 7,000 volumes. The publications of the Library, the most important of which was Prof. William Z. Ripley's Bibliography of Anthropology and Ethnology, amounted to 773 pages. The most interesting of the special reports is that of Mr. Worthington C. Ford, the chief of the department of documents and statistics, or, as he aptly terms it, the "Sociological Laboratory." In it he shows lucidly what has been accomplished in the two years of its existence, his guiding aim being to make it a library for the study of the economic conditions of the world.

The last number of the *American Journal of Archæology* contains a summary by Dr. Waldstein of the results of the excavation of the Argive Heræum, forestalling the official publication now in the printer's hands. Dr. Waldstein agrees, apparently, with Dr. Dörpfeld in assigning the remains of the earliest Greek civilization yet found to the third millennium B. C. From that period on, there was a continuous indigenous development, as shown in buildings, pottery, and the like. The Heræum itself was a peculiarly favorable site in which to study the development of that civilization, constituting as it did a religious centre for the Argive territory from the most remote period onward. The earliest constructions found there, according to Dr. Waldstein, date from the nineteenth century, which corresponds with the old Greek tradition of the number of generations of kings who ruled in Argos, and antedates, therefore, by about 400 years the Mycenæan age. The various buildings which succeeded one another on the same site testify, by the direction in which they fronted, to the order of succession of the cities which controlled Argos—which, as Waldstein points out, is not to be confounded with the city of Argos, but designates the whole Argive territory—as being Tiryns, Mycenæ, and the city of Argos. This valuable and suggestive summary excites a desire for the appearance of the official publication of the results of the excavations of the Argive Heræum.

The September *Rundschau* contains two articles, the one a character-sketch, the other biographical, on the Austrian novelist Marie von Ebner-Eschenbach, the seventieth anniversary of whose birth occurred on the 13th of the month. Eugen Zabel's description of the Siberian Railway gives one an idea of the magnitude of the enterprise and of the surprisingly complete accommodations of the *trains de luxe* between Moscow and Irkutsk. It is also interesting to learn that the university library at Tomsk has on its shelves one hundred thousand volumes, including the private library (of 10,000 volumes) of Rudolph von Gneist. Walther Gensel, writing on Art at the Paris Exposition, speaks more fully of the exhibit of sculpture and of the products of industrial art than any other correspondent whose reports have come to our notice. With the October issue the *Rundschau* begins its twenty-seventh year. Among the most noteworthy contributions promised for early numbers are Letters of Travel by Ernst Haeckel.

In the Bulletin of the National Central Library of Florence for August 31 will be found a list of the Government libraries of Italy, with a brief statement of the character of each. Thus, the National Central of Florence is the legal depository of all publications that see the light in Italy. The Milan Nazionale Braidense has since 1884 been limited in its acquisitions to historical science, literature, philosophy, social science—in harmonious coöperation with the other public libraries in the same city. The Turin National is strong in works for the study of jurisprudence, literature, history, and natural science. The Marcian at Venice is distinguished above all by its invaluable MS. collections for the classics (Greek especially), and for the political and literary history of Venice and indeed all Italy. Fine arts and industrial arts distinguish the collection of the Marucellian at Florence. The Laurenzian in the same city is composed almost wholly of manuscripts, to which its printed works are ancillary; the Riccardian makes a specialty of manuscripts pertaining to Italian (particularly Florentine) literature and history. The Public Library at Lucca has more than three thousand volumes of manuscripts. The Estense of Modena has absorbed two collections of medical works and works in natural history. Oriental books and manuscripts mark the Palatine of Parma. The Angelica at Rome possesses a great number of bibliographical rarities. Whatever relates to Sardinia should be sought in the Government library at Cagliari. The University Library at Naples tends more and more to become scientific; the Brancaccian gives special attention to Neapolitan history. Music is the excuse for the library of the R. Accademia di S. Cecilia in Rome; while the Vallicellian concerns itself mainly with the city and the Church of Rome.

Students of American history should be directed to the Calendar of the Jackson-Lewis letters (1806-1864) now publishing in the Bulletin of the New York Public Library, beginning with the September number. These manuscripts formed part of the Ford collection, and are displayed in three indexes, of writer, receiver, and chronological arrangement. The abstracts are very full. When the document has been printed, note is made of the fact. Two of Andrew Jackson's letters relate to the charge of his political enemies that he had been a slave-dealer, while one tells of his having to sell a negro to meet his son's note—no antinomy in the Southern view. Against J. Q. Adams he is very violent—"deranged or superlatively wicked," "wicked reckless old man," who "will write hundreds of memorials and spread them over the country for the abolitionists and others to sign." Urging the appointment of a youth named John Adams as midshipman, he says "the lad has not a drop of John Q. Adams's blood in him, he is a boy of good morals" (such is the juxtaposition and pointing of the abstract).

The Canadian Institute of Toronto celebrated in December last the fiftieth anniversary of its foundation, and has commemorated that event by the publication of a semi-centennial memorial volume of Transactions. The introductory article, by Sir Sandford Fleming, deals with the origin and early days of the Institute, and is of special interest as a record of affairs in which he was an active participant. The remainder of the volume is made up of papers by members of the society. The first of these are geological studies by Prof. A. P. Coleman, who describes the Iroquois Beach, and Dr. Robert Bell, who treats of the geological history of Lake Superior, tracing the origin and development of the lake itself rather than the geology of the surrounding country. In an illustrated memoir on the anatomy of the orang-outang, Prof. A. Primrose gives a detailed account of the external characteristics of that animal, and deals at considerable length with the myology of its extremities. Lieut.-Col. Ernest Cruikshank contributes an historical account of the contest for the command of Lake Erie in 1812-13. These are but a few of the titles which fill the table of contents.

—Prof. Anton E. Schönbach's collection of essays, entitled 'Ueber Lesen und Bildung' (Graz: Leuschner & Lubensky; New York: Lemcke & Buechner), earlier editions of which have been noticed in these columns, has evidently found its way to the class of readers for whom it was intended, the sober-minded, unimpassioned observers of literary affairs; for it has just appeared in a sixth, enlarged edition, the particular feature of which is an attempt to do justice to the most recent phase of German literature. It can hardly be said that Professor Schönbach is, by training or temper, especially well qualified for this task. Living in a remote corner of Austria, he is out of contact with the great stream of modern German literary life, and he evidently does not find it easy to adjust himself to a situation which in many ways must be a shock to his æsthetic sensibilities and predilections. He altogether lacks that active sympathy with the modern movement which gives to such works as Steiger's 'Das Werden des neuen Dramas' or Volkelt's 'Aesthetik des Tragischen' so inspiring a breath. He is inclined to measure the achievements of a Sudermann or Hauptmann by the standards derived from the study of so entirely different characters as Anzengruber or Rosegger. But whatever defects Professor Schönbach's criticism may have on account of its lack of sympathy, they are fully outweighed by its remarkable fairness and impartiality. His analysis of Hauptmann in particular belongs to the sanest and most enlightening observations that have been made about this elusive genius; and it is gratifying and encouraging to the friends of "Youngest Germany" to see even so cool and unemotional a scholar as this old-fashioned philologist paying his respects to the new artistic ideals that are shaping the literature of to-day. Perhaps the most constructive part of this whole chapter is the attempt to connect the present naturalistic school with the Romantic revolt of the beginning of the nineteenth century.

—Under the title, 'Drei Wanderjahre Platens in Italien,' Professor Friedrich Reuter, the well-known Rückert scholar, gives an interesting account, in the *Jahresbericht des historischen Vereins für Mittelfranken*, of the first three years of Platen's sojourn in Italy, the period from 1826 to 1829, largely on the basis of hitherto unpublished letters to and from the poet himself. It is a pathetic picture which these pages bring before us. They show a man absolutely genuine and truthful to himself and others, filled with the highest artistic and moral ideals, gifted with a wonderfully fine sense of form, inspired with noblest thought, yet utterly unable to reconcile his exalted principles with the demands of ordinary life, scornfully spurning the commonplace joys and cares of his fellow-men, severing in a fit of passion the tenderest ties of friendship and affection, consuming himself in lonely disgust at what he considered the injustice done him by an ungrateful people and an unappreciative age. Perhaps the saddest part of Platen's Italian experiences was his relation with his compatriot and fellow-poet Kopisch. When the two men met, in 1827, at Naples, Platen was in a particularly hypochondriac state of mind, so that the sunny, serene temper of the amiable Silesian acted upon him as a health-giving antidote. Kopisch, on his part, saw in Platen the great master and teacher for whom he had been longing and to whose guidance he was willing to commit himself unreservedly. No wonder that the friendship which grew out of this first meeting was, for a time at least, of the most impulsive, affectionate sort; and there can be little doubt that Kopisch in particular was so completely carried away by it that he would never have dreamed of doing anything which might endanger his newly found happiness. It was Platen who shattered it, and he did so because—incredible as this may seem in so high-minded a man as he was—he did so because a common acquaintance of his and Kopisch's had published in a Berlin journal an article in which, of the German poets living at that time in Italy, Kopisch was treated in a particularly friendly manner. It is very much to Kopisch's credit that, in spite of the brusque challenge which Platen sent him in consequence of this article, he never ceased to keep the memory of his friend in loving veneration.

—"L'Hématozoaire du Paludisme: Pathologie—étiologie—prophylaxie," by Maurice Neveu-Lemaire (8vo, pp. 24, with two plates and other figures), an important contribution on a topic of present interest, forms the first number of the *Causeries Scientifiques*, a new serial published by the Société Zoologique de France, in addition to the Memoirs and Bulletins of heretofore. The subject is the blood-parasite causing the fever known, under various forms and numerous names, as marsh, malarial, intermittent, remittent, quotidian, tertian, quartan, etc., or simply by the general term "malaria." The essay is monographic; the locality of the research is southern Europe. Development, effects, history, and remedies are traversed. Several of the species of the hæmatozoon noted since Laveran's discovery of the first, in 1880, are reduced to synonyms. The three retained are *Plasmodium malariæ*, as parasite of the quartan fever, *P. vivax*, as of the tertian, and *Laverania præcox*, as of the æstivo-autumnal. Different dispositions of patients, different conditions of the parasite; the quartan fever as simple, double, or triple, the tertian as simple or double, and the irregularities of the æstivo-autumnal, together with the possible presence of two or more kinds of the parasites in the same patient, appear to provide sources for all complications. Ten or more of the stages of each parasite are figured, and those passed in the intermediary host are distinguished from those in the human blood. The intermediaries are mosquitoes—not the culex so common in most parts of the country, but allies, species of another genus, *Anopheles*, abundant in districts affected by malaria. Malarial mosquitoes usually stand with the entire longitudinal axis in a right line forming an acute angle, at the beak, with the plane on which the insect rests, and in most of them there are spots on the back. The common mosquito, culex, holds its beak at an angle with the rest of the axis, the latter portion being nearly horizontal with the plane of support; and the species are more humped on the shoulders. In the water the larva of the malarial mosquito rests horizontally, parallel with the surface; culex rests with the tail at the surface and the head downward. *Anopheles* takes the parasites with blood from the fever-stricken, then, advanced in development, they are passed on to others it may bite. *Claviger*, *bifurcatus*, *pictus*, and *pseudopictus* are the European species of this mosquito noted as harboring the parasites, but it is said that the cycle of development is completed only in the first. The remedy for the fever, *i. e.*, the parasites, is quinine; that for the insects, in the larval stages, is a thin film of petroleum or kerosene on the surface of the water in which they exist.

—In connection with the foregoing, we may notice a paper more recently published by the United States Department of Agriculture, Division of Entomology, "Notes on the Mosquitoes of the United States," giving some account of their structure and biology, with remarks on remedies, by Dr. L. O. Howard (8vo, pp. 70, with numerous illustrations). This pamphlet treats of the insect host, the transmitter, rather than of the blood-parasite itself. Literature, habits, etc., are discussed at length, and, with its excellent illustrations, the work affords ready means of distinguishing the dreaded species and malarial localities. Thirty species, in five genera, of about 250 known species of mosquitoes, are said to be American. Only three American species of the malarial *Anopheles* are noted—*A. crucians*, *A. punctipinnis*, and *A. quadrimaculatus*.

THE ENGLISH CHURCH.

A Popular History of the Church of England. From the Earliest Times to the Present Day. By William Boyd Carpenter, Bishop of Ripon. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1900.

The English Church, from its Foundation to the Norman Conquest. By William Hunt, M.A. The Macmillan Co. 1899.

Five Great Oxford Leaders. By the Rev. Aug. B. Donaldson, M.A. London: Rivingtons. 1900.

We bring together under one heading three volumes on the history of the Church of England. All are written by members of that church and of its clergy. Dr. Carpenter is Bishop of Ripon, Mr. Donaldson is Canon Residentiary of Truro, and Mr. Hunt, though unconnected with a cathedral, is also in orders. How the character of each volume is conditioned by the fact just stated is, in part, obvious; but if we are bound to recognize throughout a tone of devotion, it by no means follows that candor of treatment is lacking. We differ at more than one point from more than one of the writers, but we have been impressed by the fairness and sincerity of them all. Mr. Hunt, who as a historian is the most experienced, makes an open avowal regarding the manner in which he approaches his subject: "It has been my earnest wish to present a thoroughly truthful picture of the Church during this period, and not to misrepresent anything. No cause seems the better for the art of the special pleader, still less for disingenuousness. Nor would the interests of the Church, even if they could be served by such methods, be so sacred to me as historic truth." By way of still further explaining his attitude so that no possible doubt can remain in the reader's mind, Mr. Hunt describes his position toward mediæval miracles. First he denies that miracles are incredible, and, secondly, he maintains the authenticity of certain mediæval miracles. After enumerating the causes of over-credulity, he says: "Yet, with all necessary allowances, it is hard to see how those who accept the credibility of the miraculous can consistently refuse to believe that some mediæval miracles are genuine."

These books, then, are alike marked by honesty of purpose. Otherwise they differ widely in scope, in method, and in style. The Bishop of Ripon has composed a "popular history" which covers the whole thirteen centuries of the English Church. Mr. Hunt limits himself to a single period, and Mr. Donaldson to the leading figures of the Oxford Movement. Mr. Hunt appeals chiefly to scholars, and Dr. Carpenter to readers at large. Mr. Donaldson's essays on Keble, Newman, Pusey, Liddon, and Church are more "popular" still, for they took present form from a lecture on "John Keble and the Oxford Movement" which was delivered in a Somerset parish. We cannot so briefly define the differences of literary style, but they exist and will be quickly noticed by any reader. It is enough to observe that none of the narratives or essays is colorless. Each shows greater individuality than such treatises usually possess.

There is one question which must be asked about every history of the English Church, or even about every monograph which touches a single part of this vast field: "What is the author's opinion of the Reformation in its effect upon the Church? Does he consider the changes wrought by Henry VIII., Cranmer, and Somerset to be partial and incidental, or radical?" Here we at once touch vital issues, and indeed go back to the first principles of the present ritualistic controversy. A few years ago the Dean of Canterbury, then Archdeacon of Westminster, went to the point when he entitled an article, "Undoing the Work of the Reformation." It is not merely the validity of Anglican orders which is at stake. A great historical question is involved when we seek to determine whether the Church of England is really a new thing with an old name—an institution recreated in the sixteenth century—or whether Cranmer and his followers trimmed their sails so carefully that it cut its Romish bonds without losing its catholicity.

We need not enumerate the well-known differences between High and Low Church parties, or discuss the respective attitude of each toward the Reformation. But we must remember that even Low Church Anglicans, while they protest against incense and confession, fondly preserve the historical unity of the Church, and have a great deal to say about the usurpations of the "Roman bishop" in the Middle Ages. Episcopacy, the cathedrals, and many other externals have been preserved complete. And is not the unbroken continuity of his goodly heritage a part of the Englishman's gospel? England parted with mediævalism in religion at the Reformation; France parted with mediævalism in politics at the Revolution. But the French dissect the Old Régime as they would Egypt, and in England only the dissenters see anything singular about the continuity of the Church.

Let us recall a few plain and elementary facts. During the Middle Ages the chief states of Western Europe were members of Latin Christendom. Italy, on account of her many independent communes, the kingdom of the Two Sicilies, the papal patrimony, etc., we may leave out of the reckoning. But Germany, France, Spain, and England, while at one in doctrinal profession and close connection with Rome, developed a spirit of nationality which reflected itself in ecclesiastical organization. Friction inevitably arose between the papacy and the bishops or archbishops of the several countries. Thus, England had trouble with the Avignonese pontiffs between the death of Edward I. and the appearance of Wyclif—trouble over annates, provision, etc. Similarly, the Gallican Church found its causes of quarrel with Rome, the Germans had their "Gravamina contra Curiam Romanam," and as late as the Council of Trent the faithful Spaniards raised difficulties over matters relating to discipline and affecting their cherished independence. On the other hand, these occasional difficulties between the national churches and the papacy hardly do more than emphasize the usual harmony, and especially the usual subservience of the bishops to the Pope.

Mediæval England had her place among the countries of Latin Christendom, coordinately with France, Germany, and Spain; but prior to the rise of the Lollards she could claim, what in the eye of Rome must have marked her off honorably from the sister states, a comparative freedom from heresy. During the thirteenth century a deep national feeling was provoked by the misgovernment of John and Henry III., and part of this was directed against the influence of foreign ecclesiastics; but if one considers the bitter hostility displayed at all times by Englishmen toward foreigners, their general acquiescence in the Roman system becomes the more manifest. The English Church before the Reformation accepted, besides papal authority, the whole Latin scheme of human redemption, the seven sacraments, the Latin tongue for its services, the monastic orders. It sent Peter's pence to Rome, and also first fruits. Until the beginning of the Hundred Years' War it made little difficulty over provision. Finally, it accepted the idea of fundamental difference between the priest and the layman—an idea which the mediæval heretics of all varieties united to oppose. It was not for a generation nor for a century that it held views of a distinctly Roman type. From the eleventh to the fourteenth century, the era which comprises the acme of mediæval civilization, it maintained them with scarcely a murmur, and the statute *De haeretico comburendo* killed the Lollard movement. From at least 1027, when Cnut in his celebrated letter dictated at Rome cites the Petrine texts, to the opening of the Divorce Question by Henry VIII., the English Church was a religious body modelled on Roman lines, and possessed of no more local independence than the French, German, and Spanish churches.

We single out this question for notice because it is so prominent, and because writers who believe in the organic continuity of the English Church have so much to say about "papal usurpation." We observe that the Bishop of Ripon uses the phrase frequently. The popes from the time of Leo the Great pushed their claims and secured a recognition of them, bit by bit, till the reign of Innocent III.; but there is a broad difference between the relations of England with Rome before and after the Norman Conquest. Before the Conquest, papal legates rarely came to England; after it they were sent often, and overshadowed the local prelates to the mortification of the English. Thus, when John, Cardinal of Crema, came in the twelfth century, he outranked the archbishops. Gervase of Canterbury, in a passage quoted by the Bishop of Ripon, exclaims: "You might see a thing before unheard of in the kingdom of England; a clerk, forsooth, who had only reached the grade of the priesthood, taking precedence of the archbishops, bishops, abbots, and all the nobles of the land; sitting upon a lofty throne, while they, sitting beneath him, were waiting for his nod. . . . The minds of many were gravely scandalized, for they saw in this both an unusual novelty and the destruction of the ancient liberties of the kingdom of England."

The visit of the legate was only one symptom of "papal usurpation." Owing to the feuds of Canterbury and York, the papacy had a chance to appoint an archbishop of Canterbury, William de Corbeil, papal legate in England. The Bishop of Ripon, reviewing the reigns of William Rufus and Henry I., states the progress of papal domination thus:

> "On looking back, we see that the steady love of power which prevailed at Rome, was seconded by an adroitness of policy which took advantage of every opportunity which the weakness or wickedness of national rulers afforded her to push her claims further and further. Anselm gave one opening by accepting the principle of appeal to Rome. William de Corbeil made a fatal surrender by degrading the position of the Primate of All England, the patriarch whom the churches of these islands regarded with veneration, the *quasi papa alterius orbis*, as he had been called, into that of a mere vassal of the Pope of Rome."

We might multiply cases of similar "papal usurpation" down to the end of the thirteenth century.

What do the "papal usurpations" of the Norman and Plantagenet period mean when brought to bear upon the organic unity of the English Church? Anglicans often lay stress on the Scottish Church and trace to it the origin of the national English Church. According to this opinion, the true Church was unfortunately dwarfed for a time by the upstart growth of Rome, but the papacy never acquired a *de jure* right of control over England. We pass lightly by the contest between the Roman and Scottish churches, remarking, however, that Mr. Hunt says of the Whitby Conference: "The victory of the Roman party was decisive as regards the future relation between the English and Roman churches. . . . For good and ill it [the English Church]* was to remain for centuries affiliated to Rome." From an extremely early date, 664, the tendency of Christians in England was to look more and more Romeward. Cenred, King of Mercia, Offa, King of the East Saxons, and Ine, King of the West Saxons, resigned their crowns, went to Rome on pilgrimage, and remained there as monks or hermits. When sacerdotal celibacy and transubstantiation received papal assent, the English adopted the new usage and the new dogma. In a word, England displayed the same reverence for Rome which the rest of Europe during the Middle Ages did, took her theology thence; and while her church, like other national churches, claimed a measure of independence, it had no independence of thought—no theological independence. The freedom which it asserted was confined to organization, and when writers talk of "papal usurpation" they refer to matters of practical administration, the routine of mechanical working, and not to the inner spiritual life of the church. Theologically speaking, England before the Norman Conquest became as Roman as the rest of Western Europe, and remained so until the Reformation—for if England produced the Lollards, the Continent produced endless sects of Manicheans (including the Albigenses), the Waldenses, and the Hussites.

We could wish that the Bishop of Ripon had explained to his readers the full degree of Roman ascendency over the mind of Europe and England during the Middle Ages, and especially at that period of the Middle Ages when intellectual life was most eager, when the most purely mediæval conceptions of duty and destiny were reached. One does not look for the greatness of mediæval England in the early days of Saxon conversion to Christianity, but in the centuries which extend from the accession of Henry

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*We quote Mr. Hunt's statement only in connection with the Whitby Conference. He, like the Bishop of Ripon, defends the theory that the Church of England "retained its national life and independent character."

II. to the beginning of the Wars of the Roses; and the supreme influence of Rome on the English Church during the age of the Plantagenets is unintelligible when styled a usurpation. The attempt to isolate England from the rest of Latin Christendom is quite futile, whether in the discussion of theological ideas or of church government. She did not adopt the Roman law, but she accepted Romanism in religion with enthusiastic zeal, and displayed the spirit of national jealousy only in the province of ecclesiastical routine, where it fastened upon matters of business and of government, rather than of faith. Wyclif must always be remembered, but he came late and did not succeed. For the rest, the position of the Anglican Church against the Roman is very little strengthened by the attempt to prove that, though for a season tyrannous encroachments depressed English Christianity, it was never truly subordinate to Rome. Mr. Hunt, at the beginning of his book, says: "Whether the fact that the Church held certain beliefs and enjoined certain practices a thousand or more years ago is any reason why it should do the like now, is not for me to say." On this side of the Atlantic, and doubtless in England, too, a large majority of people would say that there is no valid reason why any corporation, religious or political, should keep to the practice of the Middle Ages by mere force of prescription. England at a certain stage held Roman views of religion, but the spread of lay learning has intervened, and now, as a nation, she holds them no more. The broad, historical aspect of the case should, we think, satisfy the most loyal member of the Anglican Church to-day.

Although the Bishop of Ripon, in our opinion, fails to give the English Church its due relations with the Latin Church at large, his account of pre-Reformation history is in many respects a good one. With his statements concerning the domestic aspects of ecclesiastical government, the struggles of Church and Crown, the character of distinguished primates, etc., one can find little fault. But the most satisfactory part of his narrative begins with the Stuarts. The nearer he approaches modern times and questions of present emergency, the more apparent become his liberality of temper and his grasp of the critical issue. His chapters on the progress of the Church in the nineteenth century are marked by tact which is without suspicion of lukewarmness or insincerity. He admires the inclusiveness of the English Church, and the skill with which she has avoided the dangers of dogmatism. Had he been writing fifty years ago—that is, immediately after the decision of the Privy Council in the Gorham Case—he would have welcomed the vindication of Mr. Gorham's position. We are justified by his general tone in supposing that he would have hailed a judgment which refused to narrow the Church. Looking to the future, Dr. Carpenter feels deeply the moral responsibility of the English race as a ruling power, and in particular its duty towards missions. "The interests of mankind are promoted by the diffusion of the Christian faith; for 'all that we call modern civilization, in a sense which deserves the name, is the visible expression of the transforming power of the gospel.' "

We have given up the greater part of our space to the examination of a single point which is raised by the Bishop of Ripon's work, but we must not close without speaking, at least briefly, about the books of Mr. Hunt and Mr. Donaldson. Mr. Hunt's volume is the first in a series of seven which will follow the history of the English Church by periods from its commencement to the end of the eighteenth century. The Dean of Winchester is editor, and his six assistants are historical students of note—Mr. Hunt, Canon Capes, James Gairdner, Mr. W. H. Frere, Mr. W. H. Hutton, and Canon Overton. With such a staff the series when completed is likely to be one of the utmost consequence. The editor's ambition may be gathered from the terms in which he defines the aim of the projected work: "A continuous and adequate history in volumes of moderate size and price, based upon a careful study of the original authorities and the best ancient and modern writers."

At every point Mr. Hunt's description of the Saxon Church meets the Dean of Winchester's standard, and from the early part of the eighth century to 1066 it holds the field without any rival whatever. Canon Bright stops at the death of Bishop Wilfrith in 709. "With that exception," says Mr. Hunt, "this book, while owing much to others, is, I believe, the first attempt to write a continuous History of the English Church before the Norman Conquest with any degree of fulness." Besides great learning, Mr. Hunt has two special qualifications for the task of filling this gap. He has already learned the literary art of writing a history, and he places disinterestedness before every other virtue. He gives his dedication to the Bishop of Oxford, of whom he is an able disciple, and he shows a calmness in the judgment of evidence which might be expected from his training. On account of the close relation of ecclesiastical and secular affairs in the Saxon period, Mr. Hunt's study of the English Church will take rank among the best books on what Sir James Ramsay has called "The Foundations of England."

Mr. Donaldson's 'Great Oxford Leaders' contains five studies of the men who started and continued the Tractarian Movement: of the originators, Keble, Newman, and Pusey; of their followers, Liddon and Church. The essays are partly biographical and partly critical, but carefully avoid a tone of controversy. Mr. Donaldson, a High Churchman, does not conceal his sympathy for the objects which 'Tracts for the Times' promoted, and he traces to them a "wonderful transformation" of the English Church. The Bishop of Ripon, on the contrary, measures Pusey and the Puseyites by a much smaller pattern. For a clear statement of the anti-Erastian principles which Keble avowed, Pusey formulated, and Newman preached, Mr. Donaldson's separate studies are admirable. The intensity of feeling which these men put into their cause impresses one the more with each new description of it, and gives a touch of tragedy to Newman's secession. The recent publication of ample memoirs has helped Mr. Donaldson and given the biographical part of his volume an authoritative tone, but biography is incidental to criticism and appreciation. While no marked difference in quality is noticeable, the sketches of Liddon and Church are the most valuable because so much less has been written about them.

Viewed collectively, these three volumes form a creditable addition to the historical literature of the English Church.

BAIN'S DAUGHTER OF PETER THE GREAT.

The Daughter of Peter the Great. By R. Nisbet Bain. Westminster: Archibald Constable & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 1900. Pp. xiii, 328.

The reigns of Peter the Great and of Catharine II. of Russia have been pretty thoroughly studied. One of the chief attractions in both cases—aside from the strong dramatic features and the dashing characters of the sovereigns themselves—is generally regarded as consisting in the fact that these two rulers were the first (each in his own way) to give Russia a place among the European Powers; the former by his forcible introduction of sundry Western ideas and customs, the latter by her diplomatic and intellectual relations with the Continent. As a matter of fact, neither Peter nor Catharine can justly be regarded as a pioneer in either course of action. Both were forestalled by their remote predecessors on the throne, Peter being the heir of efforts which began under Ivan the Terrible, and Catharine being indebted chiefly and most closely to the Empress Elizabeth Petrovna—not to carry further a quest which would lead us, by interrupted strides, to the ninth century, to alliances matrimonial, diplomatic, and commercial between the reigning house of infant Russia and the Continental Powers of the epoch; to accomplishments and characteristics almost identical with those for which Peter, Catharine, their subjects, and Russians of the present day are famous.

The epoch comprised between the death of Peter the Great, in 1725, and the accession of the Empress Catharine II., in 1762, was equally a continuation of the earlier régime and a foretaste of the later. It was, moreover, one of the most critical periods in the whole history of Russia, not only because of the final struggle then waged to the death between the old Russian conservatives and the progressive political heirs of Peter the Great, but also because of the increasingly close connection between the fate of Russia and the fate of Western Europe, which had striven so long and so vigorously to ignore and extinguish her. It was an epoch of obscure and complicated intrigues, of desperate underhand battles between warring foreign factions and influences ambitious to rule in Russia, and of battles diplomatic and military between the Continental Powers, in which Russia came, with ever-increasing frequency and force, to control the issue. Mr. Bain has already covered a part of this difficult ground in his volume, 'The Pupils of Peter the Great.' But the most important and difficult period, the reign of the Empress Elizabeth Petrovna, remained; and to the task of unravelling its intricate puzzles the author has devoted himself in the present volume. His aim is to make clear the political history of the days which saw the rise of the present royal house of Prussia, and to winnow out the truth from the baffling and confused mass of falsehood. In this he succeeds most admirably. Between 1741 and 1761 the Court of St. Petersburg under "The Daughter of Peter the Great," the Empress Elizabeth Petrovna, was the focus of European diplomacy, and by 1761 was fast assuming the lead in Continental affairs. It is only through careful study of the original documents relating to the period (chiefly in the Russian language) that the War of the Austrian Succession and the Seven Years' War, together with the events which led up to them, can be made intelligible. The Empress Elizabeth of Russia was the most sagacious and determined foe of Frederick the Great, with his voracious ambition; and had her generals been only one degree less incapable, Frederick and his tiny kingdom would have been wiped out, and Europe would have been spared a host of wars and incalculable misery which he and his successors have inflicted upon it.

Mr. Bain makes free use of Frederick the Great's political correspondence, and one is prompted to wonder what Carlyle would have said about his hero had he had access to this incomparable self-revelation. The author has shown great judgment in elucidating all these complicated questions, and so subordinating them to his main theme that the portrait of the Empress Elizabeth is imbued with all the vivacity and fascination with which her contemporaries credited her. It is a pity, however, that this portrait should remain imperfect in consequence of the omission of practically all details concerning her early life. That portion properly falls within the scope of Mr. Bain's former volume on Peter and his Pupils, and due reference is made thereto. But, unusual as such a procedure would have been, it seems as though it would have been both advisable and permissible to repeat that chapter in the present volume, either as introduction or appendix, since 'Peter's Pupils' and 'Ivan VI.' (with the Regent Anna Leopoldovna) are briefly discussed as a necessary preliminary to the history of Elizabeth's reign and policy. One of the most striking and important parts in this narrative deals with the readjustment of political alliances between the Powers, culminating in the alliance between Russia and France as the direct outcome of England's unparalleled and unpardonable double-dealing and treachery, even more than of the unscrupulousness of Frederick the Great, which corrupted political morals to an amazing degree.

The author's style is clear and vivid; but it is a pity that he has not used greater care in many cases, and that bad proofreading, added to this negligence, has produced results calculated to confuse the ordinary non-Russian reader. Why, for instance, does he call the favorite of the Empress Anna Ivanovna *Ernest* Johan Biren (which is correct) on p. 10, and *Carl* on p. 77? Again, the Empress Elizabeth's husband is called both *Alexius* and *Alexander*, the former—or rather, Alex(ks)ei—being correct. In a similar way the Empress's buffoon is called *Aksakov* (note, p. 139) and *Arakshev* (note, p. 151). The "Count of Vienna" (p. 16), instead of the *Court* of Vienna, may be a typographical error, like *Pelin* for Pelim (p. 30 and elsewhere), *Wehlaw* for Wehlau (p. 220), *Ysupov* for Yusupov (p. 220). "General Botta, the Austrian Ambassador at Vienna" (p. 33), should, evidently, read ". . . at St. Petersburg." The portrait to face p. 22 is labelled "Field-Marshal Miennich"—phonetically transliterated back from the Russian—while its owner is always mentioned in the text by his proper German name, Münnich. Again, the portrait facing p. 97 should be labelled "Count Bestuzheff-Riumin," not "Rymium." In this connection, another puzzling feature of Mr. Bain's work, likely to bewilder readers, may be noted. Usually he is almost hypercritical in his effort to reproduce with accuracy the Russian spelling of characteristic names (except the mongrel *Elizabeth* Petrovna, a concession to accepted forms), even courting disaster in pronunciation by using the correct guttural "ui" instead of the customary "y," in such names as Goluitzin. Why he should flounder in such confusion over the far simpler name Alexis is a mystery. Not once does he transliterate it Aleksei (pronounced Alexáy), but vacillates between Alexius, Aleksius—forms entirely unknown to the language either written or uttered—and puts plain English Alexis, by way of further variety, on the portrait of Count Bestuzheff-Riumin, already mentioned. *Ministère* (twice, p. 138) for Ministre conveys an erroneous impression, while *korchmar* (p. 142) means "inn-keeper," not "inn." On p. 233, "for fear of similar accidents occurring to her in public, she appeared *less seldom* at Court than heretofore," should read "less often."

Lack of knowledge concerning Russian customs and that important branch of the national lore, the Catholic Church of the East, is responsible for three errors: (1.) "The chapel of the Winter Palace" (p. 276) should read "the Cathedral" or "the Church," *chapel* having an entirely different meaning and use from that in the Western Church. (2.) In the description of the wedding of Grand Duke Peter (Peter III.) to Princess Sophia of Anhalt-Zerbst (Catharine II.), the Empress Elizabeth is represented as leading the young pair "to the altar," which is quite impossible; the specially prepared lectern in the centre of the church, not the altar within the sanctuary, is meant. (3.) On p. 313 it is stated that when Elizabeth Petrovna was informed that she was about to die, she sent for her confessor, who "shrived and communicated her, and on the following day the Sacrament of Holy Chrism was also administered." (She died the next day.) This shows utter misconception of the rite in question, which is not extreme unction after the fashion practised in the Roman Church, as it would appear from the context; neither is the Holy Chrism used. That is employed only (1) in the Sacrament of Chrismation immediately after the baptism of infants, or upon converts from other religious beliefs, who join the Holy Orthodox Church of the East, being administered without baptism if such converts have already received Christian baptism in their own former churches; (2) to anoint the Emperor (and, in a lesser degree, the Empress also) immediately after he has crowned himself, and immediately before he receives the holy communion on his coronation day, when, for the first and last time in his life, he (the only layman ever thus distinguished), like the priests, enters the sanctuary through the imperial gates in the ikonostasis and makes his communion at the altar, like the priests receiving the bread and wine separately, not combined. What Mr. Bain refers to in the passage cited above is the sacrament of "The Blessing of Oil," or "Prayer-Oil," the ancient rite of the visitation of the sick, founded on James v., 14, 15. This is entirely different from extreme unction of the Roman Church, in that the oil—simple, not that complicated compound, the holy chrism consecrated by bishops—is blessed on the spot by the officiating priests, who must be seven in number, if possible. Moreover, it is administered to persons grievously, not hopelessly, ill and dying, and can be received more than once on such occasions, differing in all these points and in others from both extreme unction and chrismation in the Roman Church, which Mr. Bain evidently had in mind. These ecclesiastical errors are enough to make the profligate but punctiliously pious heroine of his volume rise from her grave to buffet Mr. Bain, instead of thanking him for his praiseworthy and painstaking labors in her behalf.

BÜLOW, WAGNER, AND LUDWIG II.

Hans von Bülow: Briefe. IV. Band 1864-1872. Leipzig: Breitkopf & Härtel.

The printing of Hans von Bülow's letters goes on merrily at Leipzig. Four big volumes have already appeared (besides a volume of essays and criticisms), yet they take us only as far as 1872, twenty-two years before Bülow's death. The letters to and from the late Friedrich Nietzsche are, however, printed complete (up to 1875) in volume iv., of which they constitute the last twelve pages. This volume is by far the most interesting of the set, being concerned chiefly with the five years, 1864-1869, which Bülow spent in Munich, as the personal representative of Wagner. "Wagner needs me," he wrote to a friend, "and my amiable, honored master and father-in-law, Liszt, to whom I left the decision, persuaded me by all means to accept the call." He would hardly have needed Liszt's advice, however, for his heart was entirely in Wagner's art. He not only gave up his career as pianist, when it was beginning to grow remunerative, but abandoned all idea of making his way as a composer, since he had the critical insight to know and the modesty to confess (pp. 18, 203), that his own attempts were so inferior to those of others, that he could be of more use to the world by promoting their cause than by plying his own pen. Unlike Cornelius, he was not afraid of losing his individuality in the presence of Wagner, but frankly confessed that, being free from illusions concerning his own creative powers, he regarded it as the task of his life to work for Wagner and for Liszt. "For 'Tristan' or for the 'Saint Elizabeth' I gladly sacrifice my health, but not for the A. D. Musikvereins Philisterei," he wrote in 1865; and three years later, in French, to Ullman (p. 239): "My sole aim is to disappear as an individuality in the task I have taken up, that of making the Opera and the Conservatory in Munich model institutions (relatively) for Germany." He was well aware that his championship of Wagner, and, still more of Liszt, as a composer, had, up to that time, prevented his securing an engagement at a German institution; but he was young and full of enthusiasm and pugnacity. The task he had set himself, however, was so hard that he often despaired of immediate success. "What these two men of genius create, will it not have to wait for the third generation to find appreciation? All this is material for excavation at the end of the twentieth century."

Considering the state of affairs in Munich at that time, it is no wonder that Bülow sometimes lost heart. The reactionary Lachner was "Generalmusikdirector," and consequently, as late as 1865, only the most popular of Schumann's works were known there; nay, even Mendelssohn's oratorios were, as Bülow writes, *nouveautés inédites*. Had it not been for the enthusiasm of the young King, to make such a place the headquarters of Wagner's music would have been sheer madness; and even the King nearly failed in the effort. The extraordinary situation is familiar through the biographies of Wagner; but Bülow's correspondence, and several hitherto unpublished letters of the King and of Wagner to Bülow, which the editor has inserted in their proper place, supply many interesting new details.

The King's infatuation for Wagner's art began when he was fifteen, and increased from year to year. For a time this art entirely monopolized his musical receptivity, which was hardly satisfactory even to Wagner, who, as Bülow remarks, was "desirous of putting an end to this exclusiveness." At nineteen the monarch "knew all of Wagner's writings by heart," and four years later we find him giving orders that copies of critical articles by appreciative writers like Pohl and Uhlig should be sent to him. Under date of July 13, 1865, Bülow gives this amusing snap-shot:

> "The situation is droll. I conduct Wagner's operas, though the composer is present and Franz Lachner is *Generalmusikdirector*—yet no one is surprised, either in the auditorium or on the stage. And this wonderful King! For every performance a special train from and to Starnberg; between the acts the ministers confer with him, glad to have a chance to see him under any circumstances. On the way to the city last Saturday the alarm signal was suddenly given. Great consternation—the train stops. His Majesty had found it too warm in the coupé, and, to get some fresh air, sat in the locomotive with the fireman, with whom he had a lively conversation during the rest of the trip. After the opera he was so deeply affected that when his secretary was about to take his former place in the carriage, the King slammed the door in his face with the words: 'I want to be alone.' N. B.—It was raining cats and dogs, and the cabs had all gone home!"

The King, as is well known, had not only special trains to the regular Wagner evenings, but special performances for himself, though on these occasions guests were sometimes invited; but they had to sit where he could not see them. Bülow's letters contain several references to the straits to which he was sometimes put to bring about these special performances; but the King would brook no delay, and he even indicated his desires regarding the make-up of the casts, and sharply criticised singers he disliked or defects in the scenery (see p. 188). Besides conducting Wagner's operas and presiding over the conservatory established in accordance with Wagner's plans, Bülow also had to be ready to be called upon to give private piano recitals for the King's delectation. It is to one of these recitals that the following letter of the King refers:

> "I am irresistibly impelled to express to you my warmest thanks for the enjoyable evening you have given me, which I shall ever remember. It is a great consolation to me to know that you have promised me to urge daily our beloved friend to resume and complete 'Siegfried'; for it would indeed be a calamity if the 'Nibelungen' remained a fragment.
>
> "I was still a mere boy when I said to myself, Hear Wagner's 'Nibelungen' and die. Woe me should this ecstatic dream not be *realized. O, Lord, 'in dying to long, from longing unable to die'*—is that to be my ghastly fate? I rely on him. He will save me; and I firmly rely on you."

A year later (February 25, 1869) Bülow received another similar letter from the King:

> "I beg you, dear Herr von Bülow, to send the enclosed letter, in an envelope addressed by yourself, to our dear friend. O, do everything you can to make possible the performance of 'Tristan' in the spring and of 'Rheingold' in the summer. If you knew how mighty is my longing for these works, I am sure you would do all in your power to gratify this ardent desire. You alone can do it. Receive the best greetings from your King and always faithful friend,
>
> "LUDWIG."

"The King commands, we must obey," writes Bülow on another occasion. "Thank God we have a lord and master who cares the devil for difficulties and impossibilities." But the chief trouble with the King was that he lacked backbone. He was not "boss" in his own kingdom. He wanted to build a Wagner theatre, and got the architect Semper to make the plans in 1867—but this theatre has only just been completed in the year 1900! He wanted Wagner to reside in Munich and complete his "Nibelung's Ring"; but he had not the force of character to face Wagner's enemies—musical, social, political, religious; and when finally a petition, signed by 4,000 persons, was presented to him, he declared: "I will show my dear people that I value their confidence, their love, above everything," and asked Wagner to leave Bavaria. Bülow was left to represent him, and on him the fury of Wagner's enemies was now vented. They went to such extremes that when, in June, 1866, a man from Mecklenburg, whose name happened to be Bülow, took a room in Munich, a mob, thinking he was the conductor, broke his windows and smashed his furniture. Hans von Bülow became the object of all sorts of ridiculous accusations, like Wagner before him. He was a foreigner, a "Prussian spy," and various other dreadful things. He began to hate the city in which he had to do "a year's work in three months," fight with all the authorities, and be the butt of political as well as artistic cabals; and when, finally, his wife, the daughter of Liszt, left him and married Wagner, and he became the hero of a *cause célèbre*, utter weariness and disgust with life seized him. He handed in his resignation and went to Italy for several years. The letters have little to say regarding the divorce and the events preceding it; but they afford plentiful evidence that it was his vanity rather than his heart that was wounded, and his enthusiasm for Wagner suffered no diminution.

The King had been very unwilling to dispense with Bülow, and, after his departure, things soon were at sixes and sevens. Ludwig was dying to hear "Rheingold" and "Die Walküre," but there was no one to interpret them after Hans Richter also had left, indignant at the Intendant von Perfall's open defiance not only of Wagner's directions, but of the commands of the King, who, for some mysterious reason, refrained from dismissing the disobedient official who was really the cause of most of the trouble. The situation was peculiar, almost grotesque. No conductor approved by Wagner could be found for "Rheingold" and "Die Walküre," because Wagner's friends refused to accept a position in which they would either have to disobey him or the King. It almost came to a rupture between Wagner and Ludwig. Wagner wrote the conditions (p. 365) under which alone he was willing to let the "Walküre" have its *première* at Munich. As these conditions could not (on account of Perfall's attitude) be fulfilled, and the King insisted on hearing the opera notwithstanding, Wagner was simply ignored in the preparations, and it was given with Wüllner at the helm. If it did not prove a fiasco under the circumstances, this was simply, as Klindworth wrote to Bülow (p. 427), because the opera is so beautiful that even a poor performance could not kill it. The same correspondent informs us that after these experiences Wagner would refuse to place the score of "Siegfried" in the King's hands, and that he had urgently requested that the "Walküre" should not be given any more. "Düfflipp hopes, indeed, that after Wagner's marriage in Lucerne, he will allow himself to be persuaded to return to Munich, but in this he is certainly mistaken. Wagner is very angry, and swears that he will sooner let everything go, become the King's enemy, and give up Triebschen [Lucerne], than have anything more to do with the Munich opera." Luckily it did not come to a breach, but Wagner kept his "Siegfried" and "Götterdämmerung" for a first performance at Bayreuth, where he was master of the situation and could insure accuracy. Bayreuth was obviously a necessity.

Enough has been said about the contents of this volume to show that it deserves a place on the Wagner shelves of all public and private libraries. There is also a good deal of interest in the letters from Italy (1869—1872), which take up 228 pages of this volume, giving Bülow's impressions of the country, its inhabitants, and their musical doings, with all of which he was differently impressed on sundry occasions. He was so disgusted with Germany and the Germans that at first everything Italian pleased him, and he would not have any further communication with his countrymen. He tried to keep his whereabouts a secret, and at one time inserted an advertisement in a musical paper requesting that letters to him be addressed in care of "Cavaliere Cesare Rosso," to the amusement of his friends, who knew that that was the name of his cat in Florence. He resumed his piano-playing and teaching, and there are several references in the letters of this period to the offer he received of $10,000 for a concert tour in America. The next volume of his letters will probably contain those he wrote from this country, which will doubtless be both spicy and instructive.

SIR ROBERT DUDLEY IN THE WEST INDIES.

The Voyage of Robert Dudley, afterwards styled Earl of Warwick and Leicester and Duke of Northumberland, to the West Indies, 1594-1595, narrated by Capt. Wyatt, by himself, and by Abram Kendall, Master. Edited by George F. Warner, M.A., F.S.A. London: Printed for the Hakluyt Society.

"Having ever since I could conceive of anything bene delighted with the discoveries of navigation, I fostered in my selfe that disposition till I was of more yeres and better ability to undertake such a matter."

Such is the first sentence of his own account of his voyage to the West Indies, in 1594-1595, given to Hakluyt, for his collection of 'Voyages' (vol. iii., 1600, p. 574), by Sir Robert Dudley, the "base-born son" of Queen Elizabeth's favorite, the Earl of Leicester, and of Lady Sheffield. His "natural sympathy for the sea" Dudley could attribute to heredity, for he was the grandson of two Lord High Admirals of England (John Dudley, Duke of Northumberland, and William Howard, Lord Howard of Effingham), and the nephew of a third (Charles, Lord Howard of Effingham, afterwards Earl of Nottingham). And now, in his twenty-first year, he found himself the owner of Kenilworth, and with ample means for indulging his great desire "to discover new countries." When this gallant of her court had already spent much money in preparations for a cruise in the South Seas, Queen Bess forbade that enterprise "upon so uncertaine a ground," and Dudley was constrained to prepare "another course for the West Indies." It shows how commonplace such a voyage had become, by the end of the Queen's reign, that Dudley should observe slightingly, "and so common is it, indeed, to many, as it is not woorth the registring."

In the volume which has recently been issued by the Hakluyt Society, and which has been most admirably edited by Mr. George F. Warner, Assistant Keeper of Manuscripts, on the staff of the British Museum, three different accounts of Dudley's voyage have been included. The first, hitherto unpublished, is taken from one of the Sloane manuscripts in the British Museum, the authorship of which has been clearly identified by Mr. Warner with Capt. Wyatt, who was one of the officers on the expedition. The second account is the one written by Dudley himself, with which readers of Hakluyt are familiar. The third is a translation from Dudley's own book, 'L'Arcano del Mare.' The original, written in English, cannot be traced. Its author was Abraham Kendall, who sailed, as master, on the voyage, and from whom Dudley "learned enough navigation for an Admiral." Kendall, by the way, went with Drake and Hawkins on their last voyage, and died on the same day as Drake, January 28, 1596, off Porto Cabello. Mr. Warner has most carefully and copiously annotated each of the narratives, and his entertaining preface gives a very concise glimpse of the career of a man who was by nature highly gifted, who had a genius for navigation and shipbuilding, and whose life was clouded by the circumstances of his birth. The information given with regard to Dudley's two works, the 'Arcano del Mare' and the 'Direttorio Maritimo' (unpublished), will interest students of the history of navigation. In book vi. of the 'Arcano del Mare,' or Secret of the Sea, are, Mr. Warner tells us, thirty-three charts relating to America, with an explanatory note, frequently of some length, in each case. One of these charts has been reproduced for Mr. Warner's volume. It displays the Northeastern coast of South America, and gives prominence to the River Orinoco and the island of Trinidad, which were visited by Dudley's party. Mr. Warner also gives in appendix an English version of the explanatory notes, and from these it appears that the map was first published by Dudley in 1637. The editor of the volume before us also draws attention to the fact that Dudley wrote a treatise upon navigation, before he quitted England for Italy, that has not hitherto been published, and of which the whereabouts is unknown.

Captain Mahan's views on sea power would have had the hearty approval of Sir Robert Dudley, who, in 1612, when writing to Prince Henry, the son of James I., strongly insisted that "whosoever is patron of the sea commandeth also on land." Of the voyage itself, which was undertaken "rather to see some practice and experience than any wonders or profits," the barest outline only can here be given. All being ready for sailing from Southampton, Dudley "gave a speciall commaundement unto all his companies that they shoulde generallie provide themselves to goe with him the Sonday followinge, beinge the thirde day of November, to the church and theare accompany him for the reverent receavinge of the Holie Communion, and after at his charge to dine with him all togeather, as members united and knitt togeather in one bodie." On the 6th of November, 1594, the vessels "disankered" from "the Rode afore Hampton." The romantic young commander's flagship was the *Bear*, which is described as being a very fast vessel, "most singular for her saylinge." With her sailed the *Bear's Whelp*, commanded by Captain Monck, and two small pinnaces as tenders. Captain Jobson accompanied Dudley in the *Bear*, as "Lieutenant-Generall," and Abraham Kendall sailed as pilot, "excellinge all others in his profession, as a rare scholler, a most seldom thinge in a maryner." On the 31st of July, Dudley sighted the island of Trinidad, after a series of adventures narrated in the several accounts. Captain Monck, in the *Bear's Whelp*, had, at the outset of the voyage, returned to England with "two great and rich galleons"; and two carvels taken at the Canaries were now the only consorts of the *Bear*, for some English ships, met at sea, had declined to join forces with Dudley. Thirty-nine days were spent at Trinidad. During this time, a crew of twelve picked men (including "two painfull and able Dutchmen") went, under Captain Jobson, in a rowing-boat, some 250 miles up the Orinoco. After sixteen days they returned "in very pitifull case, half dead for famine," but with Indian fables of El Dorado. Dudley now himself wished to explore Guiana; but his men downright refused to go, albeit, he says, he had a commission which empowered him to hang or kill them. During the stay at Trinidad some parts of the island were explored; and the Spaniards, who had settled at San José de Oruña, six miles to the east of the present capital of the colony, were kept in a state of alarm, as the English marched on shore, with "collers displaide in honour of England and maugre the Spaniards berd." On Dudley's arrival, Don Antonio de Berrio had obtained a strong reinforcement from Margarita; so Dudley is content to observe that he did not attack the Spaniards, as they were "poore and strong." The account of the island is entertaining, but is in no way comparable to that given by Sir Walter Ralegh in his 'Discoverie.' Two of the narratives contain short vocabularies of Indian words. A search was made for gold, and stones were found that "glistened like gold (but all is not gold that glistereth), for so they found the same nothing worth." At Trinidad, Dudley's heart was gladdened by the arrival of Captain George Popham, in "a pinnasse of Plymouth." On the 12th of March these two rovers sailed from Trinidad "to see further of the Indies."

On the 13th of March, to the northward of the island of Grenada a small prize of "sackes" was captured, which "refreshed them well." Dudley now resolved to lie in wait, off Cape Rosco, for stragglers from the Plata fleet, which, some of the Spaniards he had taken prisoners told him, would be leaving Havana in April. In vain he did so. On the 25th of March he sailed between San Domingo and Puerto Rico. Then, after encountering very bad weather, he ran up the coast of Florida and Virginia, to 40° 10′, and thence, with a gale behind them, they ran to the Azores, which they reached on the 28th of April, 1595. On his course thence to England he met on the 6th of May with what Mr. Warner terms the crowning adventure of his voyage, which was his bold attack upon and prolonged fight with a big Spanish war-ship. But, for particulars of this bold deed, with its picturesque incident with regard to Dudley's gallant page, Bradshaw, we must refer those interested to Mr. Warner's volume. Altogether, he had taken or destroyed nine Spanish ships, "which was losse to them, though I got nothing," he observes.

It is noteworthy that, on his way to London, Dudley stopped at Wilton, the home of the Herberts, the young fellows to whom, in 1623, the first collected edition of 'Mr. William Shakespeare's Comedies, Histories, and Tragedies' was dedicated. Dudley may himself have foregathered with the immortal William, and told him of "Guiana, full of gold and bounty," as well as did Sir Walter Ralegh.

Dudley served under the Earl of Essex, at Cadiz, in 1596, as commander of the *Nonpareil*, and for his gallantry there he was knighted on his return to England. After fruitlessly trying to prove that his father and mother had been lawfully married, he left England in 1605, taking with him, disguised as a page, his cousin Elizabeth Southwell, one of Queen Anne's maids of honor. They both became Roman Catholics. As if to demonstrate practically that the fact that his father and his mother had each contracted a marriage with some one else, after having married one to the other, as was alleged by him, was not conclusive evidence of his illegitimacy, Sir Robert, although already married, now formally married his beautiful cousin. He died at Florence in 1649, after years of residence in Italy. As Leicester's son, he showed himself throughout to be a "chip of the old block." He began early, for in 1591 he was forbidden the court by Queen Bess for kissing, in the royal presence, Mrs. Candish (a relative of Cavendish the navigator), she "being his wife, as is said." His own lawful wife was Alice, daughter of Sir Thomas Leigh of Stoneleigh. This injured woman had the poor solace of being created Duchess Dudley in 1644. She died in 1669, at the age of ninety, surviving her husband for twenty years.

Joseph Glanvill. By Ferris Greenslet. New York: The Columbia University Press (Macmillan). 1900. 12mo, pp. 235.

Joseph Glanvill was that fashionable divine and Fellow of the Royal Society at whose house in Bath our friend Samuel Pepys, four years his senior, used to sit up into the small hours with fair Mistress Pennington. The reader may remember that on one such occasion she was in her smock and petticoats by the fire. Glanvill cuts a small, but decidedly interesting, figure in philosophy's ice. Höffding devotes one of his large pages to him; Lechier, half a small one. Other such authorities dispose of him in half a dozen lines. Very few of those pundits, it is safe to say, ever found time to read connectedly in his works, and those few confined themselves to one book that is far from bringing out the whole character of his thought. If such has been his treatment at the hands of those who have devoted themselves to the history of the subject, what is likely to be the state of information about him of the average student of philosophy? The manuals of English literature pass him by, we believe, without recognition.

The very title of his best-known book, 'The Vanity of Dogmatizing,' ought to suggest to the well-read metaphysician that he was probably inclined to Platonism. For that has been the way with the majority of genuine skeptics,as contradistinguished from the dogmatists of skepticism. It may not be obvious why it should be so; but, as a matter of historical fact, so it has been. Montaigne himself was given to Platonizing. Nor could the precise hue and shade of skepticism proper to the Platonist be more nicely marked than in the phrase, "the vanity of dogmatizing." Yet so little thought has been bestowed upon Glanvill that it has been left to Dr. Greenslet in this year of grace to inform the public of his affiliations with Cudworth, Henry More, Cumberland, and other contemporary Platonists. A downright Platonist he himself was not.

The Glanvilles came over with the Conqueror; and, beginning with that Glanvil, Chief Justice and Crusader, who first treated of the law of England, they have ever been (if only by chance coincidences) somewhat singular in their inflexible adherence to the outcome of their logic, be it agreeable or otherwise. Even the author of the popular mediæval encyclopædia, 'De Proprietatibus Rerum,' Bartholomæus de Glanville, if his logic served him no other good turn, was delightfully unfailing in the support of his theme that every object in nature conveys a moral lesson. Joseph Glanvill was, before all else, a logician, and an exceedingly sane one. To put the right value upon a man of this stamp, one needs to be alive to the rarity of genuine logical reasoning, if by that we mean proceeding from our premises to a conclusion determined by a rule that, faithfully adhered to in all cases, is manifestly calculated to hasten our approach to the truth. So defined, reasoning is a case of acting upon principle in restraint of our natural inclinations. We all know that real, genuine acting upon principle is exceptional; that at best what is so called is mostly only the working of a good habit, and at its worst of an odious inclination. Just so, what people dignify by the name of their reasonings are mostly mere passages from one judgment to another in a way in which natural bent, habit, experience, the example of the wise, half-unconsciously move them to think. In such fashion, opinion, surging to one side and the other, does, from age to age, lumber along the road to truth, even through the sloughs of great questions, and rattles over firmer ground at a brisk trot. But were mankind disposed to listen to those who adjure them to scrutinize the nature of their methods of thinking, and to consider whether or not they are governed by rules that are necessarily bound to expedite the discovery of truth, perhaps opinion might progress a little faster and with fewer mishaps than it does.

It must have been when Glanvill was in Oxford, where Aristotle's voice still reverberated above all others, that he became dissatisfied with peripateticism. But instead of attacking it in large round style, as Bruno and Ramus were remembered to have done, he brought forward the piddling objection that its leading principles were not sufficiently proved. A Columbia boy of to-day might espouse Hegelianism or any other glittering generality without giving occasion for surprise; but imagine that, not doing anything of that sort, he were to attack the doctrine of the conservation of energy on the cold ground that it was not sufficiently proved, would he not show—supposing it were not affectation—a remarkable impulse to weigh arguments? 'The Vanity of Dogmatizing,' published three years after the author left Oxford, was, in the revised editions, entitled 'Scepsis Scientifica,' doubt in the interest of discovery, hopeful doubt. Poor Glanvill was out in his reckoning, if he ever looked to getting a bishopric or deanery after giving his book such a dreadful title. Its general substance may readily be imagined. One sentence of it is quoted in every history of philosophy, about succession being all of the process of causation that can be directly observed, and the inference of a nexus being a dangerous one. This may have given Hume a hint. Glanvill's point, however, has been mistaken when this remark has been spoken of as an anticipation of Hume. For Glanvill's interest is logical, or in the furtherance of science; Hume's, psychological, or in setting up a theory of science.

After making himself well known by several publications as a "virtuoso," or cultivator of modern experimental science, Glanvill produced his logical *chef d'œuvre*. This is his 'Saducismus Triumphatus,' in which he contends for the reality of witchcraft and of ghosts. It is divided into two parts. In the first, he attacks the position of those who scout such superstitions as absurd and *a priori* impossible, and maintains, on the contrary, that the case should go to the jury to be decided according to the evidence. Almost any reader who was sincerely convinced by that first part would be sure to be completely gained over by the second, in which the evidences themselves are set forth. We mean a contemporary reader; for we shall not pronounce upon what ought to be thought of apparitions now. Grant, for the sake of argument, that all the eminent scientific discoverers who belong to the psychical-research party are superstitious fools. Still, that does not condemn Glanvill's logic. Probable reasoning is not *ipso facto* bad because in the special case it leads to a wrong conclusion. For the question is whether or not it pursues a method which would, in the long run, bring a faithful adherent of it to the truth sooner than another method or unrestrained tendencies of thought would do. If Glanvill accepts testimony too readily, that is not so much due to a defect in his logic as to ignorance of the strange and startling facts about human nature that modern studies of hypnotism and allied phenomena have revealed to us. Even at this day, men who treat the idea of any connection between this world and another as a subject for simple derision, are not those who are best acquainted with the state of the question. At any rate, Glanvill's rare logical sincerity is unmistakably evinced by his advocating with such ardor conclusions to which, as a skeptic and man of science, he must naturally have been averse.

Dr. Greenslet has made a diligent study of his subject, and has put into a compact and entertaining form all that ordinary readers, including students of philosophy and of literature, will generally be particular to know about Glanvill. It cannot be said that Dr. Greenslet is a mind of the sort to comprehend and fully appreciate Glanvill; and his attempts to trip him in his argumentation are serviceable mainly as illustrating the difference in logical grounding between the disputant of the old university and the Doctor in Philosophy of New York. But he presents the man in his proper relation to his environment, omits nothing of great interest, and draws up his account with method, care, and skill. Particularly good is his chapter upon Glanvill as a man of letters, for Glanvill was a writer of no mean skill. His style is so marked that it may be exemplified by a single sentence—a short one like most of his sentences. It is among those given by Greenslet: "He is a wonderful man that can thread a needle when he is at cudgels in a crowd; and yet this is as easy as to find Truth in the hurry of disputation."

The portrait that serves as frontispiece is full of character.

The Machine Abolished, and the People Restored to Power by the Organization of all the People on the Lines of Party Organization. By Charles C. P. Clark, M.D. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1900.

This book consists of two parts: first, an account of a highly ingenious scheme of the author's for getting rid of the "machine"; second, an account of the complete failure (in the only instance in which an attempt has been made) to introduce it, through the active opposition of the "machine" itself. Into the details of the scheme we have not space to go here; it is a substitute for the present caucus and convention system of nominations; the author recognizing, and very eloquently showing, that the roots of the machine difficulty are in our system of nominations. The actual selection of those who administer the Government has fallen into the hands of bosses who, by the law of their being, must put up worse and worse men, and unless the people can recover control of their selection, they are lost; *i. e.*, elections are no longer free. By a combination of lot and selection, the late author thought that he had framed a new system, which would enable a constituency to get its really best representative men into elective office. It is to be said in favor of the plan, historically, that it is founded upon the method of selection believed to have been adopted for the French Constituent Assembly of 1789, which, according to Alison (certainly no friendly witness), contained "a great proportion of the talent and almost all the energy of France."

Having devised this plan, the author, who evidently took a thoroughly practical view of political questions, saw clearly that the only way to establish its value was to put it in practice; and accordingly he proposed to the voters of Oswego, a city of twenty-five thousand people, the adoption of the plan for charter elections. After some discussion and canvassing, the device proved to have so much to recommend it that the petitions to the Legislature in its favor bore the signatures of substantially the whole body of taxpayers and a large majority of the voters. Indeed, there was a close approach to unanimity in the demand for the passage of a bill allowing the city of Oswego to try the plan. There appears to have been no Constitutional objection. The bill, therefore, went to Albany; and there, for eight years, the matter has stood. The politicians who make their living out of the present nominating system, would not allow it to become a law. William H. Sheehan is reported as having said, "If Oswego gets this, other cities will want it; and then what will become of us fellows?" And Oswego has been prevented from getting it by every legislative device known to the astute tricksters who live by and who are the machine.

Now we would not say that this violent opposition of the machine proves Dr. Clarke's case; but it certainly raises a strong presumption in its favor. As a rule, the machine knows its own interest, and it is generally in favor of allowing bills demanded by communities to be passed. In Dr. Clarke's bill it evidently saw something deadly, and this goes to show that his reform would really have accomplished its object. It seems to be peculiarly adapted to local and municipal elections, and we trust that the movement for its introduction as an experiment may yet prevail. Meanwhile, the case deserves to be studied by those who care anything for free institutions, as a striking instance of the oppression of the machine. We are continually asked, What does the machine do to you? How are you oppressed by the bosses? Don't you get three meals a day and a bed to sleep in? Here is an illustration of what those interested in liberty and common right complain of. Here is a whole community insolently debarred from the introduction of a measure for purifying its politics, and making its government more decent, in order that a knot of political managers may continue to live by means of taxes and blackmail. If there be any better way to strangle free institutions and make democracy impossible than a system by which presidents, mayors, governors, legislatures, and even judges are picked out by nominators whose interest it is to make all the functionaries of state their creatures, and who have such power that they can defy the public to introduce any other system, we cannot imagine it.

De la Catégorie des Voix. Par Raoul de la Grasserie. Paris: J. Maisonneuve. 8vo, pp. 273.

This is the latest volume of the author's long series of grammatical monographs entitled "Studies of Comparative Grammar," a series which comprises already about thirty-six treatises on morphology, syntax, etymology, and metrics. He is indifferent to the countries where the languages treated of are spoken, but takes up any foreign form of speech, provided there is enough safe and trustworthy material at hand to work upon.

Voice is a characteristic of the verb, the third essential category with mood and tense. Raoul de la Grasserie defines voice in a general, entirely non-committal manner as "the motion or absence of motion, material or logical, of a being, which produces an act or state (condition), and is produced in space." By a number of restrictions this definition is afterwards reduced to a form which makes it more acceptable, or at least more comprehensible. The various voices subdivide themselves again into two large divisions, the transitive, which the author prefers to call *voix relative*, and the intransitive, to which he gives the appellation of *voix absolue*. The middle voice, which does not occur in the languages of modern Europe as a synthetic, but merely as an analytic form, compounded by means of auxiliary verbs, is defined by our author as being "simultaneously passive and active, both in regard to intellectual activity and to purely mental operations; such operations do not transcend the human being to make themselves felt or understood, but remain within, and hence cannot be called transitive." Many languages spoken beyond the limits of Europe possess voice-forms which can hardly be expressed by our historical grammatical terminology, but require new designations altogether. So our author endeavors to supply this deficiency, and for the transitive voice, whether "primitive" or "normal," establishes fifteen subordinate voices, among which may be quoted obviative voice; locative and applicative voice; denominative, causative, and factitive voice; superfactitive, comitative voice, and voice implying a plural subject or object (pp. 43, 44).

The great wealth of information contained in this volume renders difficult any comparison of its statements with those of the sources which have furnished the almost infinite number of data. We have noticed that in what is said of an Oregonian language on pp. 131, 133, the proofreading falls very far short of correctness.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adler, Cyrus. The American Jewish Year-Book, 5661. Philadelphia: The Jewish Publication Society of America.
Bangs, John Kendrick. The Idiot at Home. Harpers. $1.25.
Barrett, Charles Raymond. Short-Story Writing. The Baker & Taylor Co. $1.
Barton, W. E. The Prairie Schooner. Boston: W. A. Wilde & Co. $1.50.
Bayne, Charles J. The Fall of Utopia. Boston: Eastern Publishing Co. $1.
Bell, Lillian. The Expatriates. Harpers. $1.50.
Bierwirth, H. C. The Elements of German. Henry Holt & Co. $1.25.
Blanchard, Amy E. A Daughter of Freedom. Boston: W. A. Wilde & Co. $1.50.
Bonner, Geraldine. "Hard-Pan." Century Co. $1.50.
Bower, Marian. John Thisselton. H. Holt & Co.
Brady, C. T. Commodore Paul Jones. D. Appleton & Co.
Brady, C. T. American Fights and Fighters. McClure, Phillips & Co. $1.50.
Brooks, E. S. The Century Book of the American Colonies. Century Co. $1.50.
Brooks, Elbridge S. The Godson of Lafayette. Boston: W. A. Wilde & Co. $1.50.
Browne, Frances. Granny's Wonderful Chair and its Tales of Fairy Times. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.
Browning, Robert. The Statue and the Bust. John Lane. 50 cents.
Butler, H. C. Scotland's Ruined Abbeys. Macmillan. $2.50.
Cannon, J. G. Clearing-Houses: Their History, Methods, and Administration. D. Appleton & Co.
Canton, William (editor). The Reign of King Herla. (The True Annals of Fairyland.) Illustrated by Charles Robinson. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Carnegie, Andrew. The Gospel of Wealth, and Other Timely Essays. Century Co. $2.
Carter, Mary Nelson. North Carolina Sketches. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
Chadwick, Rev. J. W. Theodore Parker: Preacher and Reformer. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Chambers, Stracey. The Rhodesians: Sketches of English South African Life. John Lane. $1.25.
Clark, Mrs. H. A. The Silent Prince. American Tract Society. $1.
Dew-Smith, Alice. The Diary of a Dreamer. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Diary of Samuel Pepys (1660-1661). (Cassell's National Library.) Cassell & Co. 10c.
Douglas, Amanda M. Almost as Good as a Boy. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.25.
Dresser, H. W. Education and the Philosophical Ideal. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
Drysdale, William. The Treasury Club. Boston: W. A. Wilde & Co. $1.50.
Farnham, Charles Haight. A Life of Francis Parkman. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Foster, John W. A Century of American Diplomacy. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Freeman-Mitford, A. B. The Attaché at Peking. Macmillan. $2.
Gentry, J. G. Intelligence in Plants and Animals. Doubleday, Page & Co. $2.
Griffis, W. E. The Pathfinders of the Revolution. Boston: W. A. Wilde & Co. $1.50.
Harben, Will N. Northern Georgia Sketches. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Harlan, Esther. The Story of a Beech Tree. E. P. Dutton & Co. 75 cents.
Hazlitt, W. Carew. The Venetian Republic. 2 vols. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan. $12.
Iliowizi, Henry. The Weird Orient: Nine Mystic Tales. Philadelphia: Henry T. Coates & Co. $1.50.
Jackson, Gabrielle E. Pretty Polly Perkins. Century Co. $1.50.
James, Robert Kent. The Angora Cat: How to Breed, Train, and Keep It. Boston: James Bros. $1.25.
Kelly, Florence F. With Hoops of Steel. Indianapolis: Bowen-Merrill Co.
King James VI. and I. A Royal Rhetorician. Edited by Robert S. Rait. Brentano. $1.25.
King, K. Douglas. Ursula. John Lane. $1.50.
Lang, Andrew. Prince Charles Edward. Paris: Goupil & Co.; New York: Scribners. $20.
Lee, Albert. King Stork of the Netherlands. D. Appleton & Co.
Mason, Caroline A. A Woman of Yesterday. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.50.
Mitchell, S. Weir. Hugh Wynne. In one volume. Century Co. $1.
Mott, J. R. The Evangelization of the World in this Generation. Student Volunteer Movement for Foreign Missions.
Newcomb, Simon. His Wisdom the Defender. Harpers. $1.50.
Nippold, Friedrich. The Papacy in the 19th Century. Translated by L. H. Schwab. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2.50.
Opper, F. The Folks in Funnyville. R. H. Russell.
Otis, James. Lobster Catches. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.
Page, Thomas Nelson. The Old Gentleman of the Black Stock. Scribners. $1.50.
Parks, S. C. The Great Trial of the Nineteenth Century. Kansas City, Mo.: Hudson-Kimberly Publishing Company.
Raymond, Evelyn. Reels and Spindles. Boston: W. A. Wilde & Co. $1.50.
Reid, Sydney. Josie and the Chipmunk. Century Co. $1.50.
Robertson, J. M. Patriotism and Empire. London: Grant Richards. 3s. 6d.
Roosevelt, Theodore. The Strenuous Life. Century Co. $1.50.
Serviss, Garrett P. The Moon Metal. Harpers. $1.
Seton-Thompson, Ernest. The Wild Animal Play for Children. Doubleday, Page & Co. 50c.
Shaler, N. S. The Individual: A Study of Life and Death. D. Appleton & Co.
Shiel, M. P. Cold Steel. Brentano. $1.50.
Shipp, Margaret. "Beautiful Thoughts" from Robert and Elizabeth Browning. New York: James Pott & Co. 75c.
Stevenson, R. L. A Christmas Sermon. Scribners. 50 cents.
St. Nicholas Book of Plays and Operettas. Century Co. $1.
Strong, Josiah. Expansion: Under New World Conditions. The Baker & Taylor Co. $1.
Sutherland, Evelyn Greenleaf. Po' White Trash, and Other One-Act Dramas. Chicago: H. S. Stone & Co.
The Power-Holding Class versus The Public: Imaginary Dialogue of McKinley and Hanna. Newport, R. I.: The Brotherhood of Liberty. 25c.
Thorpe, E. J. E. Speech-Hesitation. New York: Edgar S. Werner Publishing and Supply Co. $1.
Turnbull, Mrs. Lawrence. The Golden Book of Venice: A Historical Romance of the 16th Century. Century Co. $1.50.
Turner, A. Womanly Beauty of Form and Feature. New York: Health Culture Co. $1.
Van Dyke, Prof. H. The Poetry of the Psalms. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 60c.
Waddell, Major L. A. Among the Himalayas. New ed. London: Archibald Constable & Co.; Philadelphia: Lippincotts.
Warren, C. The Girl and the Governor. Scribners. $1.50.
Waters, R. Flashes of Wit and Humor. New York: Edgar S. Werner Publishing and Supply Co. $1.
Watson, H. B. Marriott. Chloris of the Island. Harpers. $1.50.
Wells, H. G. Love and Mr. Lewisham. Frederick A. Stokes Co. $1.50.
Westbrook, Dr. Henrietta W. The Actor's Child: A Study of Heredity or Ante-Natal Influences. New York: Peter Eckler. $1.
Whibley, Charles. The Pageantry of Life. Harpers. $1.50.
White, Eliza Orne. Ednah and her Brothers. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Willoughby, W. W. Social Justice: A Critical Essay. Macmillan. $3.

children must grow up to womanhood and manhood. If matters are to improve after getting worse, surely the time for the turn of the tide is at hand. In the light of Mr. Matthews's statistics, our "colonists" may well fear for their future, and dread the character of the civilization which is to be forced down their throats. The Administration should see to it that *Harper's Weekly* has no circulation in Manila.

No further explanation is needed of the fall in foreign exchange, and the reluctant surrender of European bank gold for America, than Monday's statement of September's foreign trade. Briefly summed up, it shows that total merchandise exports from the United States last month were by far larger than in any corresponding month in our history, and that the month's excess of exports over imports was $56,000,000, against an export excess of only $39,000,000 in September, 1899, and an actual excess of imports as lately as 1895. In the nine completed months of the current year, not only have exports increased by the enormous sum of $129,000,000, but the surplus of exports over imports has run $90,000,000 beyond last year. These are large figures; it is doubtful if any such sudden expansion has ever been witnessed in the history of trade.

What makes the comparison with last year still more striking is the fact that while imports show signs of steady decrease (they were $11,000,000 less last month than in 1899), exports are mounting up now with greater rapidity than ever. Our September shipments of other than agricultural products rose $4,300,000 above a year ago. The value of cotton exports increased $3,100,000 in September, and trade estimates indicate that in the two completed weeks of the current month the value of cotton actually shipped from this country to Europe is $12,000,000 greater than that exported in the same fortnight of 1899. These astonishing figures force again into consideration the question, how and when this unprecedented balance is to be liquidated. European holdings of our stocks and bonds have already been practically sold back to us, excepting such as are held for permanent investment. The investment of our own capitalists in European securities is as a drop in the bucket compared with our total apparent credit. The situation, prolonged as it has been, is so new to commercial history that the shrewdest expert on international finance finds it difficult to forecast the future.

What wages the anthracite miners have been earning is a question which cannot be answered in a word. Individual pay-checks are not significant, *because the miners'* wage is a piece wage, and so allowance has to be made for the personal equation; an inefficient or shiftless man earning less in proportion as he is so. This is well illustrated by three pay-checks given in last week's *Outlook*. The amounts earned in a month range from minus $11.81 after all deductions in one case, to a cash balance in favor of the miner in another case of $63.76. A staff correspondent of the *Outlook*, after careful investigation, estimated average net earnings of skilled men classed as miners at about $37.50 per month. The miners during the past decade have averaged about three weeks' work per month. Average earnings of all employees are estimated at slightly over $300, or $25 per month. According to official Federal reports, there has been a decline in average wages from $382 in 1870 to $321 in 1880, and to $316 in 1890. It is recognized by the operators that the question is not one of daily wages. The crying evil in the situation is the few days worked in the course of a year. In a word, there are more miners than are required to produce the amount of coal annually consumed in the community. This condition has resulted largely from the disposition of the miner to cling to his own trade, however ill he may fare at it.

The miners are in a fair way to suffer immediately some of the consequences of their action during the strike in forcing men to quit work who were under an agreement to submit all questions to arbitration. This they ought to have foreseen. The operators now say they will not agree to arbitration. Why should they? they ask; it would be a one-sided agreement, and only the operators would be bound by it. John Markle had a written agreement with each of his men to arbitrate all grievances. The men were perfectly satisfied with the provisions, and had all signed the agreement, which they all broke at the bidding of their leader, John Mitchell. The operators say that they have made their proposition, and that it is left to the men to accept or reject. Since the men have manifested their readiness to quit work whenever they like, and to disregard agreements as the fancy pleases them, and since they can give no guarantee for good faith in the future which they have not violated in the past, the operators assert that they have no choice. If they should agree to arbitrate, it would be a mere formality of no significance, and they could not be expected themselves in the future to abide by the terms of any agreement they might make with their men. To enter into agreements with men who do not understand the obligation of an agreement, is putting one's faith in a rope of sand.

American missionaries and missionary boards have resented with just indignation the ignorant flings at missionary life and labor in China, as being really responsible for the Chinese hatred of foreigners. One of the speakers at the American Board meeting in St. Louis declared with some heat, but with much truth, that foreign aggressions upon China, and especially the "stealing of land" in China, were a much more likely root of bitterness. Much more likely, say we, too; and yet it is a curious fact that missionaries are to-day among the most ardent in urging the United States to lose no time in "stealing" some land away from the Chinese. Thus, even the venerable Dr. Martin of Pekin thinks that "we ought to take [convey the wise it call] the fine island of Hainan." He apparently wants this country to surrender its advantage of so much as appearing to the Chinese to be disinterested. But taking a fine island is moderation itself compared with the grandiose schemes for doing people good by robbing them of their property which are entertained and expounded by Bishop Thoburn of the Methodist Church. He has discovered that it is "God's manifest plan" to "do away with small nations," and to leave in the world "only six or seven great empires." What particular sauce the small nations may prefer to be eaten with, the good Bishop did not specify. His idea seems to be that his six or seven great empires will live in a kind of Mohammedan Paradise of peace, if for no other reason, because gluttony will have made them torpid.

It is difficult to avoid the conclusion that the greatest single obstacle to peace in China is, at present, the *intransigeant* attitude of Germany. The United States is withdrawing military pressure, and is saying on every occasion, as again in answer to the French note, "Yes, yes, that is all very well, but when are we going to begin negotiating?" Russia is studiously playing the rôle of China's best friend. Grant that her professions are insincere, and that she wishes simply to nurse the sick man along until he gets ready to make a will declaring Russia residuary legatee; it is none the less true that Russia's Chinese policy is distinctly peaceful. So is Japan's. Italy limps after the Dreibund in China as in Europe. France is not willing to let Germany have all the *gloire*, so she joins the German-led "punitive expedition." The English troops go along as being old hands at the punitive business, and able to show the greenhorns how to do it. But it is to Germany that the primacy belongs in aggression and mischief-making. For what purpose did the expeditionary force set out for Pao-Ting-Fu on Thursday? For vengeance. There had taken place in that city a bloody massacre of innocent foreigners. Therefore, there must now take place there a still bloodier massacre of a still greater number of innocent Chinese. It is a horrid and sickening spectacle which these emissaries of civilization are preparing for Christendom. There is no question here of rescuing beleaguered Europeans; it is just a vengeful slaughter that is contemplated, the city to be made an heap, men and women killed indiscriminately, and little ones dashed against a stone. It is a fine way of placating the Chinese, and making them more ready to be hospitable to Western learning and religion! A noble *Præparatio Evangelica* these Christian nations are planning! Thank Heaven, this new blood-guiltiness does not stain America's skirts.

There is a great deal that is encouraging in the recent decision of the Court of Appeals in the case of State Senator Coffey of Brooklyn against the Kings County Democratic Committee. It indicates that the courts will protect the will of the voters, not only when expressed at a general election, but also when expressed in the manner provided by law in regard to the control and management of parties. It points out the way in which the voters of a party who are opposed to boss rule may weaken, if they cannot overthrow, the power of the ring. It is the most liberal interpretation of the primary law which could have been hoped for, and it ought to result in a more general and more intelligent participation, by persons who have heretofore held aloof, in the primary contests. The facts of the case were these: Senator Coffey, who had been regularly elected, under the new primary law, to membership in the Kings County Democratic Committee, about a year ago bolted a Democratic nominee for a county office. For this action he was expelled from the Committee by the vote of a majority of its members. He applied to the Supreme Court for a writ of mandamus compelling the Committee to restore him to membership. The decision of the Supreme Court was in his favor, but it was reversed by the Appellate Division. The case was carried to the Court of Appeals, with the result that the decision of the lower court was affirmed, reversing the decision of the Appellate Division.

In the prevailing opinion of the Court of Appeals, prepared by Chief Judge Parker, two points of general interest and importance are made: first, that a member of a general political County Committee cannot be removed from office by the votes of a majority of the Committee; and, second, that the will of a majority of the persons voting at a primary election for members of a Committee may not be overridden by the Committee itself. In other words, the absolute control of the party machinery can no longer be held by the boss and his gang, provided enough voters who are opposed to methods of political tyranny and dictation will attend the primaries and elect their representatives in the manner prescribed by law. In an interesting review of legislation in favor of the purity of the ballot which the Chief Judge incorporates in his opinion, he points out that the mere prevention of frauds in general elections is not enough to insure an expression of their independent will on the part of the voters. He rightly asserts that the voter, in order to have any real voice in the selection of public officers, must also have his say in the matter of party policy and management and nomination. For this purpose the Primary Law has been evolved, through a long line of more or less beneficial legislation. But the right to express their will would be of little value to the party voters if a machine majority on a committee might overthrow it. The decision seems at least to place in the hands of men who are disposed to be independent in their action within their party, a weapon with which they may harass, if they may not overthrow, the tyrants of the machine.

A decision bearing upon the question of Federal interference in a State in case of such disorder as prevailed in Chicago during the railway strike of 1894, and in the Cœur d'Alêne mining district of Idaho last year, was made a few days ago by the United States Circuit Court of Appeals in San Francisco. Ten of the Idaho strikers had been arrested and indicted for conspiracy in seizing and interrupting a train bearing United States mails, and upon conviction were sentenced to imprisonment for nearly two years apiece and $1,000 fines. They have now been released on the ground that the indictment was faulty in failing to allege that they knew that the train which they seized was carrying United States mails. They were charged with an offence against the United States in their action, but the Court held that it is not in itself such an offence to hinder and delay the passage of a train over a railway which carries United States mails. It only becomes such when the train in question carries a mail and the conspirators know that it does. In this case the Court admitted that it might be that all the conspirators had such knowledge, or that the facts and circumstances shown in the evidence were sufficient to charge them with such knowledge, but that this did not dispense with the necessity of setting forth in the indictment all the elements of the wrongful act which they conspired to commit. It will be seen that the right of Federal interference is maintained, but that it must be exercised with the greatest care.

The French Socialist Congress wrestled manfully with one knotty question: May a Socialist take office? It was really a personal question, centring about the action of M. Millerand, a leader among French Socialists, in accepting a portfolio in the Waldeck-Rousseau Ministry. How is this to be reconciled with the fundamental Socialist doctrine that all existing governments are rotten, deserving only to be spit upon and crushed? Yet there was the ugly fact of a Socialist in a bourgeois Cabinet; and the Congress was driven to subtleties. Instead of answering yes or no, it answered yes and no. It passed a resolution declaring that "a Socialist should never accept office [that begins well], except in very urgent cases, and with the assent of his party." The eloquent M. Jaurès came forward in the rôle of Monsieur Distinguo, and carried the Congress with him. "Is it not," he demanded, "the principle of the struggle of class against class which is the essence of Socialism, and does not this principle forbid a Socialist to take any share in a bourgeois government?" "Undoubtedly," said the Congress. "But can you not conceive a case in which such participation may be necessary?" "Certainly," replied the Congress. So Millerand, being the "case," keeps his seat in the Cabinet without losing his standing as a good Socialist. Perhaps he is also able to keep a straight face, though outsiders find it difficult.

The Agrarians in Germany have had their fling at the speculators, and are now finding their Anti-Option Law something of a boomerang. Suppression of sales by commission for future delivery has not had the effect of steadying the market, which, during the entire period that the law has been operative, has been characterized by rigidity and maladjustment of supply to demand. This maladjustment is well shown by the action of the German farmers in 1897-98, when, "being all at sea as to the harvests of other countries," they sold a large part of their crop for exportation, thereby creating a deficit which had to be filled later by importation from the United States and Russia. It is estimated that prohibition of legitimate speculation in this instance kept the price of grain from $6 to $10 per metric ton below where it would otherwise have been. Since the law was passed, the price of wheat has ranged from 180 marks ($42.84) to 270 marks ($64.26) per metric ton, and the law has been absolutely inoperative to check these fluctuations, which naturally react upon actual supplies in hand or in sight. German Agrarians have yet to learn that not all speculation in futures is wicked gambling; that speculation in futures as often helps the farmer as it does the community at large; and that such speculation is a legitimate assumption of risks. "Manipulating" and "cornering" the market are very different matters. They are not, properly speaking, speculation at all.

"SUPPORTING" M'KINLEY.

Everybody must have noticed how the men who come forward to announce their determination to vote for McKinley, do so with an apologetic air. They usually begin by saying that they hope no one will suppose that he is their "first choice," or that they think him, *per se*, fit for the Presidency. This is especially the case with those who speak as representatives of the intelligent classes. To save their own reputation for intelligence, they have to include in their "support" of McKinley an amount of personal and political condemnation of their candidate which would seem positively insulting to a less meek man than he. "Understand," they say, "we know as well as you do that his convictions are made up for him as regularly as his bed is; that he can turn himself inside out or upside down at the word of command; that his Administration has been marred by frightful mistakes—and still, on the whole, we mean to vote for him. He is the lesser evil."

Yet so low is the Republican estate that the party managers hail such accessions with rapture. These left-handed compliments they seize upon delightedly as proof that the party has not, after all, driven away all intelligence or affronted every conscience. "See," they gleefully exclaim, "Mr. Ottendorfer is with us. To be sure, he says McKinley is a vermicular man, who ought never to have been thought of for the Presidency, and whose Administration has been a wretched failure. Mr. Ottendorfer may not vote for him, but, anyhow, he is against Bryan. What a triumph that is for our candidate!" They even pounce with joy upon the pronouncement of the Rev. Dr. Bacon against Bryan, although in the very same letter he said of McKinley: "We cannot tell where to find him in any future emergency, but may calculate, with much probability, on finding him in contradiction to his avowed principles." And this is called "supporting" a man for the Presidency!

The truth is, there has seldom been a candidate for President whose personality was such a drag upon his canvass. The veriest idolaters and myth-makers cannot picture McKinley as a hero or a leader. He is running for office purely on the badness of his opponent. Ask frank Republicans their opinion of the outcome if it were Cleveland against McKinley. They will admit that their man would be nowhere. Far from kindling enthusiasm and carrying a cause with him in inspiring leadership, he calls for apologies instead of for cheers, and is a dead weight upon the cause—the gold standard—which has to carry *him*. This is an awful break with our Presidential traditions. Personality has notoriously always counted for much with Americans. They like to swear by names rather than measures. They often make a popular hero out of the most refractory material. Four years ago many of them persuaded themselves that they could see an heroic feature or two in McKinley. But they have given it up now. They will take him, if they do at all, shudderingly, and as a forced but dreaded alternative.

Gov. Roosevelt, on his return to this State, will be expected to "bring words of cheer from the great West," where he has been campaigning. If he were to give a truthful impression of the figure which McKinley is actually cutting in the canvass, his report would be something like this:

> "I am glad to be able to assure you, Republicans of New York, that the Lesser Evil is running like wild-fire over the prairies. In the most intelligent circles, I found an earnest conviction that McKinley is not quite so bad as Bryan. And the plain people are equally enthusiastic about our peerless leader. One monster parade, which I reviewed, bore a McKinley banner on which was inscribed the inspiring words, 'Our Medicine. We hate it, but we are going to take it.' In Chicago the vast audience which packed the Auditorium was thrilled when a picture of McKinley was unveiled, underneath which was written, 'The Nation's Choice—of Evils.' And I assure you, fellow-Republicans, that even I have seldom roused such frantic applause as I did in St. Louis when I called for three cheers for McKinley, and added the sentiment, 'We love him for the blunders he has made!' "

We would not be thought to jest about what is really a very serious matter. Inability to respect a candidate for its highest office is little short of a disaster for a democracy. It often suffers strange delusions about public men, falls down before images with feet of clay, and all that; but that is better than the political dejection which comes from the general conviction that voting is reduced to a balancing of dangers, and a choice between two unworthy personalities. "Vote as you shot," used to be the shibboleth. "Vote as you pray," was another. This year the watchword is, "Vote as you take medicine." That is not a healthful or hopeful state of a democratic body politic. Casting a ballot in the spirit in which you would get a prescription filled, is a poor substitute for the old proud way of "executing a freeman's will." It will not be an inspiring sight on election day—the number of good citizens who will be seen coming from the polls with pain and illness written on their faces, and who will explain their melancholy and distress by saying that they had been voting for McKinley.

One compensating feature of this campaign of the lesser evil is that even McKinley himself, on reading the terrible things said of him by his supporters, must begin to be aware that something is wrong. People have talked a good deal about "punishing" McKinley. Some have said that they mean to vote solely to punish him. But his punishment has already begun. To a man as vain as he is, it must sometimes seem a punishment greater than he can bear. His own idea of the campaign was that it was to be one long laudation of his person. He sent on from Washington to Philadelphia a platform pitched in a key of the grossest adulation of his noble self. First he had the mortification of seeing his own party's stomach unable to stand that dose. His self-praise was ruthlessly cut out of the platform. Then he has seen his personality steadily retire into the background, until his name has come to be mentioned with apologies which are themselves cutting indictments, and the Rupert he thought himself has been reduced to the humiliating rôle of the Lesser Evil. His only hope of election lies in the fact that people, echoing Candide's famous cry about the best of worlds, will exclaim in horror, "If McKinley is the Lesser Evil, what must Bryan be!"

EX-PRESIDENT HARRISON ON PORTO RICO.

Ex-President Harrison rendered an important public service, and expressed a large share of public opinion, in the few words which he said last week on the present political campaign. He announced his support of the Republican nominees for the same reasons that he gave when McKinley and Bryan were candidates four years ago. But he added that he did not approve of the bill for the government of Porto Rico. He regarded it at the time of its passage as "a grave departure from right principles." He went on to say:

> "I still think so: I do not believe that the legislative power of Congress in the Territories is absolute, and I do believe that the revenue clause, relating to duties and imports, applies to Porto Rico. These views, I know, are not held by many able lawyers. It is a legal question—one that the political departments of the Government cannot finally adjudge. The final and controlling word upon this question is with the Supreme Court of the United States. Cases involving the question are, I understand, pending, and a decision, in which we must all acquiesce, cannot be much deferred. I think, therefore, that voters ought to vote with a view to the right decision of those questions that are directly and finally in control of the President and Congress."

These words put Mr. Harrison in the ranks of the Anti-Imperialists, of the class to which Senators Hoar and Hale and Representatives McCall and Littlefield belong, for, although he says nothing about the Philippines, the same principles which he applies to Porto Rico apply to all of our colonial possessions. Moreover, if the Constitution requires uniformity of taxes, duties, and trade regulations in and among all the States, Territories, and places belonging to us, it is difficult to see why it does not carry to the newly acquired countries all the rights of citizenship which are common to the inhabitants of the United States.

Mr. Harrison does not say what course of political action he should follow if the Supreme Court should decide as a matter of law that the Constitution does not require uniform taxes, duties, and trade regulations in all territory covered by our flag. Such a decision would still leave it open to all citizens to advocate the passage of laws to cover that defect and to fill that vacuum. It would not be necessary to amend the Constitution in that particular, but merely to apply by Congressional enactment the principle of equality of rights which forms the groundwork of our system of government. In such an endeavor we should count as confidently on the moral support and active coöperation of ex-President Harrison as on that of Senator Hoar, or of Carl Schurz, or ex-Gov. Boutwell. The real significance of Mr. Harrison's interview lies in the fact that he speaks for a host of people who, although they cannot see their way clear to support Mr. Bryan in this campaign, intend to fight against Imperialism to the end of their lives if need be, because they believe it to be a virus in a republican system of government.

We are told that Imperialism is a bugbear and a myth, that there is no such thing, that it exists only in the imagination. Evidently this is not Mr. Harrison's view. He considers the Porto Rican bill not a mere misinterpretation of a fiscal clause in the Constitution, but "a grave departure from right principles." What can this be but an attempt to govern people without giving them a share in the government, to impose taxation on them without representation? What else has Imperialism consisted of, from the dawn of history till now? Athens was a republic that adopted Imperialism. She attempted to rule other peoples without giving them any voice in public affairs, but only a municipal control, subject to her own whims. She imposed taxation without representation. She became greedy, she raised up enemies to herself, and she fell into ruin. It is needless to recall Imperialism and the hideous course it ran in the Roman republic, except to say that those who call it a bugbear and a myth are unfamiliar with the world's history.

It is safe to promise Mr. McKinley and his party as vigorous a fight after the election as they have had at any time since the treaty of peace with Spain was ratified. It is fair to expect, also, that some mouths which have been closed by party exigency heretofore will be opened as soon as the smoke of battle rolls away. It is well known that Senator Spooner and Congressman Cannon have never approved the policy of the Administration in the Philippines. They are representative men, and it is believed that they have a following, both in and out of Congress, that will make its influence felt as soon as the discipline which the present campaign imposes is relaxed. Perhaps ex-President Harrison will then feel at liberty to go a little deeper into this subject than he did last week, and tell us what he thinks of Imperialism in general. Having already reached the highest honors his country can give, he is now above the suspicion of unworthy motives and beyond the reach of calumny. His influence among Republicans is probably greater to-day than that of any other man in private life. The country would listen to him with rapt attention. Surely he could have no fairer opportunity to be of service to the present and to coming generations of his countrymen.

CONQUERORS AND CONQUERED.

The verdict of science on Imperialism is only beginning to be pronounced. The question has, so far, been passed upon mainly by national pride and by greed, flaunting in the thin disguise of philanthropy and the "mission of the higher races." What science has yet more clearly to tell the world is, what is to become of the higher races in contact with the lower; what the effect of conquest is upon conqueror and conquered; what racial gains and losses are involved in the forcing of foreign rule and foreign civilization upon Malay and Arab, Chinaman and Kaffir. It is a matter clearly falling within the purview of ethnography; and accordingly we find the Congress of Ethnographical Sciences at the Paris Exposition giving attention to this important subject. One of the papers read before it was a calm discussion by M. Leclère of the reciprocal moral effects upon each other of a conquering in touch with a conquered race.

In a word, M. Leclère's conclusion is that conquest is bad for both races. Remember, he is speaking purely as a scientist. About trade he says nothing; all the windy talk about being a "world-power" he passes by in silence; the hypocrisies and excuses of conquerors are not for him. Fixing his eye solely upon the one question of the race-effects of conquest, he pronounces them an almost unrelieved evil. You may have to invade Asia or Africa by force of arms in order to get trade; only, do not forget, says M. Leclère, that in the process you impair the fibre of your race. It may be necessary for a *Weltmacht* to send its armies and its administrators into deserts and swamps over-sea; be that as it may for the politician, the scientist sees in it only a serious endangering of those national qualities which have raised a country to the rank of a world-power. To the ethnographer, a well-marked race is like a rare species of plant or animal. He notes the conditions under which it has been brought to perfection. He points out the environment which it needs for continuance in full vigor, and warns against the surroundings which mean its enfeeblement and decay. And it is the sober judgment of M. Leclère that conquest, under modern conditions, means decadence of the conquering race, demoralization and ruin of the conquered race.

This is a cold douche for science to pour upon our hot and heady Imperialism; but the truth must be told. And the mass of evidence ready to the ethnographer's hand is overwhelming. Accumulated experience enables him to trace the process as if it were an experiment in a laboratory. First comes the physical deterioration on both sides. The conqueror succumbs to new diseases, to the strain of an unaccustomed climate, or else survives with weakened powers. The conquered perish like flies. It is not merely that they fall like grain before the vices of civilization; civilization itself kills them. Its breath slays them. Like wild animals under domestication, they expire through very deprivation of their savage life. "They die by looking at us," said a French sailor. This is an old story. What lends chief value to M. Leclère's paper is its close analysis of the subtle interchange—a sort of moral osmosis—which goes on between the higher conquering race and the lower conquered race. It is, in general, a give-and-take of what is bad in each.

Bagehot long ago observed that "the union of the Englishman and the Hindu produces something not only between races, but between moralities." We have but to study the Dutch in Java, the Germans in Africa, the French in Annam. the Americans in the Philippines, to see what is meant. The foreign ruler is under a powerful temptation to throw off the moral restraints under which he has lived at home. Why should he observe moral conventions, which are largely social conventions, when they do not obtain in the community where he is living? His power being usually arbitrary, he makes it violent and brutal, so as to bring it sharply home to men accustomed to cruelty. Fitzjames Stephen tried to introduce rules of evidence in the Indian criminal code. "What is the use?" it was objected. "We can get any evidence we need by rubbing pepper into a man's eyes." Such cynical indifference and brutality are the commonest effect of full and irresponsible power when conferred upon members of a civilized race set to keep a turbulent lower race in order. They begin by decivilizing themselves. They become subdued to the element in which they work. It is one of the forms of terrible revenge which the conquered take. They perish, but in their death they poison the life of their conquerors. The history of tropical colonization is one long *væ victoribus!*

M. Leclère shows with appalling clearness how necessarily demoralizing are even the well-meant attempts of civilized races to benefit savage peoples. The first effect of bringing in a new standard of morals, of preaching a new religion—especially when this is done by conquerors possessing themselves of the country—is to loosen the bonds which hold native society together. It is a commonplace of the Christian pulpit that, if our religious faith were to be destroyed, morality would disappear and men would fly at each other's throats. Yet precisely that is what we undertake to bring about in heathen countries; and we are surprised when like results follow like causes. Look at what we are doing in China to-day. We are ruthlessly desecrating the things most sacred to Chinamen. We are making a mock of their religion, their legislation, their morality. And then we are pained and indignant when we find them untruthful, cruel, and murderous! We go elaborately to work in a wholesale way to do in China what we admit would, if done in America, lead straight to social anarchy, and then we say—even missionaries say—that we must kill a lot more Chinamen because they are acting like anarchists. This is not sweet reasonableness.

We cannot stop to speak of M. Leclère's exposure of the lying reports of French colonial Governors. They always represent the natives as now fully ready to "accept civilization." We have already too long a line of official Philippine absurdities of that kind to make it possible for us to cast a stone at the French. Accepting civilization, however, we see to mean, from the standpoint of ethnography, accepting physical and moral death. And for conquerors the question is, Are they willing to accept barbarism? It has been said of the Chinese that they have, in the end, always conquered their conquerors. Is it to be true of the higher races of to-day that, going forth to conquer, they return on the moral level of the races they have conquered? This is a searching question which science puts to our glib Imperialists.

CHANGES AT WEST POINT.

The just published report of the Board of Visitors to the West Point Military Academy for 1900 might well have made more than a brief reference to the great change in the educational methods of that institution under its present management, and particularly during the incumbency of the present Commandant of Cadets, Lieut.-Col. Otto T. Hein, an officer of the First Cavalry. It is a striking fact that only within the last two years has the military efficiency of a cadet, which means so much to his future army life, been taken into account in determining his standing upon graduation. Still stranger is the fact that, for the first time in a century, West Point is now beginning to turn out young officers trained in the habit of command and in practical military exercises instead of graduating, as hitherto, men merely conversant with company drills and imbued with a sound knowledge of the "bookish theoretic" of the art of war.

To those who have regarded the West Point curriculum as beyond improvement, the statement that a cadet's training was formerly confined merely to class-room work and to the most elementary drills, must seem astonishing.

For decades past the young lieutenant who joined his regiment fresh from West Point found himself utterly at a loss, despite the fact that he held the diploma of the most successful military school in the world. If he had been one of the few cadet officers, he was able to drill a company with ease. His classmate, who carried a rifle as a private throughout his four years, was less fortunate and less experienced. Neither was able to put his company under canvas, because neither had ever seen a tent raised. Neither was able to assist his captain in the detailed and exhausting paper work required of a company commander, because neither had ever seen the endless reports, rosters, requisitions, and returns required of that officer. Either might have forced upon him over night, as often happened, the duties of post adjutant, signal officer, ordnance officer, and of acting quartermaster in charge of Government property worth hundreds of thousands of dollars, without any more practical experience of those various duties than the latest appointee from civil life totally devoid of previous military experience.

If his troop or company were suddenly marched out on strike duty, or because of an Indian uprising, the new lieutenant went along to learn the fundamentals of his duty from grizzled non-commissioned officers or his commissioned superiors. If the command intrenched itself, he saw intrenchments for the first time. If it deployed for action, he found his place on the firing-line only when told where to go or because of Anglo-Saxon intuition; in his four years at West Point he had never seen an attack formation, much less participated in one as a responsible officer.

This state of affairs Col. Hein and his officers have ended, with the sanction of the two Superintendents who have been at West Point since 1897. The supreme aim of turning out an officer trained to meet every emergency of actual service now regulates the purely military education of the cadet. Instead of having to go through the same drills, rifle on shoulder, with which he became familiar in the first six weeks of his stay at the Academy, up to the day of graduation, the cadet varies his "close order," or company and battalion, drills with "practical exercises." He masters the handling of a mountain-gun battery, a gatling-gun battery, and a mortar battery, and awaits only the arrival of siege and coast-defence guns to add their intricacies to his knowledge of the handling of a mounted field battery. On his now regular practice marches, the cadet grooms, saddles, and unsaddles his cavalry or artillery horse, raises his own tent, and "packs" his baggage-mules, as if to the cowboy manner born. As an infantryman, he is no longer confined to parade-ground manœuvres, but has his fill of open-order drills, attack formations, picket and guard and reconnoissance duty, while the same target work is required of him which is expected of the ordinary soldier.

The most important changes of all are those by virtue of which the cadet is now trained in responsibility and command, and is marked during his senior, or first-class, year upon his military efficiency. By a careful system of rotation each cadet is given the opportunity to fill practically every officer's position in the battalion. He must act as adjutant, as captain, as major, as lieutenant of cavalry, artillery, and infantry, as officer of the day and of the guard, and as instructor of the junior cadets, so that no duty will be strange to him when he enters the regular service. Upon the way in which he conducts himself at each one of these drills, upon his knowledge, his bearing, his voice, his ability to teach others, etc., each instructor passes and hands in a mark. The average of all the grades counts towards determining the rank of the cadet and so the branch of the service to which he will be assigned, although the percentage credited to military efficiency is still but a very small part of the cadet's mark for the whole course, or even for the senior year.

These changes at West Point were introduced by an officer conversant with the latest European military advances. A few years ago it was often impossible to get an older regular officer to admit that American military methods could be improved upon. Lieut.-Col. Hein's ready absorption and appreciation of foreign ideas is plain proof of the folly of this attitude. His demonstration of the great advantages which may be derived from sending an officer abroad as military attaché should lead to a large detail of young officers to this duty every year. Even if this should be neglected, the presence of such well-trained officers as are now coming from West Point will do much for the reform and for the efficiency of the army. That we shall still have Eagans and Shafters and Otises with us must be expected, as long as the War Department is run by the Corbin methods of political favoritism which disgrace it to-day. But the days of companies ignorant of all except the simplest drills, of five-year soldiers who never made a march, and of recruits placed upon the firing-line ignorant of the mechanism of their rifles (as Gen. Wheeler reports them in the Philippines), may confidently be counted on to come to an end. If the taxpayer, thanks to Mr. McKinley, has to foot a steadily increasing bill for his army, he may have the slight consolation of knowing that his dollars are gradually buying him a better and better article.

CAMPAIGN BOGIES.

It seems to me that the care of Providence for the American people is never so strikingly displayed as during the Presidential campaign every four years. At that time about one-half of the voting population arises in its might, and, according to the other half, determines to put an end to the "great experiment." The republic, which one party is bent on extinguishing by means of financial and political ruin, is preserved by the other side, for one more trial. The Presidential election, as a means of ruin, began its fatal work as early as Jefferson's day, when one of the Federalist moralists exposed the design of the Republicans, as the other party were then called, to fling the Federalists' wives and daughters "into the common stews." At that period the fatal blow was to be dealt out of pure wickedness. It was later that a real reason appeared for breaking up the Union, in the shape of the Northern attempt to abolish slavery. But at every Presidential election something terrible was to result from the triumph of one side or the other, until in 1884 the continuance of the Union was threatened by "rum, Romanism, and rebellion."

I was dining one evening during that year with a friend and a party composed, in the main, of persons of distinction. Cleveland had been elected, but had not taken his place. The *Tribune* was daily publishing lists of the enormous sums which would have to be paid in satisfaction of "rebel claims," the total amount of which was, I believe, some billions of dollars. One gentleman was calling attention to the amount with horror, when Abram S. Hewitt, who was present, said, "I am on the Congressional Committee which has to pass these claims, and I can assure you that not one of them will be paid." The effect of this on the gentleman who had brought the subject up, and who was a warm Republican, was very curious. He was thunderstruck, and passed some minutes in silent meditation. "Well," said he at last, "there must be terrible lying somewhere." As every one else at the table was well aware that the air was full of campaign lies, this drew forth shouts of laughter, and the subject was buried in a discussion as to which side lied the more.

About the same time a Republican friend of mine in the country wrote to me, offering to sell all his securities—and he was a man of some wealth—for half their face value in case of Cleveland's election. I wrote him accepting the offer, but I never heard from him again. Shortly afterwards I heard from one of our prominent financiers, the President of a great company, that the spectacle of workingmen killing each other in the streets would be witnessed frequently in New York as soon as Cleveland took his seat. Some people were so affected by the prospect of these horrors that it was seriously proposed that President Arthur should prevent their occurrence by refusing to surrender his place to Mr. Cleveland. I ridiculed these fears in the columns of the *Nation*, on the ground that they were tantamount to a confession that the Republic was a failure. They were really a confession that only half the people were fit to rule it. The only notice I saw taken of my point was by the New York *Evangelist*, which protested against the idea that only one of the two great parties was capable of carrying on the Government. But I think the fears of the timid were not actually dissipated until Cleveland had taken his place as President. It is droll now to remember that these fears were inspired by the prospect that the Government would be carried on by the fearless, clear-headed, and thoroughly honest Grover Cleveland, instead of by the corrupt and time-serving James G. Blaine. I do not think there is in our history an apter illustration of the confusion of the electioneering brain.

I happened, while writing on this topic, to be reading Sir William Anson's edition of the autobiography of the Duke of Grafton, about 1766. I was struck by the efforts made by all the parties, from the King down, to get the opinion of Lord Chatham on the crisis through which the Government was passing. For many months no one was admitted to see the old orator. Even his knocker was muffled, to prevent people from approaching him. But on the 5th of December, 1777, there was a great debate in the House of Lords on the accounts received from Gen. Burgoyne of his defeat at Saratoga, and on the employment of Indian savages by the Government. Chatham felt the occasion to be one of the first importance, and had himself carried to the House. It was the last effort of the "old Mugwump," as I call him, or the "great man and illustrious patriot," as the Duke of Grafton calls him, to save his "sinking country." Here is Lord Camden's account, written to the Duke of Grafton, of what happened in the House:

> "I saw him in the Prince's chamber, before he went into the House, and conversed a little with him, but such was the feeble state of his body, and indeed the distempered agitation of his mind, that I did forebode that his strength would certainly fail him before he finished his speech."

But he spoke enough to make his remarks a consuming fire for the Hannas, the Platts, and the Roosevelts of the day.

It appears now, according to the Expansionists, that so far as principle was concerned, the American Government might have begun its career of conquest from the day of its foundation; the only thing that prevented it was want of money or want of men. It might have bought the Poles from Russia, the Greeks from the Turks, the Italians from Austria, and the Tyrolese from Bonaparte at so much a head, and have assumed the job of conquering or slaughtering them itself, without inconsistency. Yet a century ago the noble passage, beginning "Were I an American, as I am an Englishman," was in every American schoolboy's mouth. Instead of that, we now hear calculations as to how much stocks will fall if the wrong man is elected. It took the learned McKinley to find out this secret principle of the Constitution. E. L. G.

SUNSET OR DAWN.

FLORENCE, September 24, 1900.

The liberty with which Clericals and Socialists have held their congresses in Rome is a proof that all attempts to make capital out of the catastrophe of Monza have failed; that the reactionists who, from the birth of the new kingdom, have regarded chains and handcuffs, arbitrary arrests, provisional imprisonment, gagging of the press, prohibition of public meetings, as the only methods of government, are checkmated by the young King's quiet affirmation that "exceptional laws are unnecessary if only the ordinary laws be applied impartially to all classes and individuals." The congresses in themselves have been nothing remarkable. The Clericals, up to a certain point, admitted the right to existence of the civil power by appealing to the state to permit "free teaching." The conduct of the Vatican during the late events, its attempt to prove that King Humbert had recanted and received absolution; the prohibition of funeral masses in some churches, the expulsion of the national flag from others; the Vatican's declaration of hostility at a moment of profound, let us even say hysterical, emotion, has done more to embitter old grievances and open new wounds than any mere assertion of the temporal power during the last thirty years had accomplished. Still, the pilgrimages from various parts of Italy, the tribes of youths educated in seminaries and conducted to Rome by their priestly tutors to receive the Pope's blessing, while strictly forbidden to approach the Pantheon, where the two first Kings of United Italy are buried, clearly show that Italy is a kingdom divided against itself, and that the civil power is unwisely providing its enemy with weapons which he will use to good purpose at the first opportune moment. It was rumored that the young King would have left his retirement at Capodimonte and been present at Rome during the commemoration of the thirtieth anniversary of the entry into Rome by the Italian army "through the breach of Porta Pia." But this could hardly be expected of him during these first months of mourning, and it must be remembered that King Victor never came to Rome on the 20th of September, and Humbert once only, to celebrate the silver wedding of Rome to Italy in 1895.

The Socialist Congress has excited far more interest than the Catholic, but the hymns of triumph raised on the one hand, the wails of dismay and terror on the other, are, to Anglo-Saxon ears, equally exaggerated. True it is that during the late elections the Socialists captured 170,000 votes, the Republicans 80,000, the Radicals 90,000, the various branches of the Left 261,000; 601,000 in all, which, compared with the 675,000 polled by the Conservatives, brings the so-called popular party within a measurable distance of their adversaries. But it must be remembered that the late elections were held in exceptional circumstances. The imprisonment of hundreds of peaceful citizens tried by military tribunals whose sentences were all quashed by the civil courts, cast a halo of martyrdom around the liberated prisoners. Then, the proclamation of exceptional coercive laws by royal decree, the attempt to alter the rules of the House by an ignoble manœuvre, the distinct violation of the *Statuto*, brought into the ranks of the Opposition such calm old statesmen as Zanardelli and Villa. The Government showed its utter ignorance of the feeling throughout the country by choosing that moment, despite its servile majority, for the general elections; and the result, for all who had eyes to see, was a foregone conclusion. Were Saracco, the present Premier, and one of the few survivors of the old Conservative party, the champions of order and impartial justice, to make an appeal to the country now, it would be difficult to predict the result.

But let us admit that what is called scientific socialism has spread in Italy during the last eight years. What is the meaning of the phenomenon? Does one Italian in a hundred believe in collectivism, in the millennium to be attained under a proletary dictatorship, in the abolition of all classes save theirs, in the abolition of private property, of capital as a distinct factor in economical production, in labor as the only standard of value? We should be nearer the mark in saying that not one in a thousand holds any of these doctrines. And the intelligent, cultured, alert leaders of "scientific socialism" are so convinced of this that, during the late Congress, the vast majority opposed Ferri's proposal to devote their chief energies to propaganda, to the formation of "socialistic consciences," and decided to continue and strengthen their alliance with Republicans, Radicals, and the adherents of the Left in Parliament, in order to carry out their "minimum programme," and, with the assistance of all these parties, or fractions of parties, secure fresh seats in Parliament. Clever fellows, and wise in their generation, though void of all originality in their programme or tactics. What we cannot understand is the supine indifference of the Radicals, Republicans, Extreme and Historical Left, in allowing the Socialists to pirate their own programme formulated by Mazzini as early as 1836, accepted and carried out in its essential parts by the reforming Liberals between 1876 and 1890, to rebaptize it and present it as a brand-new remedy for existing social evils under the title of the Socialistic minimum programme. Take two columns of a newspaper and print Mazzini's exposition of what the working classes demand, beside this list of "political, economical, administrative, and fiscal *transformations*," and you will see they are "like as two tears." Plain people in European monarchies and republics call them reforms; that is all the difference.

The extension of the suffrage preached in old Piedmont has become an accomplished fact in Italy, due entirely to the "odious *borghesi*" who, before the workmen (still less the peasants) demanded the vote, gave it them as a free gift, forgetting to teach its use and benefits, so that even now barely 50 per cent. go to the polls. In like manner, they abolished capital punishment—whether wisely or no, we will not inquire. The political and social equality of the sexes is a very old Mazzinian doctrine; so are freedom of the press and of public meetings, the rights of association, of coöperative societies, leagues, labor boards; responsibility of the Government and its functionaries; habeas-corpus; trial by jury for all political or social questions; neutrality of the state in all conflicts between labor and capital—hence the right of strikes and of all peaceful methods of resistance on the part of the strikers; the substitution of an armed nation on the Swiss system, in lieu of conscription; religious liberty and equality—hence the abolition of a state Church; reform of the civil code and of penal procedure; abolition of preventive imprisonment and secret interrogation, of enforced residence (*domicilio coatto*); an entire reorganization of prisons and prison discipline; limitation of the work of women and children and of the number of hours for adult males; old- insurance against accidents; arbitration in labor disputes; reform of agrarian contracts; concession of public works to coöperative societies; assistance and protection of emigrants; nationalization of mining and transport industries—their exercise by the state when the coöperative societies cannot assume them; expropriation of uncultivated lands to be assigned to associations of peasants; a board of trade or labor board to be assisted by representatives elected by organized working men. Among the administrative and tributary *transformations*, we do not find a single proposal for which there is not lying shelved some bill already presented by some reformer in days gone by.

My charge against the Socialists is that they have broken up the perfectly organized societies of workingmen who in 1871 federated in the "contract of brotherhood," multiplied and progressed until 1890, when, with the death of the old leaders, they were left as sheep without a shepherd and fell into the claws of the wolf in sheep's clothing. Where are the coöperative societies founded by those workingmen, with their flourishing house-building service at S. Pier d'Arena, their steamer-building yards at Lerici, to be found among the Socialistic churches? Have the Socialists, on their own lines, organized bona-fide workingmen's societies, able, through skill, intelligence, thrift, to set aside sums for undertaking public works or fertilizing public or uncultivated land? They have done nothing of the kind. The most heartrending strikes take place under their auspices, left unaided, unsupported, to fall a prey to the shameless policy of the Government, which sent soldiers of the national army to reap the rice for the sole benefit of the proprietors, who actually forbade the wives and children of the expelled reapers to glean the grains scattered after the sheaves had been gathered in. Again, while the Socialists profess to adopt peaceful and legal methods to attain their ends, their tactics of class war are understood by the ignorant masses to mean class hatred—war on capital, on capitalists and proprietors. The class harmony preached and practised by the old patriots and reformers is utterly destroyed, and for the time being the Socialists hold the field. No Governmental or Parliamentary measures can restore that harmony. Nothing can avail unless every individual, every party, realizing the abnormal condition of the country, sets to work to help on a return to a normal state. There are signs of an awakening conscience among the thoughtful, cultured classes.

The Republicans announce their national congress for November, but they would be better advised were they to be silent till they have repaired their sins of omission and commission, and separated themselves from the party which holds doctrines and uses methods condemned by the leaders whom they profess to follow. A remarkable discourse of Ettore Sacchi, one of the most influential and intelligent members of the old Radical Left, calls on the Liberals to prove that all necessary reforms, all social ameliorations can be effected within the orbit of existing institutions, and admonishes the working classes that their fellow-workers in England have attained their ends in great measure by using the suffrage, and by working hand in hand with friends of progress and liberty to whatever party they belong; that they, too, have the vote and do not use it, but allow themselves to be carried away by every wind of doctrine. This is true to a certain point, but alas! the vote in Italy is not free; corruption and bribery on the part of the Government prevail to a frightful extent, and in the small towns and centres, where wealth and power are in the hands of a few, workmen dare not vote save for the candidate imposed by the local magnate. Sidney Sonnino, the man chiefly responsible for the last two years of illegal government, is crying peccavi and suggesting all sorts of social reforms, but affirms that no tributary reforms can yet be attempted. This brings Pasquale Villari to the rescue. He politely reminds Sonnino that, though he was one of the earliest band of reformers (and in fact his great work on Sicily is the text-book for the amelioration of that patriotic but ill-used island), he increased the tax on salt, the duty on corn, and seized 10 per cent. of the interest on consols when he became Minister; and gives it as his own opinion that, though tributary reforms cannot be carried suddenly and completely, some immediate steps may—nay, must—be taken to relieve the excessive burdens of the masses unless we are prepared to allow the Socialists to completely dominate them, and have the State disarmed in the presence of the great enemy enthroned in the centre of Italy.

Meanwhile the King is daily receiving the Ministers separately, is examining their projects, and has expressed his hope that they will at once fulfil his father's promises to abolish *domicilio coatto*. The new-broom theory must be borne in mind, but we are not without hope that we have passed through the darkest hour, the hour that precedes the dawn.

J. W. M.

THE NEW ROOMS IN THE LOUVRE.

LONDON, September, 1900.

It is extraordinary how little has been said about the recent alterations in the Louvre. The new rooms were opened towards the end of last May, but there are still many people who have not heard of the enormous improvement made in a gallery that once was almost the worst hung in Europe. The Exposition, for the moment, has monopolized attention—though not the crowds of tourists—and there has been no time to consider or write about the permanent collection. In any other year so important an event could hardly have been received in the same silence.

In the old days the Louvre, to me, was always a disappointment, the keener because, perhaps, it was the one of all others in which perfection might, not unreasonably, have been expected. The French usually know how to order art matters better than most people; the collection can boast an almost unrivalled number of masterpieces, while no national gallery can compete with it in the grandeur of the first impressions it inspires, as one enters by the wide stairway, with the beautiful winged Victory at the top, and presently passes into the Salon Carré, the famous room where the old masters of all nations meet—"the most glorious assembly of painters to be seen in the world." Here, indeed, the critic's task was always light. Years ago, Gautier said there was wanting only Velasquez, for whose "Infanta Marguerita" a corner might well have been

Bryan's medication of the Imperialist plague, but in other matters, if we do not question his word, we question both his wisdom and his character; and neither shall he have our support.—Ed. Nation.]

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To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A very important article has recently appeared in the August number of the *Nuova Antologia*, from the pen of Sig. Boni, who is in charge of the excavations now being carried on in the Roman Forum. Sig. Boni is a comparatively young engineer, born in the province of Emilia, and brought into prominence by his clever work in restoring the Ducal Palace in Venice. Under the late ministry, when Dr. Guido Baccelli was Minister of Public Instruction, Boni was set to work in the Forum, with what remarkable results, every student of archæology has read. Therefore, whatever Boni has to say of his work in the precinct of Vesta will be received with ready and awakened interest.

The most recent diggings have been carried on immediately to the east of the temple of the Castors, along the line of what may provisionally be called the Vicus Vestæ. Here, embedded in a rude wall constructed without mortar, and dating probably from the seventh or eighth century, were found several architectural fragments of prime importance for the reconstruction of the edifice. A large piece of the monolithic architrave, ornamented with coffer-panelled soffit, together with part of the partially open tholos-roof, afford additional data for the measurement of the radius, which has been checked by turning over the marble blocks and arranging them about a common centre. We thus obtain, as the outer radius of the architrave, 6.745 m. It is now possible, from the existing remains, the representation of the temple on a large number of coins and on several well-known sculptured reliefs, and from various details given in sketches and designs of cinquecento and secento architects, to draw a restoration that will have very little of the fanciful, and will give a very fair idea of the shrine of the most picturesque of the ancient Latin divinities.

Boni's first point is the determination of the date of the lowest stratum of the foundation. This he does very neatly, by submitting the masonry to a rigorous examination. The tool-marks, as well as the shaping of the stone, which prove to have peculiarities in common with the Templum Sacræ Urbis, the modern church of SS. Cosmo e Damiano, lead him to date it some time in the reign of Vespasian. The chief parts of the superstructure are assigned to the third century, to the restoration carried on by Julia Domna, wife of Septimius Severus.

Next follows the part on which our main interest centres. In the inner core of the shrine is a very curious cavity, which may be called for convenience the *favissa*. When its section is carefully measured, its trapezoidal shape may be detected. Last May, I examined the *favissa* in company with Sig. Boni, and I must confess that the variation from a square is so slight that I am rather skeptical as to the soundness of his theory. It is briefly as follows. The prehistoric people of northern Italy who inhabit the region Bologna to the Alps during the bronze age, used to build their settlements near streams of running water, for both convenience and defence. It was their practice, in order not to be obliged to dig their defensive ditch clear around the settlement, to make a trench diverge from the stream at an acute angle, so that the force of the current would keep the water flowing about the village and into the parent stream again. In this way probably arose the trapezoidal shape so characteristic of the "terramare," as they are called. The acute angle was always towards the water. According to Boni, this figure would come to have a sacred significance, and would be used in other connections. Such he would claim to be the case in the present instance. The acute angle of the *favissa* of the shrine of Vesta, which points in a northerly direction, presumably points towards some sacred pool or spring, perhaps the Fons Juturnæ, in the neighborhood of which the temple of the Castors was said to have been erected a hundred years before Roman records begin.

Let us examine this very ingenious theory a little more closely. Although the *terramaricoli* did hit on the trapezium as the most suitable figure for the peculiar method of defence which they had adopted for their settlements, it does not necessarily follow that this rude four-sided figure, a most natural form in itself, became so hallowed with associations as to be considered sacred, and to be used symbolically for other purposes. The same may be said regarding the trapezoidal form of Roma Quadrata. It is not strange, when we consider how much nature had done for the Palatine, that the early settlers should have chosen it as a likely site for a strongly fortified town. The precipitous heights were surrounded by marshy valleys—the Vallis Murcia, Velabrum, and the Forum—while the overflow of the Tiber washed the base. The lay of the land is such that the wall-defences would naturally form an irregular quadrangle. Furthermore, Roma, Alba Longa, Lavinium, and Antemnæ were not terramare. But the most obvious argument of all is that the trapezoidal shape of the *favissa* is not at first apparent. The angle-variation is, I think, hardly noticeable; it is a pity that Boni did not give it in his description.

But although the fact remains, it is possible to discover other reasons for the curious phenomenon. The soil on which the temple is placed is a clay ridge, at the base of the northwest corner of the Palatine—a region which we know was once a swamp and flooded by the Tiber. In the course of succeeding reconstructions a small initial deviation would tend to be exaggerated, especially as the central core of the temple, being hidden from view, did not have to present to the eye the symmetry and grace of the exterior. This deviation from the true rectangular form may have been due to a bit of contractor's negligence (as we know that jobbery was practised by Verres, for example, in the repairing of the temple of the Castors), or it may have been started by the settling of the foundation during some such landslide as took place in the year 1715. At any rate, the terramare argument, however seductive, is at best only an hypothesis. Right here it may be stated that the location of the Fons Juturnæ is by no means certain, the same evidence leading Lanciani, who has made a specialty of the Roman springs and aqueducts, to place it about a hundred feet southwest of the temple of the Castors, at the base of the Palatine.

Within the sacred precinct of the shrine of Vesta, Boni found a curious heap of charred oakwood, mingled with clay, pottery, and bones of sheep, swine, young cattle, dogs, deer, etc. But it requires too much of a leap of the imagination to infer that because the oak was used in the sacrificial service, therefore we have remains of a sacrifice which has been extinguished by a libation; and the bones belong to the *suovetaurilia* and some form of canine sacrifice which we cannot yet connect with the Vesta worship. Such finds are so common in the Forum, which has had such a checkered history, that it is better to be cautious in asserting anything quite so startling. In like manner, it does not follow that a bit of pottery showing a female face, apparently drawn by the inexpert hand of a woman, is the work of a Vestal of the third century B. C.

All credit is due to Commendatore Boni for the thorough and systematic way in which he is prosecuting his explorations. Everything that can possibly add to the value of the work is religiously preserved, and stored up in the tiny museums which he has been starting in some of the late imperial guard-houses and in the Heroön of Romulus, in the heart of the Forum. If he can have his way, we may expect to see some day more attempts at reconstructing the ancient sites, and making the Palatine and Forum one great open-air archæological museum.

George Dwight Kellogg.

Yale University, October 13, 1900.

SCHOLARSHIP AND ETHICS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It is only within a few days that I have been able to confront with the excessively rare original of Benavides's 'Memorial' (1630), the "translation" printed in the New York Public Library *Bulletin* for November and December, 1899, from which some "separates" were made up for private distribution. But the inaccessibility of this indispensable "source," scarcest of Americana, makes still timely some comment upon the *Bulletin* version. Students, of course, would detect, even without collation, some of the grossest blunders here committed; but it is only upon punctual comparison with the text that one can realize how grisly is the travesty upon scholarship.

Perhaps the first question which will occur to every Americanist who thinks in his turn to die and leave scraps of paper behind him, is an ethical one. If the New York Public Library has no compunctions for its own reputation; nor tenderness for names so conjuring as Lenox and Astor, nor responsibility to science—is it also exempt of all duty to the scholarly dead? To make a brave and serious scholar like the lamented John Gilmary Shea sponsor for this caricature upon science seems to me the refinement of cruelty. Those who knew no more about him might well judge him an impudent and ignorant pretender; an it was too much to expect that no one woul care to verify this translation, even if th Library did not. The simple fact is, th Mr. Shea would not have dreamed of ca ing this a translation; and as for publis ing it—! Not having a Benavides such are properly omitted ons.

Thoughts" from Robert and ning' (James Pott & Co.) is book of days, but quite with- season—as must needs gener- case. The selections might be redated at random, and no one e wiser. The compiler is Mar- . The little volume is prettily

of previous encounters, one might ected, in 'Animals of Africa,' by H. n (London: Swan & Co.; New York: utton & Co.), to fall upon adven- ld and thrilling and butcheries more bloody and destructive, through all ich there is considerable about the and something of other natural his- or, to phrase it differently, one might looked for a great deal of information cerning the habits and disposition of destroyer, and rather less about the stroyed. It is a relief, therefore, on tak- g up a volume on African animals to find to be not exactly of this character. The olume in hand has more about the animals than about the author; it is founded on personal observations which are of such quality as to induce regret at the smallness of their number. The types and the facts related of them pertain to various groups, mammals, birds, reptiles, insects, molluscs, from baboons to tse-tse flies, from elephants to argonauts. The book is not technical; it is intended for readers of all sorts. By and by, when the Englishman's so-called sport has exterminated many of the species, we shall turn to such books for glimpses of the real life of creatures we once knew in the spiritless cages of the menagerie, but of which there will be left only the stuffy, insect-haunted remnants in the museums. Language, accuracy, and illustrations combine to make this an acceptable addition to the "Library for Young Naturalists."

There is unquestionably power of a rude kind in the *Journal's* political cartoons compiled under the title, 'The Dollar or the Man?' (Boston: Small, Maynard & Co.). Mr. Homer Davenport's type of giant representing the Trusts suggests Rabelais and Doré, and is shown in unpleasing familiarity with Hanna and McKinley. The essential vulgarity of their moneyed relationship deserves no better treatment than Mr. Davenport's. The Ice Trust is the subject of numerous cartoons, among the most effective. From their collocation here, one might infer a Republican iniquity.

Part xxvi. of Poole's Historical Atlas of Modern Europe (Henry Frowde) contains, as usual, three maps. The first of these, England and Wales in 1086, by Mr. James Tait (xvii.), is of especial interest in that it is a map of the England of the Domesday survey, upon which it is based. It is an excellent piece of work, and though the scale on which it is drawn does not, of course, permit much in the way of indicating individual holdings, save the greater and more compact estates, nearly everything else is to be found here, ecclesiastical divisions, and centres, as well as politi- and municipal ar- still very

1897 (lxxxii.), by Mr. W. Miller, will be found a most excellent guide to the tangled mazes of territorial changes in the Balkan Peninsula for the whole of the period of the Turkish occupation—a thing much to be desired and seldom found.

'Leçons d'Anthropologie Philosophique,' by Daniel Folkmar (Paris), starts out with the idea that science should not be developed for science's sake, but for the sake of humanity. Sociology and anthropology especially should be studied in the interest of mankind, and as leading up to a positive system of ethics. Sciences should not be distinguished according to their logical or chronological order, but with a view to their relations to human needs and the attainment of a moral end. Anthropology is "the philosophy of human life." This is rather lofty ground to start from, and questions difficult of solution are propounded. In the course of the work, a number of dicta are enunciated and the activities of human life are generally classified and pigeon-holed. The treatment is largely psychological, and shows much reading and thought; but it cannot be said that we are yet advanced beyond the clear-cut system of Herbert Spencer. The present volume labors under the difficulties attendant upon classification in as yet undeveloped fields of research—a fact which perhaps indicates that the time for successful classification of the youthful social sciences is not yet. What is needed in those departments of science is, not so much ingenious classification according to some a-priori norm, as careful and painstaking research and patient analysis of data. When this has been done, classification will appear in sound and enduring form.

Galveston is the principal subject of the *National Geographic Magazine* (Washington) for October. Mr. W. J. McGee treats of its geologic conditions, asserting that the sand-bank or "storm-record" on which it is built is half-a-mile in depth, the worst existing foundation for a city, and that the subsidence of the Gulf Coast is not less than a foot per century. From these data he believes that another disaster will follow the rebuilding of the city on its former site. Prof. E. B. Garriott of the Weather Bureau, on the other hand, after tracing the course of the hurricane and describing the general meteorological conditions of that region, concludes that "the future possibility of a like visitation in that locality is extremely remote." A topographical description of the Chinese province Hunan is given by Mr. W. B. Parsons. Its southern half, he says, "is one vast coal-field, both anthracite and bituminous."

The late Capt. M. S. Wellby's account of his journey through Abyssinia to the Nile, in the *Geographical Journal* for September, gives a favorable impression of King Menelek, whose aim seems to be to govern his people justly. The southern part of the kingdom, however, is wholly undeveloped, though admirably suited for both agriculture and grazing. Capt. Wellby's route over the unexplored region between Lake Rudolf and the Sobat will probably be adopted for the transcontinental telegraph and railway, as it avoids the swamps of the White Nile, and passes through an easily traversed country of extraordinary fertility, arsely inhabited. Among his fol- eral Abyssinians, the first an expedition of on, they

served well and honestly throug journey to Cairo. The description of a trip through Hayti, by H. Prichard, which follows, is depressing reading to all who are interested in the attempts of the negro at self-government. Indolence, neglect, decay have set their mark on everything. Roads have degenerated into tracks, and these are being abandoned for the river-beds on some great thoroughfares. The old French plantations are overgrown with jungle; a comparatively small tract near the capital, which once had an annual revenue of four million dollars, does not produce now as many thousands. The people in the interior live, as in Central Africa, on wild fruits, go almost naked, and spend their time in dancing, cock-fighting, and the loathsome rites of Vaudoux, or snake-worship. Considering all this and the natural resources of the republic, its rich soil, mahogany forests, and great mineral wealth, the saying is no doubt true that Hayti is at once the richest and poorest country for its size in the world.

The noteworthy articles in *Petermann's Mitteilungen*, number five, are Prof. Hergesell's summary of the results of the latest investigations of the temperature of the atmosphere, and Prof. Langhan's account of the commercial relations of the German coast to the sea. This is accompanied by an interesting map, with insets, which show, graphically, the number of steamship lines, the tonnage of the registered vessels, the annual amount of freight, and the number of shipyards and docks of each port, as well as the distribution of the fishing community. Dr. Sievers contributes to number six an historical review of the progress of exploration in South America during the past century, with a map for each decade. The last shows that the still unknown regions are in central Brazil, in the province of Matto Grosso, and the northern part of the Gran Chaco. Number seven contains a description of some of the numerous volcanoes of Guatemala and Salvador, by Dr. C. Sapper, and the geological results of Baron Toll's explorations in northern Asia and the New Siberia Islands. The projected Pan-American railway connecting New York with Santiago, Buenos Aires, and Rio de Janeiro is discussed optimistically, in number eight, by Dr. Sievers, in an extended notice of the report of the "Intercolonial Railway Commission," Washington. This is followed by Prof. M. Weber's account of the recent voyage of the Netherland ship *Siboga* for the investigation of the marine fauna and flora of the Indian Archipelago.

—The *Atlantic* for October contains an interesting article on "John Ruskin as an Art Critic," by Prof. Charles H. Moore, which has the merit of being more judici and discriminating in tone than most the "appreciations" which have appe since his death. On one point not techn what Mr. Moore has to say is intere if not new. Ruskin dwelt continually the influence upon art of moral con and the reaction of art itself upo character. Mr. Moore holds with the extent of insisting that "the man inevitably reflect his charact or immoral as the case may be," consequently, wherever great "there must have been fine somewhere back of it, if not vidual producer, at least in h sors." And, vice versa, if th

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The most recent diggings have been carried on immediately to the east of the temple of the Castors, along the line of what may provisionally be called the Vicus Vestæ. Here, embedded in a rude wall constructed without mortar, and dating probably from the seventh or eighth century, were found several architectural fragments of prime importance for the reconstruction of the edifice. A large piece of the monolithic architrave, ornamented with coffer-panelled soffit, together with part of the partially open tholos-roof, afford additional data for the measurement of the radius, which has been checked by turning over the marble blocks and arranging them about a common centre. We thus obtain, as the outer radius of the architrave, 6.745 m. It is now possible, from the existing remains, the representation of the temple on a large number of coins and on several well-known sculptured reliefs, and from various details given in sketches and designs of cinquecento and secento architects, to draw a restoration that will have very little of the fanciful, and will give a very fair idea of the shrine of the most picturesque of the ancient Latin divinities.

Boni's first point is the determination of the date of the lowest stratum of the foundation. This he does very neatly, by submitting the masonry to a rigorous examination. The tool-marks, as well as the shaping of the stone, which prove to have peculiarities in common with the Templum Sacræ Urbis, the modern church of SS. Cosmo e Damiano, lead him to date it some time in the reign of Vespasian. The chief parts of the superstructure are assigned to the third century, to the restoration carried on by Julia Domna, wife of Septimius Severus.

Next follows the part on which our main interest centres. In the inner core of the shrine is a very curious cavity, which may be called for convenience the *favissa*. When its section is carefully measured, its trapezoidal shape may be detected. Last May, I examined the *favissa* in company with Sig. Boni, and I must confess that the variation from a square is so slight that I am rather skeptical as to the soundness of his theory. It is *briefly as follows. The* prehistoric people *of northern Italy* who inhabit the region *extending from* below Bologna to the Alps during the bronze age, used to build their settlements near streams of running water, for both convenience and defence. It was their practice, in order not to be obliged to dig their defensive ditch clear around the settlement, to make a trench diverge from the stream at an acute angle, so that the force of the current would keep the water flowing about the village and into the parent stream again. In this way probably arose the trapezoidal shape so characteristic of the "terramare," as they are called. The acute angle was always towards the water. According to Boni, this figure would come to have a sacred significance, and would be used in other connections. Such he would claim to be the case in the present instance. The acute angle of the *favissa* of the shrine of Vesta, which points in a northerly direction, presumably points towards some sacred pool or spring, perhaps the Fons Juturnæ, in the neighborhood of which the temple of the Castors was said to have been erected a hundred years before Roman records begin.

Let us examine this very ingenious theory a little more closely. Although the *terramaricoli* did hit on the trapezium as the most suitable figure for the peculiar method of defence which they had adopted for their settlements, it does not necessarily follow that this rude four-sided figure, a most natural form in itself, became so hallowed with associations as to be considered sacred, and to be used symbolically for other purposes. The same may be said regarding the trapezoidal form of Roma Quadrata. It is not strange, when we consider how much nature had done for the Palatine, that the early settlers should have chosen it as a likely site for a strongly fortified town. The precipitous heights were surrounded by marshy valleys—the Vallis Murcia, Velabrum, and the Forum—while the overflow of the Tiber washed the base. The lay of the land is such that the wall-defences would naturally form an irregular quadrangle. Furthermore, Roma, Alba Longa, Lavinium, and Antemnæ were not terramare. But the most obvious argument of all is that the trapezoidal shape of the *favissa* is not at first apparent. The angle-variation is, I think, hardly noticeable; it is a pity that Boni did not give it in his description.

But although the fact remains, it is possible to discover other reasons for the curious phenomenon. The soil on which the temple is placed is a clay ridge, at the base of the northwest corner of the Palatine—a region which we know was once a swamp and flooded by the Tiber. In the course of succeeding reconstructions a small initial deviation would tend to be exaggerated, especially as the central core of the temple, being hidden from view, did not have to present to the eye the symmetry and grace of the exterior. This deviation from the true rectangular form may have been due to a bit of contractor's negligence (as we know that jobbery was practised by Verres, for example, in the repairing of the temple of the Castors), or it may have been started by the settling of the foundation during some such landslide as took place in the year 1715. At any rate, the terramare argument, however seductive, is at best only an hypothesis. Right here it may be stated that the location of the Fons Juturnæ is by no means certain, the same evidence leading Lanciani, who has made a specialty of the Roman springs and aqueducts, to place it about a hundred feet southwest of the temple of the Castors, at the base of the Palatine.

Within the sacred precinct of the shrine of Vesta, Boni found a curious heap of charred oakwood, mingled with clay, pottery, and bones of sheep, swine, young cattle, dogs, deer, etc. But it requires too much of a leap of the imagination to infer that because the oak was used in the sacrificial service, therefore we have remains of a sacrifice which has been extinguished by a libation; and the bones belong to the *suovetaurilia* and some form of canine sacrifice which we cannot yet connect with the Vesta worship. Such finds are so common in the Forum, which has had such a checkered history, that it is better to be cautious in asserting anything quite so startling. In like manner, it does not follow that a bit of pottery showing a female face, apparently drawn by the inexpert hand of a woman, is the work of a Vestal of the third century B. C.

All credit is due to Commendatore Boni for the thorough and systematic way in which he is prosecuting his explorations. Everything that can possibly add to the value of the work is religiously preserved, and stored up in the tiny museums which he has been starting in some of the late imperial guard-houses and in the Heroön of Romulus, in the heart of the Forum. If he can have his way, we may expect to see some day more attempts at reconstructing the ancient sites, and making the Palatine and Forum one great open-air archæological museum. George Dwight Kellogg.

Yale University, October 13, 1900.

SCHOLARSHIP AND ETHICS.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: It is only within a few days that I have been able to confront with the excessively rare original of Benavides's 'Memorial' (1630), the "translation" printed in the New York Public Library *Bulletin* for November and December, 1899, from which some "separates" were made up for private distribution. But the inaccessibility of this indispensable "source," scarcest of Americana, makes still timely some comment upon the *Bulletin* version. Students, of course, would detect, even without collation, some of the grossest blunders here committed; but it is only upon punctual comparison with the text that one can realize how grisly is the travesty upon scholarship.

Perhaps the first question which will occur to every Americanist who thinks in his turn to die and leave scraps of paper behind him, is an ethical one. If the New York Public Library has no compunctions for its own reputation; nor tenderness for names so conjuring as Lenox and Astor; nor responsibility to science—is it also exempt of all duty to the scholarly dead? To make a brave and serious scholar like the lamented John Gilmary Shea sponsor for this caricature upon science seems to me the refinement of cruelty. Those who knew no more about him might well judge him an impudent and ignorant pretender; and it was too much to expect that no one would care to verify this translation, even if the Library did not. The simple fact is, that Mr. Shea would not have dreamed of calling this a translation; and as for publishing it——! Not having a Benavides, he borrowed the copy I have just used; made a hasty and rough paraphrase for his own reference—much after the fashion of the Arizonan's "scatter-gun, for general results"—and left it uncorrected. To broadcast in his name, absolutely without investigation, this scrap-basket memorandum, must seem to any of his fellow-students an unfriendly act.

At its best this "translation" is utterly unscientific, not only lacking all the exactitude which must mark the translation of "sources," but flagrantly loose. Hundreds of sentences might be quoted in example; but a few single words give an equitable idea of the uncritical style. *Pujança*, "good"; *hoy*, "now"; *despoblado* "annihilated"; *se ha visto*, "*I* have seen"; *conversion*, *dotrina*, *jornada*, all "mission"; *pueblo*, *poblacion*, *ciudad*, all "town"; *Flamencos* and *Holandeses*, indifferently "Dutch." Blissful innocence of Spanish grammar crops up throughout. Thus, p. 418, the things that are Cæsar's are rendered not unto Cæsar, but unto Benavides. Where the memorialist says: "I regaled him with what I could," this version has (485): "He regaled me with what he could"; and "so I made it manifest to the people" is rendered (488) "he manifested himself." As serious confoundings of gender, number, mood, and tense are epidemic throughout.

Vital entire clauses are often omitted—as on pp. 483, 488, 489, 492, 493 (twice), 499 (twice), etc.—and gratuitous words injected. Many phrases are not translated at all—as *piedra lumbre* (alum), *xacales* (huts of chinked palisades), *les davan aloaco* (blunder for *aluaço*; gave them "an assault at daybreak), etc. *Chirimias* (clarions) is several times quoted *en bruto*, as "Cherennas"—and on a next page twice translated "music."

But these loosenesses, though structural, are child's play to such translations as *calçado* (shoes), "breeches"; *delante* (before), "after"; *ancho* (wide), "deep"; *altura* (latitude), "altitude"; *vezinos* (citizens), "families" (*e. g.*, giving Acoma "7,000 families," instead of 7,000 inhabitants); *media legua* (half a league), "a league and a half"; *ad[h]erentes* (followers), "tools"; *Reyno* (kingdom), "region"; *principio* (beginning), "North"; *cuaxados* (curdled), "crowded"; *embistió* (besieged), "suckled"; *las viejas salian* (the old women used to go out), "the old men go"; *cinco* (five), "fifty"; *dos mil y seiscientas* (two thousand six hundred), "1,600."

Año passado, as all adepts know, is not merely "last year." Men writing in 1630 here use it of 1626, 1627, and 1628, as well as 1629; and it is steadily translated "last year." The page-headings run throughout "Memorial on New Mexico, in 1626"—a fair example of the slovenliness of the whole production. The Memorial is on New Mexico in 1629; the "1626," seized upon by a careless glance at the first page, refers to a prior report by Santander, here casually mentioned.

It would be impossible to enumerate a tithe of the excruciating humors of this translation-by-guess. *Estufas* (the familiar "Man-Houses" of the Pueblos) are here "hot-houses" and "stoves." *De ocho años á esta parte* (since eight years ago) is rendered "*less* than eight years in this part." "To other mines," says Benavides, "all the materials and provisions, even the water, are brought from very far"; but his *traducer* has it: "all the materials and provisions must be brought from a distance to the water." On the same page (422), "I determined to take out a quantity of ores from different veins in those mines, and I gave them to some miners of New Spain, who, making assays," etc., is given, "determined to take a quantity. . . . from different veins in those mines, and *some from mines in New Spain*"—the sentence going on to even deeper darknesses.

Gem of all, perhaps, is the repeated and cumulative introduction of *pineapples* into New Mexico and Spain. As the most casual scholar will guess, the word is *piñones*—the tiny pine-nut of Pinus edulis, longest known and most classic of all tree-foods in the United States. But this blithe translation reiterates that "pineapples" are the most abundant fruit in New Mexico: that the "pineapple-*trees*" there are different from those of Spain; "the trees and pineapples (*piñas*, cones), small," though "large and tender to part"; and that at the pueblo of Pecos there are "pine trees that bear wonderful pineapples and other large and graceful trees." After this contribution to the flora of our arid Southwest and to the science of historical translation, one need not be surprised at anything.

Fortunately, a competent translation of Benavides, made, compared, edited, and annotated by responsible hands, with interpaged original, and whatever else may need to make it definitive, is now under way to be brought out by one of the foremost collectors of Americana, in a style worthy of the perfect original in his hands. Aside from its critical value, it will be also—in a sense he would fully appreciate—a vindication of the memory of John Gilmary Shea.

CHARLES F. LUMMIS.

LOS ANGELES, CAL., October 6, 1900.

CUSHMAN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The etymology of the name *Cushman*, familiar in the early history of New England, and borne still by several not undistinguished persons in the United States, seems never to have been discovered. It was so stated when the 'Cushman Genealogy' was published years ago, and no successful interpretation has been reported since. Some time ago the present writer happened upon an interpretation of his own, which the citation at page 276 of No. 1840 of the *Nation* of the term *kissere*, "a maker of *cushes* for the thighs," recalls, and which he desires to place on record here. The name Cushman is, in all probability, neither more nor less than "*cusheman*," the "man of the *cushes*," maker or fitter of thigh-armor. This etymology seems strengthened by the fact that, with the older, unpolished New England population, the name is very often pronounced as "*Kwishman*," while the older English (approaching more closely to the French) for *cushes* is *cuishes*.

ALEX. F. CHAMBERLAIN.

CLARK UNIVERSITY, WORCESTER, MASS.,
October 13, 1900.

Notes.

Another book on China, by William Barclay Parsons, an American railway engineer, who conducted a survey from Hankau to Canton, is soon to appear from the press of McClure, Phillips & Co.

E. P. Dutton & Co. announce 'Social Imperial Life of Britain, War and Empire,' by Kenelm D. Cotes, M.D., and Shaftesbury's 'Characteristics of Men, Manners, Opinions, Times, etc.,' edited by John H. Robertson.

Thomas Whittaker will shortly publish 'Present-Day Problems of Christian Thought,' twelve essays by Randolph H. McKim, D.D., of Washington, and a new volume of sermons by Dean Hodges of Cambridge.

Dodd, Mead & Co. are to market here the English edition of the 'Universal History' now in course of publication by the Bibliographisches Institut of Leipzig, under the direction of Dr. Helmolt. It will appear in eight volumes, and will have an editorial introduction by Prof. James Bryce.

'Our Hall of Fame: America's Immortals, and What They Did,' is announced by G. P. Putnam's Sons in the midst of the balloting for the Hall of the University of New York. The several classes will be treated biographically by experts, and will be adequately illustrated with portraits, in two volumes.

'The Story of the Soldier,' by Gen. G. A. Forsyth; 'The Art of Writing English,' by Prof. J. M. D. Meiklejohn; 'The Eagle's Heart,' by Hamlin Garland; and 'The Brass Bottle,' by F. Anstey, are soon to be published by D. Appleton & Co.

Noyes, Platt & Co., Boston, have taken over from Macmillan the 'American Art Annual,' edited by Miss Florence N. Levy.

Lemcke & Buechner, No. 812 Broadway, are the American agents for the series 'Monumenta Societatis Jesu, nunc primum edita a patribus ejusdem societatis,' published monthly in fascicules of 160 pages octavo, in the original language of the documents reproduced. Most of the twenty-three volumes already issued have appeared in the past six years. The matter consists of chronicles, correspondence, lives, relating to the Society of Jesus, and is drawn from public and private archives.

The sympathetic pencil of Howard Pyle lends great harmony to the new illustrated edition of Dr. Weir Mitchell's 'Hugh Wynne, Free Quaker' (The Century Company). The archaic stamp upon the back and the front cover is not inappropriate either, yet the plain cloth of the rear cover answers best to the beautiful typography encased.

Mr. Howard Crosby Butler's 'Scotland's Ruined Abbeys' (Macmillan) has deservedly attained to a reissue within a year. We have already had our word of praise for it.

A new octavo edition of St. Augustine's 'Confessions,' limited to 150 copies for the United States, comes from the Chiswick press through the J. B. Lippincott Co. It is bound in vellum, printed in bold-faced type on unbleached hand-made paper, rubricated, and adorned with a few illustrations. The text is happily that of the old familiar version, which renders the saint's emotional rhetoric so aptly as to need no improvement. This, to be sure, can be read as well or better in the inexpensive Oxford edition of one-sixth the size, but in its present form will be acceptable to those whose devotional meditations require luxurious accessories. There is one mark of carelessness: why should the headline on page 3 represent the work as "In Thirteen Books," when, as the title-page sets forth, but ten are given? The traditional last three books, of course, form no part of the 'Confessions,' but are a commentary on

Genesis, and as such are properly omitted from later editions.

'"Beautiful Thoughts" from Robert and Elizabeth Browning' (James Pott & Co.) is arranged as a book of days, but quite without regard to season—as must needs generally be the case. The selections might be shuffled and redated at random, and no one would be the wiser. The compiler is Margaret Shipp. The little volume is prettily got up.

Because of previous encounters, one might have expected, in 'Animals of Africa,' by H. A. Bryden (London: Swan & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.), to fall upon adventures wild and thrilling and butcheries more or less bloody and destructive, through all of which there is considerable about the writer and something of other natural history; or, to phrase it differently, one might have looked for a great deal of information concerning the habits and disposition of the destroyer, and rather less about the destroyed. It is a relief, therefore, on taking up a volume on African animals to find it to be not exactly of this character. The volume in hand has more about the animals than about the author; it is founded on personal observations which are of such quality as to induce regret at the smallness of their number. The types and the facts related of them pertain to various groups, mammals, birds, reptiles, insects, molluscs, from baboons to tse-tse flies, from elephants to argonauts. The book is not technical; it is intended for readers of all sorts. By and by, when the Englishman's so-called sport has exterminated many of the species, we shall turn to such books for glimpses of the real life of creatures we once knew in the spiritless cages of the menagerie, but of which there will be left only the stuffy, insect-haunted remnants in the museums. Language, accuracy, and illustrations combine to make this an acceptable addition to the "Library for Young Naturalists."

There is unquestionably power of a rude kind in the *Journal's* political cartoons compiled under the title, 'The Dollar or the Man?' (Boston: Small, Maynard & Co.). Mr. Homer Davenport's type of giant representing the Trusts suggests Rabelais and Doré, and is shown in unpleasing familiarity with Hanna and McKinley. The essential vulgarity of their moneyed relationship deserves no better treatment than Mr. Davenport's. The Ice Trust is the subject of numerous cartoons, among the most effective. From their collocation here, one might infer a Republican iniquity.

Part xxvi. of Poole's Historical Atlas of Modern Europe (Henry Frowde) contains, as usual, three maps. The first of these, England and Wales in 1086, by Mr. James Tait (xvii.), is of especial interest in that it is a map of the England of the Domesday survey, upon which it is based. It is an excellent piece of work, and though the scale on which it is drawn does not, of course, permit much in the way of indicating individual holdings, save the greater and more compact estates, nearly everything else is to be found here, ecclesiastical divisions, foundations, and centres, as well as political divisions, franchises, and municipal arrangements. Not so original, but still very useful, Miss Lina Eckenstein's detail map of Italy *circa* 1000-1067, with insets of Sicily under Saracen rule and Italy *circa* 850-1000 (lxiv.), fills the gap in the Italian series. The map of the Ottoman Empire in Europe 1356-1897 (lxxxii.), by Mr. W. Miller, will be found a most excellent guide to the tangled mazes of territorial changes in the Balkan Peninsula for the whole of the period of the Turkish occupation—a thing much to be desired and seldom found.

'Leçons d'Anthropologie Philosophique,' by Daniel Folkmar (Paris), starts out with the idea that science should not be developed for science's sake, but for the sake of humanity. Sociology and anthropology especially should be studied in the interest of mankind, and as leading up to a positive system of ethics. Sciences should not be distinguished according to their logical or chronological order, but with a view to their relations to human needs and the attainment of a moral end. Anthropology is "the philosophy of human life." This is rather lofty ground to start from, and questions difficult of solution are propounded. In the course of the work, a number of dicta are enunciated and the activities of human life are generally classified and pigeon-holed. The treatment is largely psychological, and shows much reading and thought; but it cannot be said that we are yet advanced beyond the clear-cut system of Herbert Spencer. The present volume labors under the difficulties attendant upon classification in as yet undeveloped fields of research—a fact which perhaps indicates that the time for successful classification of the youthful social sciences is not yet. What is needed in those departments of science is, not so much ingenious classification according to some a-priori norm, as careful and painstaking research and patient analysis of data. When this has been done, classification will appear in sound and enduring form.

Galveston is the principal subject of the *National Geographic Magazine* (Washington) for October. Mr. W. J. McGee treats of its geologic conditions, asserting that the sandbank or "storm-record" on which it is built is half-a-mile in depth, the worst existing foundation for a city, and that the subsidence of the Gulf Coast is not less than a foot per century. From these data he believes that another disaster will follow the rebuilding of the city on its former site. Prof. E. B. Garriott of the Weather Bureau, on the other hand, after tracing the course of the hurricane and describing the general meteorological conditions of that region, concludes that "the future possibility of a like visitation in that locality is extremely remote." A topographical description of the Chinese province Hunan is given by Mr. W. B. Parsons. Its southern half, he says, "is one vast coal-field, both anthracite and bituminous."

The late Capt. M. S. Wellby's account of his journey through Abyssinia to the Nile, in the *Geographical Journal* for September, gives a favorable impression of King Menelek, whose aim seems to be to govern his people justly. The southern part of the kingdom, however, is wholly undeveloped, though admirably suited for both agriculture and grazing. Capt. Wellby's route over the unexplored region between Lake Rudolf and the Sobat will probably be adopted for the transcontinental telegraph and railway, as it avoids the swamps of the White Nile, and passes through an easily traversed country of extraordinary fertility, but sparsely inhabited. Among his followers were several Abyssinians, the first to leave their country on an expedition of this kind. Although not picked men, they served well and honestly throughout the journey to Cairo. The description of a trip through Hayti, by H. Prichard, which follows, is depressing reading to all who are interested in the attempts of the negro at self-government. Indolence, neglect, decay have set their mark on everything. Roads have degenerated into tracks, and these are being abandoned for the river-beds on some great thoroughfares. The old French plantations are overgrown with jungle; a comparatively small tract near the capital, which once had an annual revenue of four million dollars, does not produce now as many thousands. The people in the interior live, as in Central Africa, on wild fruits, go almost naked, and spend their time in dancing, cock-fighting, and the loathsome rites of Vaudoux, or snake-worship. Considering all this and the natural resources of the republic, its rich soil, mahogany forests, and great mineral wealth, the saying is no doubt true that Hayti is at once the richest and poorest country for its size in the world.

The noteworthy articles in *Petermann's Mitteilungen*, number five, are Prof. Hergesell's summary of the results of the latest investigations of the temperature of the atmosphere, and Prof. Langhan's account of the commercial relations of the German coast to the sea. This is accompanied by an interesting map, with insets, which show, graphically, the number of steamship lines, the tonnage of the registered vessels, the annual amount of freight, and the number of shipyards and docks of each port, as well as the distribution of the fishing community. Dr. Sievers contributes to number six an historical review of the progress of exploration in South America during the past century, with a map for each decade. The last shows that the still unknown regions are in central Brazil, in the province of Matto Grosso, and the northern part of the Gran Chaco. Number seven contains a description of some of the numerous volcanoes of Guatemala and Salvador, by Dr. C. Sapper, and the geological results of Baron Toll's explorations in northern Asia and the New Siberia Islands. The projected Pan-American railway connecting New York with Santiago, Buenos Aires, and Rio de Janeiro is discussed optimistically, in number eight, by Dr. Sievers, in an extended notice of the report of the "Intercolonial Railway Commission," Washington. This is followed by Prof. M. Weber's account of the recent voyage of the Netherland ship *Siboga* for the investigation of the marine fauna and flora of the Indian Archipelago.

—The *Atlantic* for October contains an interesting article on "John Ruskin as an Art Critic," by Prof. Charles H. Moore, which has the merit of being more judicial and discriminating in tone than most of the "appreciations" which have appeared since his death. On one point not technical, what Mr. Moore has to say is interesting, if not new. Ruskin dwelt continually upon the influence upon art of moral conditions and the reaction of art itself upon moral character. Mr. Moore holds with him to the extent of insisting that "the works of man inevitably reflect his character, moral or immoral as the case may be," and that consequently, wherever great art exists, "there must have been fine moral fibre somewhere back of it, if not in the individual producer, at least in his predecessors." And, vice versa, if the race decays morally, art will decay too. The Greeks developed a noble art, but "the relaxed moral restraints and the coarser sentiments of the later Greek civilization are mirrored in the later art of Greece." As to the counter influence of art on moral character, he thinks that when there is a predisposition to virtue, art will quicken it. This is a very moderate confirmation of the Ruskinian view, and will hardly be accepted by Ruskinians; but can any one go further—except to point out, perhaps, what some of the anti-Ruskinians neglect to observe, that if art is not produced by morality, neither is it produced by immorality? If it were, a high general level of art would have been secured long ago. Mr. L. B. R. Briggs suggests "Some Old-Fashioned Doubts about New-Fashioned Education" in a paper which deserves attention. He dwells very much on one point, which is certainly overlooked—the importance of education as a means of strengthening the weak side of one's nature. Everybody recognizes this in moral education: if we find a child naturally truthful, we do not waste our time in training him not to tell falsehoods; on the other hand, if we find his sense of responsibility weak, we endeavor to strengthen it by awakening him to the importance of it. Now one fashionable hobby in modern intellectual education is to find out the strong predilection of the student and to cultivate that. Another is to make all study attractive and agreeable both in kind and in method. The student comes to the leader "with a bill of rights in his hands," and says, "Mind, you must not be dull, or I will go to sleep; you must attract me, or I shall not get on an inch; you must rivet my attention, or my thoughts will wander." Education was formerly too ascetic and disciplinary, and we have gone to the opposite extreme. The writer insists that we have gone much too far. According to the view which he holds up to ridicule, it is doubtful whether we ought to train the memory over disagreeable things, like the multiplication-table, at all.

—*Harper's* leading article is a paper on Wei-Hai-Wei, by Poulteney Bigelow. There is also another Chinese article (the magazines this month provide a number of them), by H. H. Lowry, on "The Chinese Resentment." Mr. Bigelow, who has a keen interest in military questions, discusses the much-mooted point as to the possibility of making soldiers of the Chinese, and inclines to the affirmative. He quotes Capt. Barnes, who was sent out last year to drill Chinese recruits at Wei-Hai-Wei, as saying that they are marvellously quick at learning the drill, and easily disciplined. Gordon made an "ever-victorious" army out of them, at least against other Chinese, and there is no reason to suppose they are any less brave than other races. What Mr. Bigelow's reflections suggest, though he does not actually say so, is that the real difficulty lies in what produces so many other difficulties for China—its self-satisfied isolation. China had an army generations ago, and still has one, on paper, but it is easy to see how, with isolation once established—as it was until very recently—the army would first cease to become important and finally degenerate into an untrained mob. The antipathy to foreigners (a corollary of isolation) would inevitably tend to prevent any modernizing of the army, and its gradual degradation would tend to just that contempt for the soldier and his calling which all foreigners have noticed. Isolation is at an end, and self-satisfaction probably cannot survive it for ever; and there will soon be, among European nations, a great competition for the privilege of drilling Chinese soldiers. Mr. Lowry, like most of the other writers of this month's essays on the Chinese crisis, pleads for sympathy with the Chinese in their resentment against foreigners. They have certainly had provocation. "May we not believe," says Mr. Lowry quaintly, "that the highest type of civilization possesses no inherent right to oppress and exterminate weaker nations with which it comes in contact?" We may believe it, oh brother, with reference to China, but not as to the Philippines. Mr. Lowry would have the Powers first insist on the public execution of the leaders in the recent outrages, then "at once and for ever abandon the thought of dismemberment," and then leave the missionaries to go on with their good work of converting the Chinese. But if his general view of the subject is correct, the "foreign devils" who have fomented the policy of dismemberment, and forced on "leases" and "spheres of influence," and the missionaries, who have protected native Chinese rascals against their own Government, on the plea that they were Christians, are almost as responsible for what has happened as Prince Tuan or the Empress Dowager.

—The *Century* has the best collection of Chinese articles, beginning with Ernst von Hesse-Wartegg's account of the country of Confucius, "China's Holy Land"—a visit to the tomb of Confucius. Wu Ting Fang, the Minister at Washington, contributes an excellently written "Plea for Fair Treatment," and Sheridan P. Read, formerly United States Consul at Tientsin, a paper on "The Chinese as Business Men," full of valuable information. This number contains the last instalment of John Morley's sumptuously illustrated Life of Cromwell, and contains the author's somewhat hazily expressed estimate of the Protector's character. He shares, it seems, the opinion of Guizot that Cromwell, William III., and Washington must be looked upon "as chief and representative of sovereign crises that have settled the destinies of nations"; but if we go on, and ask what was Cromwell's "special share in a mission so supreme," we find that his dominant power lay in "his military genius," which was certainly not the case with either William III. or Washington. It was Cromwell's "armed right hand" that "crushed the absolutist pretensions alike of crown and mitre," and struck blows for race, state, and liberty which "forced the three kingdoms into a single state." "After we have discussed all the minor aspects of his special policies on this occasion or the other, after we have scanned all the secondary features of his rule, this is still what, in a single sentence, defines the true place of Cromwell in our history." But his work died with him, at least for the time, and he left England so impoverished that Richard Cromwell had to beg Mazarin to lend him fifty thousand pounds; and the Stuarts came back with the Act of Uniformity, the Test Act, the Conventicle Act, the Five-Mile Act, and "the rest of the apparatus of Church privilege and proscription" in their train. These facts lie on the surface. It is significant that Cromwell's latest Liberal biographer emphasizes them. Mr. Morley suggests that Cromwell was a man of the end of the Middle Ages, rather than a leader of the modern movement, though this too does not satisfy us, for the Middle Ages were not Puritanic. Perhaps the descendants of the Puritans in this country, at any rate such as have not become Episcopalians, can best understand what he was. "It can hardly be accident that has turned him into one of the idols of the school who hold, shyly as yet in England, but nakedly in Germany, that might is a token of right, and that the strength and power of the state is an end that tests and justifies all means." The Cavaliers, on coming in again, unanimously voted that it was necessary to teach the Puritans a salutary lesson. They accordingly dug up Cromwell's, Ireton's, and Bradshaw's carcasses, decapitated them, buried their bodies under the gallows, and stuck their heads on poles set up on the spot where Charles I. had been condemned. The same thing is done in China to-day. With neither Puritan nor Cavalier does Mr. Morley really sympathize. Nor do most of us.

—In *Scribner's*, Henry Norman begins a series of papers on the "Russia of To-day," the first instalment of which deals with "The Two Capitals," and is accompanied by illustrations "from the author's photographs and others." Mr. Norman, when he does not set off fireworks or cut capers, is an instructive reporter. In the present instance, after the first page, he practises much self-restraint. He points out that in order to understand the Russia of to-day, we must not overlook the fact that the Russians have ceased to be a mimetic nation; though they do import American engines, they no longer copy Western civilization. To be Russian to-day is to be patriotic, to be Muscovite—not to follow the mode of the outside world, but to wait confidently "till the outside world shall learn that the Russian mode is better, and shall lay aside its heathenism, its parliamentarianism, its socialism, the license it calls liberty, and all its other wickednesses, and walk in the only path of religious truth and social security." In other words, "Russianism" is cultivated by modern Russians just as what the French call "Pan-Britainism" is cultivated in England. The same movement is going on in every leading country in the world, including our own happy land, in which the young thinkers hold that, whatever it may mean, the great object in life is to be "American." The strange part of it is, that no nation thinks well of the movement in any other. The new patriotism has behind it quite a different sentiment from the old "nationality" feeling of fifty years ago, which helped on, for instance, the creation of modern Italy. The old nationality movement was humanitarian, liberal, and sympathetic. We in the United States sympathized with it in Hungary, in Poland, in Italy, in Ireland. One of its latest manifestations (in recrudescence, perhaps) is the sympathy felt in the United States for the Boers. But the new nationality movement, whether in Russia, China, or "Pan-Britain," is essentially local, exclusive, selfish, reactionary, and often oppressive. Mr. Norman confirms the impression which most foreign observers have given, that the germs of modern civilization hardly yet exist in Russia. Not only is it a fore, the method of the master is not to be followed in the college." Concerning nominations to professorships, he maintains without question the superiority of the method by which the name goes to the Governing Board only after the faculty has been fully consulted and its official approval secured. "A college faculty would seldom be willing to call a new member into itself without the express approval of the president. It is also true that no worthy president should be willing to bear a nomination to the Board of Trust without the approval of the faculty." This method, in his opinion, awakens and maintains enthusiasm, and tends to promote in the various members of the faculty a sense of individual responsibility, which it is very desirable that they should feel. All this is so thoroughly sensible, so completely in accord with the known facts of human nature, that one wonders why so many colleges suffer their efficiency to be lessened and their reputations injured by the friction and discontent to which the opposite practice inevitably tends. Dr. Thwing quotes with approval from a private letter of ex-President Dwight of Yale the suggestion that college presidents generally have too much power. "Coöperation and devotion" are his words for the proper relation between president and faculty; not *authority* and *obedience*.

Since our author came from the ranks of the clergy himself, it is interesting to find that he recognizes with no regret the decline of the old-time clerical predominance in college management. Yet he has no fault to find with it in the past. It grew naturally out of conditions then obtaining, and is naturally passing away now that the conditions have changed. Lawyers and merchants are taking the places of clergymen on the Boards of Trust because the material development of the college constantly increases the number of problems with which lawyers and merchants are most competent to deal. For the teaching force, too, the men best trained for the work demanded are now to be found largely outside the clerical profession. And in both these lines the college can now command outside that profession the services of men who, in moral character and influence, stand fully as high as the clergymen themselves. Therefore, "the day of the clergyman active as a clergyman in the management of the American college is passing away. All that the clergyman represents as a Christian, as a moralist, as a scholar, as a philanthropist, of course, has not passed away and cannot pass away."

President Thwing is of course in harmony—all educators are now in harmony—with the general principle of student election in making up the course of study. He does not share, however, the apparent superstition of some that mere freedom of choice has power in itself to insure the best choice. By a careful study of recent statistics from Harvard University he shows that the average choice of the students represented has some very good features: "Harvard College, like every American college, is graduating men of richer attainments than the college of the earlier time. The graduate approaches nearer the type of the gentleman of culture. Knowledge is more affluent; the appreciation of the best more adequate and *more common*." But, on the other *hand, "The college is making scholars* rather than thinkers. It is good to make a scholar; it is better to make a thinker. American life needs scholars much; American life needs thinkers more." And on another page: "The American community is, on the whole, honest, and the American community is, on the whole, intelligent, but the American community cannot think." To secure from the college its share in the work of amelioration, "Two things may at least be said: first, far greater care should be exercised in the choice of teachers in order to secure those who are able to train thinkers; and, secondly, proper urging should be given to men, on the part of advisers and counsellors, to take severer and more thought-provoking courses." President Thwing's position is, then, that the power of election should exist untrammelled by any mandatory interference, but should be exercised under the influence of friendly advice. No doubt such a programme will suit the average parent, anxious for good results, far better than election absolutely without guidance.

We have touched but a few of the important points discussed. The relation between the faculty and the governing board, the investment of permanent funds, the freedom of teaching, the proper attitude toward fraternities, the inadequate equipment for medical and legal education in America, exemption of college property from taxation, and various other questions are sensibly and suggestively considered. If one closes the book with the feeling that there is any important omission, this will certainly be the subject of intercollegiate athletics. It would be easy to show that this is a subject touching sharply upon almost every other phase of college life. It is the subject which brings the college before the people in the daily press more often than all others combined. We can hardly believe that Western Reserve University has been so happily unique in its experience as not to have met with any serious problems this branch of administration. If so, there are college faculties all over the land which would be delighted to sit at the feet of it President long enough to learn how smooth a path over the intercollegiate athletic field of the past ten years was discovered.

This book, the author tells us, "makes its special appeal to a small constituency." Faculties and trustees are doubtless in mind, but among the large body of college alumni it ought certainly to find a ready sale. Surely no man who has ever been a college student could read it without a keen interest. As a guide to intelligent giving, it ought also to find its place on the tables of men of wealth who are looking for suitable fields for philanthropic effort.

A Brief History of Mathematics: An Authorized Translation of Dr. Karl Fink's Geschichte der Elementar-Mathematik. By Wooster Woodruff Beman and David Eugene Smith. Chicago: Open Court Publishing Company. 1900. 8vo, pp. 333.

The original of this work enjoys the sort of reputation that the approval of students in German universities can confer. Whatever that may be worth, it may probably show that readers similarly situated in this country, wanting some information about the history of arithmetic, algebra, geometry, and trigonometry, provided it be compressed and generalized, may find this translation will answer their purpose; although there is a good deal about old German books of no importance which had better have been replaced by notices of English writings that really had something to do with the development of mathematics, such as those of Shirewood, Bradwardin, Tonstall, Sacrobosco, Dee, Recorde, Digges, Oughtred, Blundevill, etc. Those readers who do not approve of an historian's wasting time in trying to make out how one event led to another, will find less of that sort of thing in this volume than in anything called a history that can easily be brought to mind. Those who are curious to know in what the mathematical interest and value of any works of mathematicians of the past really consisted, must, of course, seek their information elsewhere than in this little manual.

Its admirers praise its "breadth," and in truth it carries this quality to a high pitch—so high that the reader may oftentimes gather quite a false notion, until he becomes accustomed to the way in which Dr. Fink, in common with many another German professor, uses language, after which the same sentences will convey no notion at all. For instance, we read: "The earliest writer giving us information on the arithmetic of the Arabs is Al-Khowarazmi. The borrowing from Hindu arithmetic stands out very clearly." Now, considering that that writer was no "Arab," nor even an Arabian, but a foreigner called from Chorasmia because, within two centuries from the Hejra, the wild tribe of Mohammed had become possessed of such treasures that some sort of accounts had to be kept, and Chorasmia was the country where the art of computation had been most perfected; and considering that what was set forth in his treatise was substantially all the arithmetic the Arabians ever had—to speak of that work as giving us information about "the arithmetic of the Arabs," if it conveys any definite idea, is likely to convey a wrong one. So it is with the sentence that follows. It is true that Brahmagupta represents an earlier stage of development of the same arithmetical art as Al-Khowarazmi; and so does Bhaskara, although he wrote long afterward. But instead of there being any clear borrowing from the Hindus, many facts lead to a strong suspicion that it was in Bactria or some country north of India that the art in question originated and developed. Again, speaking of the celebrated mathematical papyrus, which we now know goes back in substance, as it professes to do, to the Tenth Egyptian dynasty, Dr. Fink says, "as the measure of the area of the isosceles triangle with base *a* and side *b*, . . . ½ *ab* is found, and for the area of [etc.]. These approximate formulæ are used throughout and are evidently considered perfectly correct. The area of the circle follows, with the exceptionally accurate value $\pi = (^{16}/_{9})^2 = 3.1605$." Now, anybody not acquainted with the German professorial style of expression would suppose that the papyrus contained something about an isosceles triangle; but it is not so. There is a figure of a triangular field of which two sides are marked as 4 "che" and 10 "che," intended perhaps for 400 and 1,000 cubits. The figure is not badly drawn, for the shorter marked side is very near 0.4 the longer one, perhaps 0.408 or 0.409. Being so accurate in that respect, it can hardly have been intended to be isosceles, for the angles at the base differ by about 11°, being 84° and 73°. Multiplying half the base by the side inclined to it by 84° after all made an insignificant error, less than half of one per cent. What is that in the value of a piece of land, presumably agricultural? It is not enough to dig a grave on. Now there was nothing theoretical about the Egyptian of the Tenth Dynasty. A Cincinnati pork-packer could not have a greater contempt for small quantities. He measured his field in a common-sense way. So, likewise, the Egyptian says nothing about the ratio of the circumference of a circle to its diameter, but calculates the area of a circular field by squaring 8-9 of its diameter, which is not a very awkward way of getting a 1 per cent. approximation. What Dr. Fink means by calling 3.1605 an exceptionally accurate value for π must remain a secret, for few of the vast number of evaluations that have been published have been so far from the truth; and if a comparison with equally ancient evaluations is intended, there can be nothing exceptional where there are not instances enough to base a rule upon.

The same sort of "breadth" pervades the modern parts of the book. Thus, on p. 250, we read that "the results of Desargues were more important for theory than for practice. More valuable results were secured by Taylor with a 'linear perspective' (1715)." One would hardly guess from this that Desargues applied his method to stone-cutting quite in the style of Monge, while Brook Taylor's mathematically admirable work (why is its title not printed with capital initials and in italics instead of so as to suggest some optical instrument rather than a book?) involved no application except to drawing. On p. 131, after several pages devoted to the writings of the great Grassmann and to others closely related to his, mention is made of 'Grassman's Formenlehre,' with no hint that this book, in which a microscope could hardly detect any originality, was by quite another Grassmann. Remarkable English and American contributions to the same branch of mathematics are passed by in silence. The editors ought not to have permitted this. About tables, no notice is taken of the valuable 8-place French logarithmic tables, nor of Mansion's and other tables for finding 12-place logarithms and their anti-logariths; and, if our memory does not play us false, the statement about Dase conveys a false impression, his name alone being on the title-page of an assigned part of the great factor table, which the book seems to say he did not calculate. The circumstance that he was insane all the time he was making the calculations is interesting enough to insure its not being mentioned by Fink.

There is, to be sure, a conclusive reply to all such criticisms. It is simply that the book is neither intended nor adapted for the use of persons who care particularly to have their information minutely accurate. Readers for whom "breadth" will cover pretty much all other sins, will find it to their taste. There is a good deal of human interest in the history of mathematics; but all such unscientific stuff has been ruthlessly excised by Dr. Fink, no matter what its significance might be for the development of mathematics. So, those who found fault with Cajori's book for being too entertaining ought to find this one perfectly unexceptionable in that respect.

The translation is excessively literal, in many places too much so to convey the precise meaning of the author. We do not doubt that the accomplished mathematicians who have executed it have in many places improved upon the original, in point of accuracy. They seem to us, however, to have committed a grave mistake in changing the title, albeit they give notice of having done so on their title-page. They justify their step by saying that the author in many places strays so far beyond the bounds of the elements that "the original title is misleading." That may be, but what of it? Is this the logic of modern mathematicians? Because the book is very badly laid out for a history of elementary mathematics, does it necessarily follow that it must be well describable as a history of mathematics in general? Perhaps there is nothing about which the sort of readers to whom the book will most appeal wish more to be informed than the origin and early history of the differential calculus, probably the most important of all those events concerning which the history of mathematics can afford us any satisfactory account. To call a book, however brief, a history of mathematics, without a fuller narrative of that revolution than this book gives, seems a terrible compromise. It was a good idea to append an alphabetical list of mathematicians with brief notices of them, had it only been longer; and as it is, to look it over and see who is in it and who is not in it, will supply a little of the amusement which the body of the work sternly refuses to bend to. There is a satisfactory index.

On the whole, the volume will probably prove one of the most useful of the meritorious series to which it belongs; although, had the translators been willing to take the trouble to produce a history of their own, they would have earned a larger measure of gratitude from American readers.

The Antarctic Regions. By Dr. Karl Fricker. The Macmillan Co. 1900. 8vo, pp. xii, 292. Plates and maps.

The interest in the Antarctic which has of late years been stimulated by the persistent efforts of Murray and Neumayer, has taken definite shape in several schemes of exploration, some of which have recently terminated, while the more important ones are at the point of organization. It was appropriate, therefore, that an effort should be made to gather in one volume the facts about the Antarctic region hitherto scattered in numerous records of exploration, many of which are difficult of access for the ordinary reader. Dr. Fricker's work was intended to offer a condensation of all that is essential from the various explorations, both as regards the history of discovery in the Antarctic, and the geological and geographical facts, in a broad sense, which have been collected by the various expeditions. The translation from the German has been well done by Mr. A. Sonnenschein, and the illustrations were reproduced from the originals, chiefly in Dumont d'Urville's 'Atlas Pittoresque,' but also including some original, hitherto unpublished, sketches of icebergs, made on the *Challenger* expedition, and kindly furnished by Sir John Murray. The history of discovery occupies about one hundred pages, and somewhat more space is given to a minute description of each locality of which anything is known, drawn from all available sources. The climate, the ice, the fauna, and flora are successively taken up, and followed by a short chapter on the future of Antarctic discovery, more particularly addressed to German readers, and a bibliography of the more important literature and maps; with a good index to the whole work.

The compilation has been done in a solid, German fashion, which inspires confidence in its fulness and accuracy, and with a praiseworthy impartiality, not altogether easy in a field where international emulation at one time was very keen. The local descriptions, faithfully made, are rather dry reading, except for those especially interested in the region; for them, this part of the work will be valuable for reference. Throughout, the paucity of our knowledge of any part of the area concerned is the most striking feature of the compilation. The chapter on the climate is interesting and fresh, while that on the ice will convey to the average reader a strong impression of the discrepancies between the conditions of the Arctic and Antarctic regions.

The chapter on the fauna and flora is the least satisfactory of any, this being a subject with which the author is unfamiliar. Much of interest might have been added to it by a synopsis of the recent discussion, in which Hedley, Gregory, and others have taken part, based on the known distribution of animals in Australasia and South America. This has shown a valid basis for an hypothesis of a former greater land area in Antarctica, and a probable connection between the continents at a time when conditions favorable to animal life prevailed where now all is desolation. The little that is known reveals the presence in the South Polar region of land, or a congeries of islands, covered with a deep mantle of unbroken ice, near the periphery of which a few nunataks and volcanic cones barely thrust their summits above the surface. By the breaking off of the ice, here and there, a ragged cliff is revealed or a spit of glacial gravel is laid bare. The snowy slopes near the volcanic vents are sometimes sullied by a rain of cinders. Otherwise all is white, still, and frigid. There are no land animals or birds, no plants but a few mosses or lichens. Seals frequent the bays, finback whales, useless for oil or baleen, occasionally traverse the passages between the floes, and penguins abound on the more level ice near the water.

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tation of others and of one's self. A child does something because he sees some one else do it, or because he has done something like it before. Only afterwards does he go to work to study and understand what he has done. The influence of environment is therefore of great importance.

The manner in which different children may be variously influenced by the same stimulus, according to their previous development and training, is suggestively given by the following account of the different ways in which boys may be affected by the sound of the bell at school time:

> "Impressionability is seen together with coördinated action as the boys put their tops into their pockets and run indoors. Some of the boys, however, look up to see if the master is coming, and then go on with their play; here the first impression is followed by action, while the second impression removes the stimulus of the first. Other boys get off to a corner of the playground where they may not be seen. This is a kind of coördinated action that should not take place. Some children simply stand still and do nothing when they hear the bell; the impression produces inhibition only. A deaf boy continues to spin his top as before; he does not hear the bell. One boy makes grimaces, stamps on the ground, throws down his top, picks it up again, drops it into his pocket, and finally goes into school; the impression by sound leads to extra movements with a spreading area of brain activity followed by coördinated action."

All about Dogs. A Book for Doggy People. By Charles Henry Lane, Breeder, Exhibitor, Judge. With eighty-seven illustrations of the most celebrated Champions of our time. Drawn from life by R. H. Moore. John Lane. 1900. Large 8vo, pp. 400.

People who like dogs will like this book; it is the utterance of one who speaks with authority and unction on a subject with which he is fully identified. Long experience in raising, training, exhibiting, and judging give Mr. Lane's opinions so much weight that he will undoubtedly be ranked as a classic by those for whom he writes. And of a certainty he will seriously object to the ordering of things for his happiness in a future world if dogs be not allowed there. The work is done by an Englishman for Englishmen; it deals with few of the New World types, Eskimo, Newfoundland, and Boston Terrier, yet there is no reason why it should not meet with warm approval on this side of the Atlantic, English setting and style not being generally regarded with disfavor, without mentioning that in his career as a judge the author has had the honor of judging dogs for all the royal family, her Majesty, the Princesses, and the Prince, which in some quarters will enhance the attractiveness, of course. The races worthy of a place here are carefully selected; only the more aristocratic dogs look out upon us from these pages. They are gathered by an amateur, a dog-fancier, not a scientist, but an expert in his line, and thorough enough within his limits. The points of the different breeds are set out in excellent order. Any one may improve his ideas of the best of dogs by means of the clean and animated descriptions, the exhibition gossip, the entertaining stories, and the numerous fine illustrations—all so filled with interest as to dissipate the disagreeable memories frequently associated with our friends the dogs—the whining, the yelping, the snarling, the fighting, and the smells of the dog-show or the kennels. Less dogginess and loudness on cover and title-page would diminish the opportunities for criticism of this very fair example of the book-maker's art.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Altsheler, J. A. In Hostile Red. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.50.

Baum, L. F. A New Wonderland. Pictures by Frank Verbeck. R. H. Russell. $1.50.

Black, Alexander. The Girl and the Guardsman. Scribners. $1.50.

Carey, Rosa N. Rue with a Difference. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.

Clodd, Edward. The Story of the Alphabet. D. Appleton & Co. 40 cents.

Conwell, J. A. Our Nation's Need. J. S. Ogilvie Pub. Co. $1.

Defoe, Daniel. Robinson Crusoe. Decorations by the Brothers Rhead. R. H. Russell.

Du Chaillu, Paul. The World of the Great Forest. Scribners. $2.

Elizabeth and her German Garden. New ed. Macmillan. 50 cents.

English Classics. Star Series: Silas Marner; The Princess; L'Allegro, Il Penseroso, Comus, and Lycidas; Ivanhoe, Last of the Mohicans, Merchant of Venice, Macbeth, Speech on Conciliation with America, Rime of the Ancient Mariner, Vicar of Wakefield. Globe School Book Co.

Fuller, Mrs. Marcus B. The Wrongs of Indian Womanhood. Fleming H. Revell Co. $1.25.

Gardner, E. G. The Story of Florence. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $1.75.

Gollancz, Israel. The Works of Shakespeare, Vol. 12. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan.

Hearn, Lafcadio. Shadowings. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $2.

Henderson, C. H., and Woodhull, J. F. Elements of Physics. D. Appleton & Co. $1.20.

Henry, Arthur. A Princess of Arcady. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.50.

Hirtzel, F. A. P. Vergili Maronis Opera. Oxford: Clarendon Press; London: Henry Frowde. 3s.

Hobbes, John Oliver. Robert Orange. Frederick A. Stokes Co. $1.50.

Howard, Joseph, jr. The Union League Club: Historical and Biographical. J. J. Wohltman.

Humphrey, Mabel and Maud. Children of the Revolution. Frederick A. Stokes Co.

Irving, Washington. The Sketch-Book. (Pocket English Classics.) Macmillan. 25 cents.

Irving, Washington. Knickerbocker's History of New York, Vol. I. (Cassell's National Library.) Cassell & Co. 10 cents.

Johnson, Clifton. Along French Byways. Macmillan. $2.25.

Johnson, Samuel. Rasselas: Prince of Abyssinia. [The Gem Classics.] James Pott & Co. $1.

Kendall, Elizabeth K. Source-Book of English History. Macmillan. 80 cents.

Lee, Guy Carleton. The World's Orators, Vols. 3, 5, and 6. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Leighton, M. C. and R. Convict 99: A True Story of Penal Servitude. Brentano. $1.25.

Lever, C. Song of a Vagabond Huntsman. R. H. Russell.

Livermore, T. L. Numbers and Losses in the Civil War in America. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Lloyd, Henry D. Newest England: Notes of a Democratic Traveller in New Zealand, with some Australian Comparisons. Doubleday, Page & Co. $2.50.

Mallock, W. H. Lucretius on Life and Death. John Lane. $1.50.

Marburg, T. Expansion. John Murphy Co. 15 cents.

Mighels, P. V. Nella, the Heart of the Army. R. F. Fenno & Co. $1.25.

Morgan, G. Campbell. The Spirit of God. Fleming H. Revell Co. $1.25.

Morgan, Carrie Blake. The Path of Gold. New Whatcom (Wash.): Edson & Irish. 50 cents.

Otis, James. With Preble at Tripoli. Boston: W. A. Wilde & Co. $1.50.

Parker, W. G. Rival Boy Sportsmen. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.25.

Peddicord, W. J. Rudyard Reviewed. Portland (Ore.): W. J. Peddicord. $1.

Pemberton, Max. The Footsteps of a Throne. D. Appleton & Co.

Phillips, Stephen. Marpessa. John Lane. 50 cents.

Pike, Louise. Southern Echoes. Boston: Eastern Publishing Co. $1.

Pollard, Evelyn H. The Birds of My Parish. John Lane. $1.50.

Quiller-Couch, A. T. Old Fires and Profitable Ghosts. Scribners. $1.50.

Sayre, T. B. The Son of Carleycroft. Harpers. $1.50.

Scholl, J. W. Social Tragedies, and Other Poems. Boston: Eastern Publishing Co. $1.

Sheldon, Samuel. Dynamo Electric Machinery. D. Van Nostrand Co. $2.50.

Shirley, Penn. Boy Donald. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 75 cents.

Southern Society for the Promotion of the Study of Race Conditions and Problems in the South. Report of the First Annual Conference. Richmond: B. F. Johnson Publishing Co. $1.

Spurr, Josiah Edward. Through the Yukon Gold Diggings. Boston: Eastern Publishing Co. $1.25.

Stedman, E. C. An American Anthology. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $3.

Tollemache, Beatrix L. Cranford Souvenirs, and Other Sketches. London: Rivingtons. 3s.

Tomlinson, Everett T. The House-Boat on the St. Lawrence. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.50.

Tomlinson, E. T. In the Hands of the Redcoats: A Tale of the Jersey Ship and the Jersey Shore in the Days of the Revolution. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.

Welsh, Herbert. The Other Man's Country. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

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historian must always rank this as one of the greatest achievements in national finance since the establishment of the Federal Government. Mr. Sherman enjoyed the extraordinarily good fortune not only of carrying through Congress the act providing for resumption, but also of putting that act into operation as Secretary of the Treasury. When, in the winter of 1874-'75, the most influential Republicans in both branches of Congress became convinced that some explicit provision must be made for the resumption of specie payments at a fixed date in the future, Mr. Sherman took the lead at the first conference which was held to consider the subject, and was made Chairman of the committee of eleven Senators which was appointed to formulate a bill. At the first meeting of this committee the divergence of opinion was so great that an agreement seemed almost impossible. After other differences had been composed, a rock still remained upon which the party appeared likely to split—the question whether United States notes which should be presented for redemption and redeemed could be reissued. Mr. Sherman finally solved this difficulty by a device characteristic of his nature and his political methods. It was agreed by the committee that he should report the bill without making any mention of the reissue of notes, and without committing either side; and he carried it through the Senate without breaking silence on this vital point. It was a piece of evasion, but the situation was so desperate that such evasion was considered essential. As Secretary of the Treasury, however, Mr. Sherman did not shirk any responsibility in carrying out the act, and the measures which he successfully pursued to this end need no excuse or defence. After criticism has said all that justly may be said of some steps taken in the path to resumption, the salient fact remains that he devised, carried through Congress, and executed what must be considered on the whole the most important financial act since the days of Alexander Hamilton. The achievement of specie payments will always preserve his fame.

Three conspicuous and even painful instances of vacillation must be recalled. When, after the close of the civil war, a hue and cry was raised for paying the bonds with greenbacks, he bent before the storm and wrote a letter virtually endorsing that destructive policy. When the Bland Silver Bill was pending in Congress in 1877, he, being then Secretary of the Treasury, expressed the opinion to the Senate Committee on Finance that a silver coinage act would be an aid to the resumption of specie payments, and it was reported soon afterwards that, as a member of President Hayes's Cabinet, he advised against the veto of the act. His share in the passage of the Silver Act of 1890 is still well remembered. That futile and ill-starred measure carried its own punishment, since it has passed into history bearing his name.

The death of William L. Wilson is a sad loss to the country. He was the best type of "the scholar in politics" that we have had in recent years, his service in Congress and in the Cabinet having been in every way most creditable to himself and inspiring as an example to others. The part which he took as Chairman of the Committee of Ways and Means and leader of the House, in securing the repeal of the Sherman Silver Act in 1893, will give him a paramount place in the country's history. As a public man who had returned to the academic pursuits which he abandoned for a few years, he should long have been, as President of a university, a commanding figure in the development of high ideals among our educated youth.

The sudden death of Charles Dudley Warner removes a notable figure in American letters. His was a striking instance of a consistent literary career reaching a perfectly normal and legitimate success. Warner was a fore-ordained man of letters. The best magazines were already open to him as an undergraduate, and with few interruptions he wrote successfully from the point of view of art, and profitably from that of gain, to his death. General recognition came to him in early middle life, after which period he gradually built up the high reputation which he came to have. Whatever recognition he obtained was gained in his quality of man of letters. He allied himself with no "movements" or passing fads, and there have been made in our time few reputations so genuinely literary. Personally interested in all good causes, charitable, as the very manner of his death showed, he preferred the writer's fame to any other. In his broad culture and ready assimilation of whatever was admirable in foreign life and letters, he recalls his illustrious predecessor, Washington Irving; in his strong local attachments and in his activity as humorist, novelist, and social philosopher, he ran a parallel course with his older contemporary Holmes. That his eventual place in American letters will be a little lower than theirs it would be safe to predict—safe also to predict that the author of 'Being a Boy' and 'The Golden House' will not lightly be forgotten.

A patent upon an article, according to Judge Adams of the United States Circuit Court, does not constitute a Trust, nor does the Anti-Trust Law forbid a patentee to regulate the price of an article patented. In granting privileges to an inventor, the Court rules, the Government intends that he shall for a term of years enjoy a monopoly of the thing produced by his brain, and shall take all the profit arising from it. The case brought before Judge Adams, however, in which this decision was rendered, was complicated by the fact that the right to use a certain patent had been sold to two companies, manufacturers of stoves, which were under contract to meet once a year to regulate the price of stoves in which the patent was used. One of the companies undertook to disregard the contract on the ground that any combination to regulate the price of an article was illegal. On this point the Court ruled that the companies to which the right to use the patent had been sold must be regarded as one person, and that they enjoyed all the privileges enjoyed originally by the patentee. The Judge added that, if persons owning several individual patents similar to each other, were to combine for the purpose of regulating prices, they would commit a breach of law.

The Anglo-German agreement in all that concerns the final settlement in China is easily the most important step yet taken by diplomacy in the whole tangled affair. Lord Salisbury does not appear to have been so soundly asleep, after all. As the far-sighted Anglo-German agreement of 1898 may be said to have determined the political future of Africa, so this new one may be decisive in China. If Germany and England pledge themselves to maintain the territorial integrity of the Chinese Empire, and practically serve notice on other Powers that none of them will be allowed to take selfish advantage of the present complications, it is certain that we shall not see that dismemberment of China for which so many have been clamoring. The United States can but adhere gladly and instantly to this Anglo-German policy. A restored China, open to the trade of the world, is what we have wanted and all we want. Nor is Russia likely to interpose any overt objection. Her "espérances ultérieures" are in a fair way to be gratified in Mantchuria and the Liao-Tung peninsula, by the sole process of time. Lord Salisbury has already acknowledged the reasonableness of her ambitions in those regions, and cannot now mean to block them. Japan, too, is almost certain to be satisfied with the new arrangement; and the other Powers will have to be. Of course, the immediate future in China is not cleared by this Anglo-German alliance. It looks, rather, to an ultimate settlement after the present troubles are adjusted. But so far-reaching an announcement of distant plans will be an enormous help in disposing of the questions which lie nearest at hand.

The German Emperor changes Chancellors with no more to-do than he does uniforms; and an event that naturally should have aroused the keen interest of the German people and put all the Chancelleries of Europe on the alert, passes almost without comment, so convinced is everybody that the Emperor intends to be his own Chancellor. Of course the absolutism of the Kaiser is generally admitted, but it should not escape remark that the new Chancellor, Von Bülow, may well strengthen his master's hands. As Secretary for Foreign Affairs, Von Bülow was fully in the tradition of the "New Diplomacy." Aggressive towards England, repressive in the matter of the Belgian-Chinese Legion, he is fully in accord with the Emperor's policy in China, and for the future we may expect to find Germany even more prominent in international politics than heretofore.

Though the Germans generally accept the absolutism of the Emperor, there are signs of revolt against the constant prosecutions for lèse-majesté. A case in point is that of Harden, editor of the *Zukunft*, who has commented on the Kaiser's inspired utterances in a spirit of irreverence. The unlucky man was out only a few months from a six months' incarceration for such an offence when the Kaiser made the "no quarter" speech to the troops who were leaving for China. Another six months of fortress life stared Harden in the face, but he could not withhold the "Attila" article that fitly named the Kaiser's oration. A trial in camera, another six months of fortress, the destruction of the *Zukunft* which contained the offending article, were Herr Harden's portion. This roused the protest even of the official organ itself. Recounting the numerous condemnations of poor workmen, including one deaf and dumb man, for having their fling at the Emperor, the *Vossische Zeitung* regretted particularly that the Harden case had been tried behind closed doors; and observed that the *Majestäts-Beleidigung* business was being so overdone as to win for the Emperor ridicule rather than respect. It is, indeed, hard to see why a ruler who has all the facts of power should show a parvenu sensitiveness which leads him to compel respect by process of law. But that is Wilhelm II. "all over."

On all hands the Conservative victory in England is accepted as Mr. Chamberlain's personal triumph. He made the South African war, he dissolved Parliament in the nick of time to get a vote while the war sentiment was still strong, and he has now got his overwhelming endorsement. Yet it is accompanied by renewed and virulent attacks upon his personal character, such as have been directed against no English statesman of his prominence in this century. One charge relates to the financial interest which his immediate family has in Government contracts. There is a confessed want of delicacy in this, though no one accuses Mr. Chamberlain of personally profiting. Indeed, he could not legally, as an Act of George III. provides that no member of the House of Commons may share in any contract with the Government, or derive benefit therefrom. But it certainly is not pleasant to see the Chamberlain family figuring as the majority stockholders in companies that furnish army and navy supplies—a Jingo indelicacy.

More serious is the allegation, openly made by responsible men, that Mr. Chamberlain was blackmailed into making his famous speech in praise of Cecil Rhodes's "honor," after he had signed a report condemning that gentleman-pirate in the severest terms. Mr. Philip Stanhope offers to prove in a court of law that Mr. Chamberlain whitewashed Rhodes under duress; that a member of Parliament stood by with letters in his pocket implicating Chamberlain in the Jameson raid; and that the threat had been made to read these letters out unless the Colonial Secretary gave Rhodes a clean bill of health. All this Mr. Chamberlain has angrily, though rather vaguely, denied; but there stands the offer of his responsible accusers to prove the truth of their libel. The *Spectator* characteristically hopes that Mr. Chamberlain will not accept Mr. Stanhope's challenge, since such things "do harm to our public life," and "poison the political atmosphere"! The truth or falsity of the charge is, of course, a secondary consideration.

Mr. Bryce's return from South Aberdeen, though by a reduced majority, is, like John Morley's from Montrose, a proof that the Scotch have not ceased to honor intellectual eminence. The success of these two Liberals, both strong opponents of Chamberlain and of his fire-brand diplomacy, is the more notable in view of the fact that Scotland, as a whole, swung from her Liberal moorings in the last election. A comic incident of Mr. Bryce's canvass was the use against him of G. W. Smalley's ferocious and unfounded attacks upon him in letters and telegrams from New York to the London *Times*. You see, gravely said the Tory agents, this "great American authority" discredits your member, says that the Americans have found him out, and that his attitude on the Boer question alienated from him all sympathy in the United States. This was a good joke, though the serious side of it comes in when we think of the London *Times* lending itself to the airing of grudges in the guise of news. But for its name and prestige, a surgical operation would have been necessary to get it into the heads of Scotchmen that Mr. Smalley is entitled to speak for American opinion of Mr. Bryce. Of that gentleman it is little to say that his public utterances about the South African war have but confirmed his friends in this country in their belief that he is, as Dr. James Martineau wrote of him years ago, "marked out for eminence within our small class of true statesmen."

In opposing the appointment of Gen. Weyler as Captain-General of Madrid, disaffected members of the Silvela Cabinet merely grasped at the first pretext. A change of Ministry was inevitable; for in the twenty months of its administration the Government had set before itself a policy of violent reaction which could end only in disaster. It is a question whether in any case the Cabinet would have dared to present its own programme to the Cortes, which meets in November. The restriction of trial by jury (in particular the assignment to military courts of libel cases where the army is aggrieved), repression of all liberal movements, whether in politics or in education, a return to the ruinous policy of naval and military expansion—these were some of the ambitious plans of the Silvela Ministry. Upon them, in the face of Liberal and Socialistic opposition and the revival even of Carlist agitation, the Government must have failed. Señor Silvela was, morally, receiver for a state in economic and political distress. It was clearly his duty to take account of stock and liquidate old obligations before incurring new. Failure to realize this duty was rapidly undermining him when the Weyler incident turned up to justify a timely retreat.

That blood is thicker than politics is shown by the enthusiastic response of the South and Central American republics to the call for an Ibero-American Congress soon to assemble at Madrid. It is as if Spain had chosen the time when, her American possessions gone, she could appeal with entire disinterestedness to the bond of race, and reassert the more strikingly her moral and intellectual leadership over the Latin-American nations. The movement should inspire rather sympathy than distrust among us. Commerce is doing the work of Americanizing the Latin republics steadily and irrevocably. It would be a distinct misfortune if the change should mean their denial of the tradition of culture under which they have grown. In Europe there is just complaint of the little Parises that spring up everywhere. And South America would be the loser if, in running to little New Yorks, Liverpools, and Hamburgs, she forgot the racial tradition by virtue of which she is herself, and not the United States, England, or Germany. Should it be said that Spain was at best only a stepmother to these republics, so much the more praiseworthy the loyal instinct that calls their delegates to Madrid.

BRYAN AND REPUBLICANISM.

We have just seen Mr. Bryan at short range in New York, and no one can longer doubt what manner of man he is. Lord Eldon said in his old age, "If I had to begin life over again, hang me but I would be an agitator." Bryan will never need to express such a regret. He is the boldest, most adroit, and one of the least scrupulous agitators that this country has ever seen on the national stage. He is willing to become all things to all men if by any means he may win votes. For a time he essayed the dignified rôle of statesman, and showed his astonishing versatility as well as mental gifts in his brilliant and powerful Indianapolis speech of acceptance. But he could not stop with that. The shouting of the crowd sounded in the ears of his imagination, and would not let him rest at home. Against all advice, he began again his meteor-flights over the country, displaying once more the physical strength of ten men, and a ready resource and rough force of appeal to prejudice and passion which would have left Danton himself agape with envy.

Why is there any apprehension today regarding his success? Why are business men compelled to take the possibility of Bryan's election into their plans for the future? It cannot be that the American character has suddenly changed. With all its vagaries, democracy has always preferred for its highest honors strong, cool, dignified, steady, and safe men. Why should there be any fear that a reckless stump-speaker, an adept in knock-down argument, a stirrer-up of social hatreds, should now command a majority of the suffrages of the American people? Let alarmed Republicans give their minds to this question. If they do it seriously and honestly, they will be compelled to acknowledge that the only weapons which are dangerous in Bryan's hands were placed there by the men who have moulded Republican policy during the four years past. If Bryanism is a firebrand, it is Republicanism which has set it aflame.

What are the two charges against the Republican party which Bryan presses with the most successful iteration? First, that it has allowed organized and unscrupulous wealth to sway the policy of the general government; second, that it has denied, on a gigantic scale, the fundamental rights of human liberty. Do not, impatient Republican reader, cry out that this is all calumnious nonsense. Pause a moment, and reflect on the amount of truth there is to put the edge on Bryan's charges. Have you forgotten those letters demanding Government favors in return for campaign contributions to the Republican party? Is it to be supposed that such revelations could fail to wake suspicions in the popular mind? Will not people say that, if *a few letters*, accidentally published, showed such an attitude in men having close relations with the Republican leaders, the whole truth, if known, would confirm Bryan in asserting that Republicanism now means selling legislation for cash? It was not a Democrat, but a stalwart Republican of the old school, who said bitterly in a Congressional committee-room, "You do not understand the situation. We are in the hands of a syndicate." And it is not a raging domestic demagogue, but a clear-sighted and well-informed foreigner, Mr. Goldwin Smith, who declares that, to his mind, the main issue of our Presidential campaign is "that between Imperialist Plutocracy and the American Commonwealth." We cannot dismiss this as idle vaporing. Burke said that the local view of politics was always fifty years behind the times—meaning that we cannot properly estimate the forces at work until a half-century has passed. But intelligent contemporary opinion of foreigners is the verdict of posterity; and we must not be so contemptuously incredulous as to Bryan's wild and whirling words, when we find an observer of Goldwin Smith's capacity asserting that there is an element of truth in his most railing accusation. If Bryan's open appeal to the jealousies and blind rage of the poor has any unusual force, it is because the Republican party has too openly sold itself for campaign contributions.

And what a lamentable thing it is for the Republicans to be compelled to be evasive or dumb when this rough Orson of politics charges them with trampling upon the rights of man! His words bite because they are, in substance, true. The Republican party—the party of freedom, of enfranchisement, of equal rights for white or black—this is the party that has to stand by, silent and shamefaced, while this rude Democrat from the West indicts it for high crimes and misdemeanors against liberty! You may sneer at the sincerity of the rabble prating about liberty and independence. But if our élite, our educated men, our party of intelligence, abdicate, are we not bound to rejoice that even demagogues and the unthinking masses take up the cause of human freedom and the rights of the oppressed? John Morley once drew an awful picture of the recreancy of the gentlemen of England to the sacred principles of English liberty, which, he said, had been kept alive by the despised lower classes. If our intelligent classes are ready to go over to an acquiescence in the new American slavery, we, for our part, shall openly be glad that the ignorant, the envious, the dangerous classes, if you choose, are lifting their voices in protest. And the time will come, after election, when Republicans will call to a severe accounting those leaders who have betrayed the party into its present false position, and have made possible the portent of a Bryan.

MR. BRYAN ON TRUSTS.

Mr. Bryan, in his speech at Madison Square Garden, discussed the Trust question more at length than he has done in any other speech during the campaign, though less fully, perhaps, than in his speech at the Chicago Conference of last year. The remedy he proposed for the evils which he finds in Trusts was the same in both. He suggests that a corporation which acquires, or seeks to acquire, a monopoly of the supply of an article of commerce, shall not be permitted to do business in any State except the one in which it is incorporated, without a license from the Government of the United States; and before that license is granted, he says, "we propose that the water shall be squeezed out of the stock, and the corporation shall show that it is not trying to monopolize any kind of business." He would also put on the free list of the tariff every Trust-made article.

Mr. Bryan's portrayal of the cruelties of monopoly was extremely pathetic, especially when he pictured the mother watching over the cradle of her child and hoping that he may have a fair chance in the world and may make the most of life's opportunities—a hope destined to be frustrated and brought to naught by the Trusts and monopolies that are growing up in every direction. That the Republicans are responsible for the Trusts and for all kinds of monopolies he affirmed as broadly as possible, saying that the President and his Attorney-General had neither enforced existing laws against Trusts nor recommended new ones, and that the party had sustained Mr. McKinley, and was about to vote for his reëlection, in spite of his dereliction. In order to make the contrast between himself and his opponent more impressive, he said that he was more concerned about the Trust question as a citizen than as a candidate, and more interested as the father of a family than as a Democrat.

This was, no doubt, very taking to the miscellaneous audience to whom it was addressed, but it must have stirred the risibles of the presiding officer of the Madison Square meeting. Not that Mr. Shepard has been the attorney of one or more Trusts, but because he is a man of a logical and legal mind, one who knows claptrap when he sees it, and has a profound contempt for it. It cannot be affirmed that the Republican party is more responsible for bringing Trusts into existence, nor for failing to put them out of existence, than the Democratic party. The earliest one (Standard Oil) was not in any sense political, nor was it based upon or helped by the tariff. The next one (Sugar) was started by men of Democratic antecedents. It would have been started either with or without the tariff. It is true that there are more Republicans than Democrats concerned in Trusts. That happens because there are more capitalists among Republicans than among Democrats. It is true also that many Trusts are protected by the tariff, and helped by it to maintain their respective monopolies. This artificial support ought to be taken from them, but it is fair to say that it was not given to them because they were Trusts. The tariff equally protects and helps industries that are not and cannot be organized as Trusts.

The Trusts did not have a political beginning, and they will not have a political end. They are an outgrowth of modern conditions of business, and they would have come just the same under any administration of the Government. An outgrowth may be good or bad, and we confess that this one is not at all to our liking. Evolution may be upward or downward, but if it is evolution, and is not the product of Governmental favor and interference, it should be treated like other products of evolution. The very first thing to be done is to look at it as it is, to form a true diagnosis, and then see whether Government has anything in its armory fitted to cope with it, so as to do more good than harm.

Mr. Bryan's proposed license does not seem to us either useful or practicable. A Trust, as Professor Clark says, is any business combination which is large enough to be dangerous. This definition applies to the Carnegie Steel Company and to the Armour Packing Company as completely as to the Standard Oil Trust or the Sugar Trust. Whether any of these is dangerous is a matter of opinion, but they are all in the same boat. Now suppose that the Carnegie Steel Company were required to take out a Federal license before it could sell steel rails outside of Pennsylvania. Then, under Mr. Bryan's plan, it would be required to do two things: first to squeeze all the water out of its stock, and second to prove that it is not aiming at a monopoly. As the latter is a requirement to prove a negative, it might be difficult. All that the officers of the company could say would be that they were trying to make and sell steel as cheaply as possible, and that their endeavors might lead to a monopoly or might not.

The Carnegie Company is not technically a Trust. There is no water in its stock, because it was not formed by combination with other companies. It simply grew up by prudent management under favoring conditions. There are other steel companies which are Trusts, and probably there is water in their composition. Now, under the Bryan plan the Carnegie Company would be entitled to a license (although it might not get one) and the other steel companies would not. So the result of the plan, in this case, would be to make the Carnegie Company a monopoly by giving it an exclusive privilege in interstate commerce, whereas it is not such now. But supposing that, in order to avoid this absurdity, licenses were refused to all of them, what would be the condition of the buyers and consumers of steel? What in like case would happen to the consumers of sugar if the Sugar Trust were refused a license to sell outside of New Jersey? Would not the Arbuckles then have a monopoly of the rest of the country?

PROSPERITY AND POLITICS.

Senator Hanna's speeches in the West have had for their burden the cry that prosperity is the one issue of the Presidential campaign. As a plain, blunt man, accustomed to buying and selling more than to oratory, he comes something short of ex-President Harrison's ability to see a "spiritual significance" in the full dinner-pail. If there are sufficient votes in it, that is all that Hanna wants. And there can be no doubt that, however coarse he may be in urging electors to vote as their stomachs dictate, he states truly the ultimate reliance of the Republican party in the pending contest. If times were bad, everybody knows it would be beaten. Glory, the Flag, Destiny, the Strenuous Life—none of these things could save it. Good business and good crops are its most effective stump-speakers.

In a general way, it may be laid down as a political rule that depressed trade or bad harvests always mean the defeat of a party in power. But is the converse true, and will good times infallibly enable a party to retain power? Here we have to take stock of our knowledge of human nature. Disgust and resentment are more powerful motives with political man than gratitude. Thus it is a fact, susceptible of historical proof, that while bad times invariably wreck a Government appealing to popular suffrage, good times do not necessarily save it. A cynical friend of ours has put the case as follows: "If my business is bad, I know it is wholly the fault of a wretchedly incompetent Government. Out with it! But if I am making money, I am conscious that my success is due entirely to my own industry and sagacity. It is pure impudence in the Government to claim any share of the credit." The Presidential election of 1892, when the country was greatly prosperous yet Harrison was turned out, is the instance most often cited in support of this contention.

But no careful observer of the present campaign can fail to see an important difference between the issue of prosperity, as presented in 1892, and as made prominent this year. Eight years ago warnings fell on deaf ears. The main reason was, we suppose, that the country had had an experience of prosperous Democratic rule, not so far back, and was not easily to be frightened. Now, however, the mental attitude is different. People have too acute a remembrance of the disastrous years 1893-95 not to be open to argument, even if fallacious argument, on the need of voting so as to continue present prosperity. No one can say how many votes will be influenced solely by this kind of appeal; but it seems undeniable that the number will be great. First voters—and there are to be 1,500,000 of them—will probably not be so easily wrought upon as those of longer memories; but inquiry and report seem to leave it beyond question that thousands of workingmen and farmers will vote for McKinley in the light of an earthly Providence. The President is, no doubt, prepared to see in his reelection a great and gratifying endorsement of all that he has done; but it is clear that, if citizens could eliminate his personality entirely, and vote an abstract ticket in favor of the gold standard and prosperity, the enthusiasm and the number of votes would be vastly greater.

It is an undoubted truth that McKinley's Imperialist policy is preventing his party from reaping the full political harvest of prosperity. For it has been historically true of Anglo-Saxon political life that a remnant at least has stood for moral considerations and the principles of liberty, even when the country was prospering under an immoral and tyrannical Government. There have always been lofty-minded men who, like Clarendon, have had a soul above "the prosperous *wickedness* of these times." And it was he, friend and supporter of Charles I. as he was, who could not refrain from pointing out that, while the King's illegal ship-money left England highly prosperous, there was, with "the outward visible prosperity," an "inward reserved disposition of the people to murmur and unquietness." If such were not the case, we might well despair of liberty.

One thing is certain: the Republicans who stake everything on the full dinner-pail to-day are placing a frightful mortgage on the future of their party. They may win now, but what can they hope for when a poor crop or business depression—and poor crops and business depression will come as surely as the revolving years—coincides with an important election? On their own showing, they will have no excuse, and cannot complain when the voters turn them out neck and crop. It will be of no use to preach submission to Providence then. It is McKinley, not Providence, who has brought prosperity, and it is McKinley and his party who will have to suffer in times of adversity. All this raw talk about prosperity directly tends, in fact, to cultivate in the American electorate a Chinese frame of mind. When Sir Henry Blake, Governor of Hong Kong, was in Pekin shortly before the outbreak, a mandarin said to him, "The Emperor has kotowed four or five times for rain, and no rain has come. What good is he or the Dowager Empress for the Empire?" Logic is logic; and we may yet see McKinley kotowing for a big wheat crop at high prices, and his party beaten if he does not get it.

DISTRUSTFUL CUBA.

"My fellow-countrymen, they are preparing to cheat you!" Such was the cry which fell from the lips of the veteran Cuban revolutionist, Gen Hernández, at the commemorative banquet given in Havana on October 10. It was the anniversary of the beginning of the first Cuban revolution—the "grito de Yara," as the Cubans fondly call it. Many of the survivors of that heroic struggle were present. For ten years they had fought for independence, a generation ago; again in 1895 they had renewed the unequal combat; now with independence at last solemnly promised them by the great and Christian nation which had intervened to help them throw off the Spanish yoke, one would expect to find them exultant. But in fact they were filled with despairing apprehension. Speaker after speaker avowed his distrust of the United States. Major Secades asked how they could celebrate the glorious 10th of October when a foreign flag floated above them with the "boastful air of being absolute master"? Gen. Castillo offered a toast to Cuban independence, "still so far away, and perhaps a tricky deception." The fiery Juan Gualberto Gómez warned the people to be ready for a "critical day" when it might be necessary to imitate the Boers and make their land a wilderness rather than let it become the home of slaves. Gen. Hernández, as we said, bluntly declared that the United States intended to cheat the Cubans.

What are Americans to think of all this? Is it a mere luxury of pessimism? What more would these ungrateful, these distrustful Cubans have? We drove Spain out of their island. We have maintained peace and order for nearly two years. We have set up native municipal governments. We have allowed the people to choose a Constitutional Convention, which is soon to meet to frame a scheme of independent government for Cuba. Is there not here every sign of good faith? How can these irreconcilable Cubans impugn our honorable purpose?

Well, we suppose the reason is that they look to our acts rather than to our words. One ground which the Cubans have for distrusting us is that they can see how we deceived and abused the Filipinos. Such things cannot be done in a corner. The native Cuban press has not failed to expound the ominous Philippine example. One trusting people bitterly disillusioned, as the Filipinos were, is, the Cubans say, a fine instance of the way the United States endeavors to "encourager les autres." Moreover, they have significant words of influential Americans to point to as well as meaning acts. Senator Beveridge brutally declares in Chicago that our promise of independence to Cuba was made in a moment of impulsive but mistaken generosity, and that, therefore, it will not be kept; his words are read with consternation in Santiago and Cienfuegos and Matanzas. It is true, then, exclaim the Cubans; the Americans mean to play the rogue. As if to remove all doubts, the chief American newspaper of Havana, the *Post*, which poses, with good reason, as the chosen organ of the American military government, hastened to assert that "Mr. Beveridge makes no mistake. Cuba is certain to come definitely under our permanent jurisdiction." Would not the Cubans be blind indeed if they saw no significance in all this?

Furthermore, the advance agents of American Imperialism are swarming to the island. To exploit land, mines, forests, public franchises—that is their one aim, and they cynically avow their expectation of being able to accomplish it under American sovereignty. There is just now a "Cuban Company" endeavoring, in spite of the Foraker law, to secure control of all the Cuban railways and to get the right of way for new ones. This company is, of course, an American syndicate, and the press of interior Cuba is warning the people to have nothing to do with it, since it is one of the agencies being used to rob them of independence. And this is but a sample of what is going on. Neely and Rathbone set the pace for American exploitation of Cuba; and the sad sincerity of greed in which they wrought is the prevailing spirit, to Cuban observation, of most of the Americans who come to their island looking for investments.

Ah, but the plighted word of this nation; the renewed and solemn pledges of the Republican platform and of President McKinley's letter of acceptance—is it not a gratuitous insult to us and to him for the Cubans to say that they do not believe we mean to do what we vow we will? Well, if they do not believe us, whose fault is it? We cannot appeal to a reputation for telling the truth after we have been caught lying. The Cubans have studied not alone our conduct in the Philippines, but our playing fast and loose with our word in Porto Rico. President McKinley has made no more binding promise to Cuba than he did to Porto Rico; if he broke one, why should he not the other? That is what the Cubans ask when they read what the President says about our "sacred guarantees" to Cuba. What, they sneer, cannot sacred guarantees be swallowed as easily as plain duty? Such a thing it is for a President to have destroyed confidence in his character, and so in the character of his country. It is painful for an American to read the flings of Cubans at American good faith, but what possible answer has he when taunted with an intention to cheat and deceive Cubans as Filipinos and Porto Ricans have been cheated and deceived?

For Cubans, the thing to do is to go on quietly with their Constitutional Convention. Whatever and however reasonable their doubts, it is for them to put us to the proof. We hope the members of the Convention will, in their first session, call upon President McKinley to annul his unprecedented and suspicious order to them to determine in their Constitution the relations between Cuba and the United States. He had no color of title to impose such a condition upon them, and they should resent and repudiate it at the first opportunity. Even if this just ground of fear is not removed, the Cubans should proceed to draw up the best scheme of independent government they can devise. Then let them throw the responsibility on us. Americans who believe in such a thing as national honor, and who are cut to the heart to see a stain upon it, will not stand idly by and see the President once more make us appear a faithless and godless nation. Whatever the popular majority behind McKinley, whatever the popular indifference to a new breach of trust, if it come, as it is evidently preparing, in Cuba, there will be Americans left to tell a party or a President drunk with Imperialism, as Machiavelli told the Italian Prince: "To betray one's friends, to be without faith, without mercy, without religion—those are perhaps ways of acquiring empire, but no glory."

THE COMING ARMY CRISIS.

Whatever the result of the Presidential election, it is already plain that no more pressing domestic question than that of the reorganization and increase of the regular army will present itself this winter to the Administration and to Congress. However much Mr. Roosevelt and Mr. Bryan may argue as to past Republican intentions in regard to the army, and however much Secretary Root may affirm that the question of an increase has not entered his head, the fact remains that some action must be taken by Congress if the Philippines are not to be practically abandoned. It is for Congress to decide in December whether the historic army policy of the United States is to be reversed, and whether or not our permanent land force shall be nearly four times what it was before the blowing up of the *Maine*. It may even be honestly asked if army officers are not correct who declare that 150,000 men must eventually be provided by Congress to keep our "conquered" Malays in a sufficiently pacified condition while the unsought benefits of Anglo-Saxon civilization are conferred upon them.

The necessity for legislative action this fall arises from the requirement of the army law of March 1, 1899, which provides that the present regular army of

65,000 men shall shrink to its ante-bellum figure of 28,000 on July 1, 1901, and that the existing volunteer force of 35,000 men shall be disbanded on or before the same day. This was a compromise measure, many Republican Congressmen having even then proposed a standing army of 100,000 men, and having been forced to accept the substitute partly because of the opposition of some of their own party like Representative Loud of California. At the time of the passage of this law, Gen. Otis was cabling that no volunteers would be needed. As late as June 1, 1899, he continued to hold his utterly mistaken opinion that only "30,000 troops will be necessary for the effective control of the Philippines." To-day, sixteen months or more later, Gen. MacArthur finds that his army of 71,000 men, exclusive of some 2,000 marines at Cavité, is none too large to supply the constant demands for reinforcements made by his brigade commanders. The outlook for the speedy defeat and destruction of the "small portion" of the Filipinos reported in arms is, at this time, far less favorable than on August 12, 1899, when it was announced in Washington that "the President believes that Aguinaldo is making his last play, and that the war will be over by November 1 [1899]."

It is evident, therefore, that only the coming true of that cheerful campaign prediction that the Filipinos will give up dying for their cause on hearing that Mr. Bryan is defeated, will relieve the Administration of the necessity of having a large force in the Philippines to hold what territory has been won. No unbiassed student of the Filipinos, past and present, can believe that this will come to pass, and it must be noticed that Gen. MacArthur has not yet advanced this theory. If, as is alleged, the Filipinos are so fully informed as to what is going on in this country, they must have learned by this time that the American people will not be able to pass judgment at the coming election upon the Administration's course in the Philippines because of the menace of Bryanism and of free silver. They must know also that those Americans who have dared to stand up and protest against the wickedness of shooting down men whose only crime is their desire to govern themselves in their own way, will not abandon their efforts to create an overwhelming moral sentiment in favor of giving the Filipinos their independence without qualification.

But it is the necessity for the gradual withdrawal of the volunteer regiments, now scheduled to begin next month, which is the Administration's most threatening danger. As the Filipinos see town after town abandoned by the retiring garrisons, for which Gen. MacArthur will have no substitutes, it will be surprising indeed if they are not encouraged to fresh outbreaks, and made to believe the Americans defeated. The longer Congress debates the question of an army bill, the more will Gen. MacArthur's army be weakened before new regiments can be raised and transported to Manila, with the prospect perhaps of reconquering towns for which much blood has already been shed. It is hard, indeed, to see how any additional troops can be sent to Manila to bridge over this interim, since Gen. Wood still retains 5,500 men in Cuba, and the home garrisons have been reduced to 16,500 men, mostly artillery or fragments of regiments already in the Philippines. Nor will it be maintained that a Government which is preparing to force a Constitution upon an unwilling people will be exercising due foresight, according to the new diplomacy, if it deprives itself of the means to make the Cubans obey its will.

Many questions must come before Congress which will make a hasty decision as to the size and make-up of the new army difficult. The Ordnance Board's demand for 18,000 artillerymen to care for its costly forts and guns, which meets with Secretary Root's approval; the clamor for artillery and cavalry reorganization, in accordance with modern European methods; the crying need of an amalgamation of the line and staff, so bitterly fought over last winter; the need of more generals; the question of giving volunteer officers commissions in the new army; and, most important of all, the advisability of continuing the present makeshift army, partly regular and partly volunteer—these are but a few of the problems which must be properly solved if the reorganization is to be effective. Nor must it be forgotten that conflicting interests in the army itself create such difficulties that a joint board of line and staff officers to clear the way for some comprehensive plan has been suggested in many quarters.

However much those affected by these details may be interested in their working out, the public at large will be most concerned in the determination of the principles involved. Whether the standing force is to be greatly enlarged at this time, and, if so, whether such action is in accordance with the noblest traditions of American life and with the safety and welfare of the Republic, is the important point at issue which will be most discussed. The taxpayer will not forget that before the war the cost of his army of 28,000 men and his pension bill were together more than Germany's outlay for her great army of half a million. Nor should he be unmindful of the fact that on July 1, 1901, $650,000,000 will have been paid out as the price of the war with Spain and of the criminal aggression in the Philippine Islands. It was James Russell Lowell who said that the United States would endure "so long as the ideas of its founders continue dominant." They had no more dominant belief than that a standing army, other than for domestic police purposes, was a menace to the liberties of the people.

HISTORY AND LITERATURE.

History and literature, like elections and the weather, are always subjects to be discussed, but as the "silly season" is over, we should hardly select either of them for the text of a theoretical essay. There remains the relation between the two, a matter about which we are led to say something by the recent appearance of opinions which must not be overlooked. During the last Lent Term, Mr. J. H. Wylie delivered the Ford Lectures in the University of Oxford, speaking upon "The Council of Constance to the Death of John Hus." We shall criticise elsewhere the substance of these studies. At present we need only consider the brief *L'Envoi* in which Mr. Wylie explains his views concerning the composition of history and modern historical tendencies.

Three days after we received Mr. Wylie's lectures in their published form, Mr. Charles Francis Adams gave an inaugural address at the dedication of the building which the wisdom and generosity of Wisconsin have provided for the State Historical Society. The opening part of this address, which fifty years ago would have been justly called an oration, centred around the great issues of 1848, the year when Wisconsin entered the Union. The State was first given its place in the scheme of historical evolution, and then the orator passed on to the same topics which Mr. Wylie touched in his closing words at Oxford—the composition of history, and modern historical tendencies. However, it is not because these two judgments have reached us at one moment that we place them side by side. Mr. Wylie and Mr. Adams regard the same question from different standpoints, and the contrast of their views may well afford students and teachers of history a theme for meditation.

Like Matthew Arnold, Mr. Wylie is "one of her Majesty's inspectors of schools," but to the world he is best known by his learned and detailed 'History of England under Henry IV.' This work has been praised on all hands for its erudition, but it has also been censured by more than one reviewer for its over-minuteness and want of literary style. At Oxford Mr. Wylie took occasion to answer his critics in a very charming and witty manner. He begins by citing Bishop Stubbs, who "once said of his own work that the useful part of it was hard reading and the readable part 'trifling,' which would soon 'go the way of all fireworks.'" This is a pretty bold *argumentum ad hominem*, and Mr. Wylie proceeds: "But, after all, the style, the art that carries all by storm and wins along the whole line, is a God-given gift. Those who have it cannot fail to make it felt, while those who have it not would do well to make no effort to affect it."

Quite apart from his own confessed shortcomings, Mr. Wylie greatly prefers facts without style to style without learning. "We all know the old methods of the eighteenth century: character sketches and fancy portraits, Thucydidean in scope and drawn to display the wordy skill of the draughtsman; lofty and often contradictory generalizations, all based upon the same meagre stock of knowledge; a modicum of well-worn facts tricked out in varying degrees of picturesqueness." Mr. Wylie thinks that minuteness has not hitherto been the bane of history, and he is apparently satisfied to live at the dawn of that documentary age which, in the words of Lord Acton, "will tend to make history independent of historians, and to develop learning at the expense of writing." Nothing could be more unlike literature than Rymer's 'Foedera,' and yet, says Mr. Wylie, "it put fresh life into the treatment of the whole field of English history, and did not in the end destroy the delight of students any more than the discovery of the Assyrian bricks or the Moabite stone."

It will be quickly seen that we are not stating the ideas of one isolated scholar. Opinions like those which have just been quoted are intrenched in our leading universities. The typical American professor of history might, if the research method were accused of making books dull, reply in borrowed phrase that "there are worse things than dulness—worse if that which professes to be history is no history at all." Moreover, and here we reach the practical issue, our scheme of college teaching is grounded upon the conception that the proper study of the past began with Leopold von Ranke. Whatever outward respect may be shown the "classical" historians of Greece, Rome, and modern Europe, their masterpieces are left untouched by the undergraduate because he is engaged in exploiting other kinds of material.

We now come to the views which Mr. Adams expressed at Madison. Indeed, we have kept them chiefly in mind from the start. Mr. Adams is strongly convinced that the research system of historical instruction has been carried beyond the normal point in American universities. At the end of his address, he turns towards the ideal historian of the future, whom he expects to be a greater benefactor than any President or politician, and describes his qualities. "He must be a prophet and a poet, as well as an investigator and an annalist. He must cut loose from many of the models and most of the precedents of the immediate past, and the educational precepts now so commonly in vogue. He must perplex the modern college professor by asserting that soundness is not always and of necessity dull, and that even intellectual sobriety may be carried to excess." Nor does Mr. Adams hesitate to describe the nurture of the true historian. "Becoming more of an artist, rhetorician, and philosopher than he now is, he must be less of a pedant and colorless investigator. In a word, going back to Moses, Thucydides, and Herodotus; Tacitus, Gibbon, and Voltaire; Niebuhr, Macaulay, Carlyle, Buckle, Green, Mommsen, and Froude, he must study their systems, and, avoiding the mistakes into which they fell, thoughtfully accommodating himself to the conditions of the present, he must prepare to fulfil the mission before him."

Between Mr. Wylie and Mr. Adams, what is to be the fate of the undergraduate? Mr. Wylie says: "Henceforward our backs are to be ruthlessly turned on the old barren generalizations, and we are to look on no detail as trivial which tends to supplement our scanty knowledge of the past." Mr. Adams says: "I distinctly look back with regret to that more spiritual and more confident time when we, of the generation now passing from the stage, drew our inspiration from prophets, and not from laboratories." Here is the parting of the ways. Shall the undergraduate, from the start, be made what Mr. Wylie calls "a researcher," or shall he master the historians in Mr. Adams's list, and others of the next lower rank?

For our own part we think Mr. Adams's contention just, and we have no scruple in saying so. He would be the last to scorn the appliances of scholarship or to deny the value of facts. But appliances are merely a means, and facts are merely data. We shall not take the tone of an alarmist and say that the undergraduates of our large colleges are made bibliographers and nothing more. They learn much useful method and may imbibe a love of sheer historical truth. The pity is that they are caught too young. When they should be reading the funeral speech of Pericles, even in Jowett, they are preparing "special reports." As a disciplinary exercise, history is far from being the best possible training. It helps the youth most by enlarging his horizon, by firing his imagination, by quickening his sympathies, and by prompting him to great actions through the contemplation of great examples. Few teachers have the genius to impart the "hard, gem-like flame" of historical inspiration, but all can at least point out the authors who have best succeeded in realizing the nature of this inspiration. The compilers of good *Jahrbücher* have their own honorable place, but they should not be the first or chief guides of the undergraduate.

We would neither seem too earnest nor press our opinion too far. We simply think that most American universities at present exalt the great methods above the great writers. We, like Mr. Adams, look forward with hope to the time when the historian who shall at once be the truest product of the university and the surest leader of public opinion, will speak with

"An eloquence scarce given to mortals, new
And undebased by praise of meaner things."

THE LACK OF OPPOSITION.

I have often discussed with Englishmen, during the last few years, the question why we have no organized opposition in America. Ever since the civil war, any attempt to oppose the party in power has been generally futile or contemptible. After the second election of Cleveland, the last shreds of respectability vanished from the opposition, so that at last the Republican party was able to win and divide the offices with such a makeshift as McKinley.

I think the matter may be explained by simple observation of what has happened within the last few months. McKinley had committed some of the most flagrant errors ever committed by a party man. He had violated all the most revered American traditions. The consequence was that he was violently opposed in the beginning by some of the most prominent American citizens, as one might have expected. They accused him of crimes against the American commonwealth which all the best political writers with whom I am acquainted have pronounced unpardonable. They are crimes such as I have never heard of being forgiven by an enraged people.

Well, all these crimes have been overlooked by these very men. They all say they believe all they have ever said about McKinley, which showed him to be the most unfit man who ever filled a great place in a civilized country, yet now they are all out persuading people to vote for him. Something of the same kind occurred after Cleveland's election. He was promptly abandoned by the men who helped to elect him, and who would, it was supposed, form the nucleus of a reform party. They quickly disbanded, and ceased to take any interest apparently even in him, or in the things for which he stood.

Here is the explanation of our failures as reformers. We are reformers for only one election, and if that election does not reform, we disperse to our homes like the old French *arrière-ban*, and say we have had "enough of politics," and nothing more is heard of the reform for years. We then occupy ourselves in that favorite American fashion, by making apologies for the man who has got the place, no matter who he is or what he does. We begin our excuses for him with the phrase, "Oh, well now," and generally predict a fall of stocks if our attempt should be repeated. Bad as McKinley is, he has not caused a fall of stocks; and who is so foolish as to care what has become of the American commonwealth or reputation if there has not been a fall of stocks?

The morale of a party strikingly resembles that of an army. As in an army, each member of it has to feel sure, if discipline is perfect, not simply that he will stand fire himself, but that his comrades may be depended upon to do the same thing; and, above all, that his leaders may be safely followed as persons who have considered the whole situation, and know that their position is a sound one. An army whose generals took occasional service with the enemy could not hold together for three months. It would not do for them to tell the troops, now and then, that the enemy was a good fellow and meant well, and ought to have another trial. The gentlemen I have spoken of have been demonstrating, with all their force and eloquence, for the last year or two, that McKinley was committing a series of heinous crimes against sound morality and against the Constitution. A more complete disqualification than they have proved, of the man's unfitness for any high public position, it would be impossible to make. And yet they are now telling the people who believed in them, who followed them, who trusted them, that it was "all gammon and spinach," that McKinley is not such a bad fellow, after all, and that he ought to have another chance to massacre a distant unoffending people, to lay waste their property, to violate his own Constitution, to demoralize the American army, to spend the public revenues in criminal enterprises. The situation reminds us of Tacitus's report of the way the Roman nobility "rushed into servitude" under Tiberius, when they felt sure that he had "euchred" them.

I have long held the opinion that American youths receive their education in politics and morals far more through seeing how their elders behave than through books or teachers or religious instruction. Nowadays what a boy receives from his teacher or pastor is far inferior to what comes to him through association with his father and his father's friends. He is influenced greatly by the way he sees the machinery of state carried on by conspicuous men, and by the way in which persons whom he respects as orators and statesmen and executive officers administer their trusts or speak their sentiments. In fact, the reason why men like the gentlemen I have mentioned take the trouble to make public their opinion about McKinley or Bryan, or the acts of Government generally, is because they think those opinions will influence hundreds and thousands of young men. But what if these great men do not hold the same opinions for more than two or three months at a time, and show plainly, and don't mind who sees it, that their opinions can be bought, like the rest of their possessions; that the prospect of a place, the honor of a title, a compliment from party confederates, the prospect of a little business gain, or the mere comfort of being in accord with people they meet in society, would induce them to change their views about public affairs, and the character and competency of the persons who administer them, at the shortest notice? What is to be the future of a democracy that has no steadfast guides on whom it can rely? Can such a state of things be properly described by anybody but Offenbach?

E. L. G.

Correspondence.

WHAT IF M'KINLEY SHOULD REVERT?

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The bankers át Richmond, as noticed in your issue of October 11, 1900, besides stating that the act of March 14 offered no adequate protection to the gold standard, gave expression to the great danger of intrusting the administration of that law to a hostile Executive, thereby impliedly espousing the reëlection of President McKinley and opposing the election of Mr. Bryan. Now, is it not a notorious fact that Mr. McKinley, during President Cleveland's Administration, bitterly denounced, in the halls of Congress, that gentleman's preference for the "yellow metal"? Mr. McKinley since that time has changed his mind on this subject, as, indeed, on many others. This record before the country, might not circumstances arise under which Mr. McKinley's friendly attitude towards the gold standard could be changed into a hostile one? Is the statement that Mr. McKinley has been on "all sides of all questions at all times" too sweeping? Has the danger of his being "markhanna-ized" at any time been totally averted?—Respectfully,

EMIL COITH.

CHICAGO, October 20, 1900.

BEVERIDGE ON TRUSTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I read with surprise the *Nation's* commendation of Senator Beveridge's speech on Trusts as "the most sensible deliverance on the subject that has come from any speaker on either side," in view of his use of the department-store as an instance of a good Trust. A great service would be rendered by one who should make clear the difference between good and bad Trusts, but Senator Beveridge makes hopeless confusion by his failure to discriminate between the most radically dissimilar things. It would be hard to find a more striking illustration than the department-store affords of just what the Trust is not.

No doubt there is much vagueness in the popular use of the word Trust, but the fundamental idea is unquestionably monopoly, or an approach thereto so close as to secure control of the market and, therefore, of prices. Several economists have shown that this does not necessarily imply an absolute monopoly. There is sometimes competition, and that of a most cut-throat order. But it is only temporary, while the Trust is undeveloped, and is for the specific purpose of ruining competitors, or compelling them to join the Trust, and so destroying competition. If the Trust does not succeed in destroying competition, it is regarded to that extent as a failure. The department-store, on the contrary, exemplifies the farthest extreme of unrestricted competition. Those who denounce all Trusts oppose them because they destroy competition. But those who denounce department-stores oppose them for precisely the opposite reason.

The distinction which ought to be made is the distinction between large-scale production and monopoly. The alleged benefits to the public from the "good" Trusts are due in no respect to the Trust feature, but wholly to the economies of large-scale production—economies that are also exhibited in the department-store, which is the farthest antipode of the Trust, and yet are not always found in Trusts. No progress can be made towards a solution of the Trust problem by those who ignore this elementary distinction. The problem is how to secure generally the economies of large-scale production without the evils inseparable from monopoly. For several centuries experience has demonstrated Mr. Bryan's thesis that "monopoly in private hands is indefensible from any standpoint, and intolerable."

Respectfully yours, H. H. SWAIN.

DILLON, MONTANA, October 12, 1900.

THE APPEAL OF THE DUTCH PROFESSORS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I crave some space to reply to the letter of Prof. Swets in your issue of October 11.

The argument my adversary uses is characteristic of the Boers and their supporters; it is "slim." Because there was slavery in America at the time the Declaration of Independence was written and published, he contends, in effect, that, at the close of the nineteenth century, the late Transvaal Government was entirely justified in refusing equal rights to the blacks. But, apart from the fact that the United States has long since abolished slavery, my point was that the Boers refused equal rights to the *white* race in their country, and sought to hold the Anglo-Saxon settlers—who had come in response to the official invitation of the Transvaal Commission to Great Britain—in a state of civil and political degradation.

The ill-treatment of the colored race by the Boers is so notorious a fact that it is idle to argue that it is equal or superior in kindliness and justice to the treatment that native races everywhere receive at the hands of my fellow-countrymen. Nor does it strengthen Professor Swets's position to adduce the compound system at Kimberley, and to affirm, as he does, that it is "slavery in the worst sense." The system is due originally to the atrocious Boer treatment of the blacks, and to the temptation to drink the poisonous "Cape smoke" which is everywhere placed in the Kaffir's way. The slaves of old never were paid wages, were sold as cattle, and had no rights whatever. The Kaffir in the Kimberley compounds is allowed to return home at stated intervals during the course of his contract, and, when his term is up, he goes home altogether if he desires it, carrying away with him the wages he has earned.

As for Mr. Cronwright Schreiner's authority, I do not esteem it worth much, nor, I am certain, would Professor Swets think any more of it were I to quote, as I might easily do, denunciations of the Boer by the very gentleman he so complacently cites. The franchise law passed by the Volksraad was deliberately framed in such fashion as to be unworkable and to fool the outer public. All the public was not fooled, however, and it would be easy for my adversary to convince himself of the accuracy of my statement by simply reading that law and seeing how it works out. As regards franchise in Great Britain, will Professor Swets point out a single instance of its being refused to any person save a proved and convicted criminal?

He speaks of the support given by Uitlanders, other than the British, to the Transvaal cause. Why does he not give us the opinion, *at present*, of these Uitlanders, who have been paid—and partially paid only—in worthless Transvaal paper, and who behold Mr. Kruger making off to Holland with the Government millions in his possession? If he refers to those Uitlanders from Chicago who went out under the cloak of the Red Cross Society, and then turned mercenaries, he is quite welcome to the support of such scoundrels, whom no Briton desires to have anything to do with save as foes.

The reference to the prize awarded to the Transvaal ex-Government for its educational exhibit at Paris is interesting. But is it not a fact that most of the Boer education was comprised in the exhibit itself, and that little is, or rather was, to be found in the country itself? And, if the Boers are as civilized as he holds, then what of the numerous abuses of the Red Cross privileges and the false surrenders, of one of which at least Lord Roberts was an eye-witness?

And as to the Boers having fought for their liberty, I grant that they did so of late, for they had seen the tide turn. But they began the war, and meant it to be a war of conquest. Does Professor Swets forget Joubert's declaration at the outset: "We hold the English in the hollow of our hand"? That does not sound like men entering on a life-and-death struggle for liberty against great odds; and Joubert and Reitz and Steyn knew very well that their liberty was in no danger, for Britain had offered to guarantee and defend it with the whole power of her vast empire. Let Professor Swets read the evidence of Transvaalers and Hollanders given before the Concessions Commission. It will enlighten him as to the righteousness of the Boer cause and the liberty cry.

Finally, the Boers began the destruction of farmhouses, and of inoffensive ones to boot, while Professor Swets must be aware that military critics of the highest rank blamed Lord Roberts for being so tender-hearted as to spare the dwellings of the very men engaged in fighting his troops and in ambushing his soldiers. The use of the white flag on Boer farmhouses is again respectfully drawn to Professor Swets's attention.—Yours sincerely,

F. C. DE SUMICHRAST.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., October 16, 1900.

CUSHMAN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The derivation of the name Cushman (No. 1842, p. 309) lacks one thing needed to make it acceptable, to wit, proof that the artisan who made femoral armor (*cuisses cuissarts*, cuishes) was ever styled cuissman or cushman; for Mr. Chamberlain's derivation postulates the fact that he was. But no proof is offered; and indeed, were the derivation true, no proof would be called for beyond reference to the dictionary, as in the parallel cases, Bowyer, Fletcher. The absence of cushman from the dictionary must be taken as conclusive proof that the word was never in use in the language in any meaning. And if Mr. Chamberlain's derivation is correct, cushman is a hybrid word, half Norman, half Saxon. That fact adds to the improbability of the derivation: cuissarts were made for and worn by nobles and knights only, and can we suppose that in the thirteenth century, when such patches of plate, in reinforcement of chain armor, came into use, the proud Norman knights would call the artificers by a mixed appellation like that? Plainly, as appears from the passage in the *Nation* (No. 1840, p. 276), the term for maker of cuisses was kissere, from the Norman. The vulgar was not concerned with such matters, so the thigh armor and the thigh armorer had no need of a Saxon designation.

But, further, the form cushman as designation of the artificer of the cuissart is anomalous. According to the analogy of such compounds as bowman, spearman, pikeman, rifleman, swordsman, and oarsman, cushman (if the *cush* is *cuisse*) will mean a man wearing cuisses. In fact, is there in the language, or was there at any period, a word at all points analogous to the supposititious word cushman—any word of the formula *x*-man and meaning maker of *x*?

Might it not be that Cushman is a corruption or variant of Cushing as that in all probability is of Cussen (pron. *cushen* or *kwishen*)? With great diffidence the conjecture is offered that Cussen has for its first element *cois* (pron. *kush* or *kwish*), *cois* being the possessive case of *cos* (Gaelic), foot; and that the derivation of Cushman is from Gaelic without intermixture of Saxon.

JOSEPH FITZGERALD.

MAMARONECK, N. Y, October 20, 1900.

ANOTHER FALSE SINGULAR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In No. 1839 of the *Nation*, Prof. Fred Newton Scott calls "attention to the increasing use of the word *data* as a singular noun." Is it possible that *kine* also will come to be so regarded? In the article on "The Seven Lean Years," by "Referee," in the *Atlantic Monthly* for October, 1900, this sentence occurs on page 515: " . . . that every lean kine that came would be followed by a fat one." G. S. W.

October 20, 1900.

SACK SHIP.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your review of 'The Voyage of Robert Dudley' (p. 295), mention is made of a "small prize of 'sackes'." Can your reviewer or any reader explain this last word? In a report on the state of Nova Scotia, dated May 29, 1732, the committee state that the Canso fishery is carried on by British subjects from New England, and by them and other "Sack ships" exported to the markets. The dictionaries, etc., available throw no light on it. A. M. M.

DALHOUSIE COLLEGE, HALIFAX, N. S.,
October 18, 1900.

Notes.

Mrs. Paget Toynbee has undertaken to prepare for the Clarendon Press a new edition of the Letters of Horace Walpole, and desires to make it as complete as possible. Nearly two hundred letters which are not included in current editions have already been secured. Others doubtless remain in private hands, and the loan of such or of careful copies is requested. Mrs. Toynbee's address is Dorney Wood, Burnham, Bucks, England. The new edition will make ten or eleven octavo volumes.

Some limited editions announced are worth recording. Preston & Rounds Co., Providence, will put on sale only 200 copies of the 'Civil and Military List of Rhode Island, 1647-1800,' a list of all officers elected by the General Assembly from its organization, compiled from the records by Josepn Jencks Smith. More than fifty thousand names will appear in it. One thousand numbered sets of the Holly Edition in forty volumes of the Complete Works of Washington Irving, newly illustrated in photogravure by a score of artists, and as many of the Whitehall Edition of Macaulay's Complete Works in twenty volumes, with numerous full-page illustrations, are offered by G. P. Putnam's Sons, who will also sell by subscription the Otsego Edition of Fenimore Cooper's Works in sixteen volumes. Finally, but one hundred copies of 'The Solitary Summer,' printed on Japanese vellum, will be obtainable of Macmillan Co.

The works of Theodore Roosevelt, in fifteen volumes, to be sold separately, will be published by the Messrs. Putnam in a "Sagamore Series." The initial volume, 'American Ideals,' will contain a biographical and critical memoir by Gen. F. V. Greene. The final volume, chronologically, 'The Rough Riders,' is included by arrangement with the Messrs. Scribner. It is, we are assured in the prospectus, "everywhere recognized as one of the most perfect chapters of military history ever penned—both for manner and matter."

The Wakefield Edition of the Complete Works of Oliver Goldsmith in the press of Harper & Bros. will comprise twelve volumes, including Forster's Life and a special introduction by Austin Dobson. Peter Cunningham supplies note and comment. More than one hundred photogravure illustrations will adorn the text.

The same firm will publish 'Napoleon: The Last Phase,' by Lord Rosebery; 'The Riddle of the Universe,' by Ernst Haeckel; 'The Story of 19th Century Science,' by Henry Smith Williams; and 'Thrilling Days in Army Life,' by Gen. George A. Forsythe.

Additional announcements from Houghton, Mifflin & Co. are 'Sir Joshua Reynolds' and 'Murillo' in Miss Estelle M. Hurll's popular Riverside Art Series.

James Pott & Co. will soon have ready 'Causes of the Outbreak in China,' by the Rev. F. L. Hawks Pott, D.D., President of St. John's College, Shanghai.

An Index to the 28 volumes of *St. Nicholas* is in the press of the Helman-Taylor Co., Cleveland, against the new year. It has been prepared by the staff of the 'Cumulative Index,' and will be a dictionary catalogue in form.

The enormous productiveness of Elizabeth Barrett Browning is shown in the Cambridge edition of her complete poetical works just issued by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. The condensed "Juvenilia" alone occupy nearly thirty pages in double column. The editing has been done by a woman, presumably Miss Harriet Waters Preston, who furnishes the biographical sketch and some annotations in addition to the customary introductions to the poems. The familiar portrait of Mrs. Browning faces the vignette of Casa Guidi on the engraved title-page.

Mrs. Anna Hollingsworth Wharton intimates, in her introduction, the motive for reproducing Mrs. Elizabeth F. Ellet's half-century-old 'Women of the American Revolution,' just issued in two volumes by George W. Jacobs & Co., Philadelphia. Such an enterprise has been rendered a profitable venture by the recent rise of "various patriotic societies . . . organized among women." The work is pleasing in appearance and has many portraits, and will, no doubt, fall in with the current unhappy association of patriotism with war alone.

We see this influence percolating to youthful strata in Miss Maud Humphrey's 'Children of the Revolution,' skilful color designs from a hand long practised in delineating childhood, accompanied by semi-historical text and verse from the pen of Miss Mabel Humphrey, objectionable if only on the score of English. Frederick A. Stokes Co. are the publishers.

Mountaineering literature is expensive, and many readers must be content to borrow Alpine books from the public library. However, Sir W. M. Conway's 'Alps from End to End' (Lippincott), which five years ago brought a high price, has been well reprinted in comparatively cheap form. As we reviewed this volume when it appeared, we need only recall the fact that it ranks well among those delightful works which have had their origin in holiday scrambles above the snow line. Topographically it is very comprehensive, and it brings two Gurkhas into the unusual setting of Switzerland and the Tyrol. The geographical supplement, by Mr. Coolidge, is brief, but important to climbers. We may add that the profuse and clever illustrations of Mr. A. D. McCormick are made a part of this cheaper edition.

Major Waddell's 'Among the Himalayas' (Lippincott) is also a reprinted book of travel, the first edition of which was published in London a little less than two years ago. A link between the two volumes is furnished by Mr. A. D. McCormick, the illustrator of both. He had never seen a mountain until he was taken out by Sir Martin Conway to climb Pioneer Peak, if possible, and, at any rate, to make drawings for the expedition. Since then, he has become an authority on Himalayan and Alpine scenery.

'Among the Himalayas,' which can now be bought for about one-third of its original price, is a record of travel rather than of sport. Major Waddell has explored the district of Sikhim more thoroughly than any one since the days of Sir Joseph Hooker, and, though no climber, he has seen his share of danger. The crossing of a Himalayan torrent on a rickety cane-bridge will try the nerves as severely as the sharpest arête. The cost of travelling in the districts of Nepal, Tibet, and Sikhim is so great, and the toil so trying, that few exploring parties enter that section of the Indian hill country. Major Waddell's narrative is well written and embraces both land and people. Of the mountains, he adds fuller information about Everest than about Kanchenjunga. But whether Everest is really higher than all its neighbors, he had no means of determining.

'Pictures of the Old French Court,' by Catherine Bearne (Dutton), is at best a slight contribution, whether to history or to biography. If it were better executed, we might compare it with some of the numerous books which the late Mrs. Oliphant composed. But 'The Makers of Florence,' 'The Makers of Venice,' 'Jeanne d'Arc,' etc., were grounded upon a firmer foundation of fact, and were certainly written in a better style. The subjects of Miss Bearne's sketches are Charles V. and Jeanne de Bourbon, Charles VI. and Isabeau de Bavière, and Anne de Bretagne. She has collected a good deal of personal detail from the Chroniclers, and she even makes reference to 'L'Art de Vérifier les Dates,' but her use of historical authorities is unconvincing. For instance, she should know whether the name of a modern writer to whom she is greatly indebted, and whom she cites *passim* in her first sketch, is Siméon de Luce or Siméon Luce. She uses both forms with impartiality. This is an average piece of historical book-making, but lacks the erudition which should accompany its setting forth of footnotes. The illustrations are better than the text.

'The Private Memoirs of Madame Roland' (McClurg) is a reprinted translation of the autobiography which the Girondist Egeria wrote at Ste.-Pélagie shortly before her execution. The English version which is followed by the present publishers is one of 1795. It has long been out of print and may possess some claim upon modern notice, though in places it seems awkward. Mme. Roland, the disciple of Plutarch, shared the biographical talent of her master, albeit her manner of writing differs *toto cœlo* from his. In such an age, the soul of the Girondist party could not but take herself seriously. Yet sometimes one observes an added touch of the philosophical and abstract spirit which was a quality of the Girondist leaders. For example, "At length I became the wife of a man of genuine worth, who loved me more in proportion as his knowledge of me increased. Married thus with my own full consent, I found nothing to make me repent of the step; I devoted myself to him with a zeal perhaps more ardent than discreet. . . . I have not for a moment ceased to behold in my husband one of the most estimable of men, to whom I deem it an honor to belong; but I have often been sensible of a certain lack of parity between us, and that the ascendancy of a somewhat masterful character, added to twenty years of seniority, rendered one of these superiorities too great." Mme. Roland is both a heroine of romance and an historic personage whom no one could think of overlooking. Accordingly, this translation will be welcomed by many who do not read French. The illustrations are good, but we should have preferred to see the Goupil portrait used for a frontispiece.

Fresh editions of George Borrow's works continue to spring from the renewed interest in his literary genius and singular character. We have before us a one-volume 'Bible in Spain' (Putnams), with the notes and glossary of the late Mr. U. R. Burke. Borrow's text requires some comment and a great deal of explanation. For instance, where one's knowledge of Romany is restricted to the meaning of such words as *crallis*, *Corahai*, *hokkawar*, etc., he will need to have the "crabbed Gitano" translated at many points where the author hurries on without a note. Those who are familiar either with Borrow's personality or with the way in which 'The Bible in Spain' was composed, will not feel surprised at the unannotated form in which it went to the printer; and it remained for nearly two generations without any careful editor. Mr. Burke, himself a historian of Spain, had an accurate knowledge of the country and of Borrow's other writings. His notes, without being obtrusive, are frequent, clear, and, in most cases, conclusive. Unfortunately, his death occurred before the volume could be printed, and the preparation of the glossary fell into other hands. However, Mr. H. W. Greene of Magdalen College, Oxford, took up the unfinished task and brought it to a successful end. The glossary is very full and deserves the notice of philologists. Besides several etchings, this edition contains a good map of the Peninsula, upon which the course of Borrow's four journeys is traced.

'The Life of Major-General James Shields,' by William H. Condon (New York: the author), purports to be the only full story of the career of a highly picturesque personage, who, partly by talent and partly by fortune, obtained distinction in two American wars and represented two States in the Senate, viz., Illinois for six years and Minnesota for one. But this story is so ill arranged, and so largely governed by the determination to make its hero a great man, that the true merit of Shields is hard to extract from the narrative. For example, Shields was in command of the division of Banks's Shenandoah army which, in March, 1862, inflicted a defeat upon Stonewall Jackson, and just missed, through the fault of some officer, whether of Shields himself or one of his subordinates, surrounding and possibly capturing Jackson. The biographer has gathered all the contemporary or later newspaper accounts which are accessible with regard to these affairs, and printed them in detail; but of critical discussion of the reasons which eventuated in Shields being refused the promotion which seemed to be his desert after the battle, or of any rational explanation why he seemed to be in ill favor at Washington, there is none. The title-page illustrates the careless and bombastic character of most of the book: "Hero of Three Wars and Senator from Three States." The third war and State appear to be of the author's imagination.

Among the several naval books published and announced this autumn are two lives of our celebrated sea-fighter, John Paul Jones. One of these appears as one of the "Great Commanders Series" published by D. Appleton & Co. Its author is the Rev. Cyrus Townsend Brady, who promises to become one of the prolific writers of the day. The first of the Commanders Series was Mahan's 'Farragut'; this is the second of the naval biographies, but the contrast from any point of view is unfavorable to the later biographer. He has not, among other things, exercised the care in preparation shown by Mahan, and several instances of this will be observed by comparing Jones's letters to Mr. Hewes and others with the statements at variance made by Mr. Brady. Take also the unsatisfactory reference made to the early life of Jones in this country, and the dubious account given of the assumption by the former John Paul of the name of Jones. Mr. Brady depicts Jones more as an adventurer than as a sometime planter and slave-owner. In other respects also inaccuracies will be found in this perhaps hastily written book.

In a little volume entitled 'Cranford Souvenirs, and Other Sketches' (Rivingtons), the Hon. Mrs. Lionel Tollemache has brought together a few magazine articles, products of leisure and enforced retirement, not specially noteworthy further than for the kindliness and good breeding they exhibit. Several of these papers give their readers a fair impression of the trivialities which for the most part make up the life of a dweller in a Swiss, or other, *Kurort*. The two longest essays are biographical, and deal with the almost forgotten Charles de Bonstetten, and with the earlier, unexceptionable years in the life of George Sand. Of Bonstetten the writer gives a tolerably lifelike picture, which brings out, entirely without malice prepense, the peculiar color of moral priggishness that too often attends the didacticism of Protestant Switzerland. Three or four enigmatical fables serve to add to the bulk of the small collection.

New Testament scholars will welcome the appearance again of Professor Gregory of Leipzig in the field where he is a master. The first volume of his long-expected work on the "Textual Criticism of the New Testament" has just been published in German by Hinrichs of Leipzig. It is an octavo of 478 pages, in which, after a summary account of N. T. palæography as respects materials, implements, scribes, characters, etc., the author proceeds to deal with the sources of our New Testament text under four divisions, viz., Greek Manuscripts, Greek Liturgical Books, Ancient Versions, both the Eastern and the Western, and Church Fathers. Only the first two of these four classes of helps find place in the present volume. Its contents consist, in the main, of a careful revision and enlargement of the Prolegomena of Tischendorf's "Eighth Larger Edition." During the ten years that have elapsed since the completion of that portion of the Prolegomena, much new material has accumulated which Dr. Gregory has faithfully utilized. Accordingly, for fulness and accuracy of information respecting the sources of our Greek New Testament the present volume, for the ground it covers, stands unrivalled. The concluding volume we are encouraged to hope to see by the end of the year.

The eighth part of Prof. Francis Brown's 'Hebrew and English Lexicon of the Old Testament' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) brings us down to the root S P D through 704 of the more than 1,100 pages which will, it may be inferred by comparison with other Hebrew lexicons, constitute the completed work. Lexicons, as a rule, are a long time a-making, and this one is no exception to the rule. Its speedy completion is a desideratum for Hebrew scholars. There is no satisfactory Hebrew-English dictionary available at present, and none of the Hebrew-German dictionaries is equal to this work, so far as it has progressed, in thoroughness, sober common sense, and the scientific use of the latest critical results. Among the notable articles in the present part is one on *nephesh*, commonly translated in the English Bible as "soul," more often meaning, however, "self" or "life" or "person." Under *mazzebah*, the "pillar" of the English Bible, we get a glimpse of the religious development of the Hebrews; the arrangement of references showing that these sacred stones were used and allowed until the seventh century, when they were "condemned for Israel by Deuteronomic code and Deuteronomic redaction of Kings." *Lammenazzeach*, rendered in our Bible "to the chief musician," which occurs in the heading of fifty-five Psalms, is explained as showing that these Psalms belonged originally to a "Director's Psalter," which was "probably the prayer-book of the synagogue of the Greek period." To this prayer-book belonged, also, the third chapter of Habakkuk. The mysterious *selah* of the Psalter indicated the "place of benedictions," and came into use in the late Persian period.

We turn children loose in Shakspere as we do in the Bible, confident that the occasional grossness will be overlooked or fail to be understood; whereas, if we undertake to read aloud, we must perforce skip and omit. Or if, again, we use the plays in school discipline, or put them on the boards at women's colleges, we must expurgate freely. Hence, no apology need be offered for Mrs. Sarah Willard Hiestand's "Beginner's Shakspere," in D. C. Heath & Co.'s "Home and School Classics," so far as it is abridged for the reason above suggested, and on the score of intelligibility or want of interest. In favor of her method is to be urged this editor's well-stated view that the wrong done to literary masterpieces by making them objects of class-room drill may be mitigated by cursory reading for its own sake, with hardly a note of explanation. After the spell has been fastened and the general plot better comprehended for the excisions, the analytic consideration may be counted upon to enhance interest rather than to repel. "The Tempest" and "A Midsummer Night's Dream" are the first two numbers.

Other issues in the same commendable series, which is illustrated, by the way, and attractively printed in bold letter, are Mrs. Ewing's 'Jackanapes,' and Hamerton's 'Chapters on Animals,' edited by Prof. W. P. Trent, Goldsmith's 'Goody Two-Shoes,' edited by Charles Welsh, etc.

It would be impossible to examine in detail the numerous volumes in the "Star" series of English Classics undertaken by the Globe School-Book Company of New York and Chicago. They are aimed not at the primary but at the high school, and the names of the editors show a real endeavor to provide an apparatus of high quality. Take, for example, as proof of independence and insight, Prof. William Hand Browne's analysis of the character of Dr. Primrose in the 'Vicar of Wakefield,' or Miss Mary A. Jordan's refusal to make Burke's Speech on Conciliation with America conform to the ancient canons of oratory. The volume last named merits exceptional attention for the pains taken to illuminate the subject from every side. Other volumes are plays of Shakspere, novels of Cooper and Scott and George Eliot, poems from Milton and Tennyson, etc. The mechanical part has been very well looked after.

Dr. Elliott Coues's monumental edition of the Lewis and Clark Journals has proved a boon to Nellie F. Kingsley in her efforts to condense and give continuity to the narrative of this most famous expedition. Her little volume, 'The Story of Captain Meriwether Lewis and Captain William Clark, for Young Readers' (Werner School Book Co.). besides recording the salient features of the exploration, contains a number of maps and illustrations, and a short introductory account, by the editor, of the earlier discoveries in the Northwest.

Mr. Gelett Burgess's patent hydrocephalous type of cranium has a peculiarly unpleasing effect as applied to children in his 'Goops, and How to Be Them' (Frederick A. Stokes Co.). His quarto volume purports to be "a manual of manners for polite infants," done into nursery jingle and illustrated in this clever artist's peculiar manner. But infants naturally polite would be in much danger of learning for the first time about vulgar ways, while the humor of the illustrations is destructive of a sense for beauty and refinement at once. Not a few of the stanzas, it must be said, if taken from the mass and printed without the drawings, would be a real addition to the mnemonics of correct habits in the nursery and elsewhere.

With the original text of 'Robinson Crusoe' the brothers Louis and Frederick Rhead have combined a series of illustrations and decorative borders cleverly executed with the pen (New York: R. H. Russell). The artists' originality consists in having frankly accepted Defoe's own location of Crusoe's island, off the mouth of the Orinoco; and in the West Indies, accordingly, they have made studies of tropical vegetation and animal life to give a reasonable setting to the story. So far as youthful readers are concerned, this is surely a work of supererogation, implying no gain, say, over Stothard's unstudied designs. His fancy and technical skill are on a higher plane. Still, the edition has no doubt found its excuse for being. The typography is above the common; but we can more easily forgive the overweighted running-title than we can the unindented-paragraph affectation.

The fifth issue of Meyer's 'Historisch-Geographischer Kalender,' for 1901 (Leipzig; New York: Lemcke & Buechner), shows changes and improvements, within its steadfast scheme, in conformity with the wishes of a large body of patrons. Among the illustrations, those of places, from Merian, serve as a bond of unity with the preceding issues; natural science is more extensively represented; and there is still a sprinkling of fresh engravings from photographs after nature. Nothing more up to date, perhaps, in this class, can be named than the view on folio 164 of the railway station at Kilindi, in Mombassa, on the line of the Uganda Railroad. The British protectorate of Uganda embraces a million inhabitants.

—The third in the series of ten octavo volumes of "The World's Orators," edited by Guy Carleton Lee, Ph.D., and published by G. P. Putnam's Sons, deals with 'Orators of the Early and Mediæval Church.' Twenty-two of these, ten Eastern and twelve from the West, are represented by twenty-nine specimens. If so familiar a source as the New Testament had to be drawn upon, it is not easy to see why St. Paul's address to Agrippa should have been preferred to his masterly speech at Athens, unless because the latter is so short and obviously fragmentary. Among successors of the apostles, the difficulties of selection were no doubt considerable; but an orator is expected to be oratorical, and higher flights than are here offered might be looked for from Chrysostom and Augustine. Yet a peculiar frame of mind is needed to find enlivening reading in old sermons, and to the uncloistered reader almost any samples of the hortatory or expository utterances of long ago are apt to seem not only remote but somewhat rudimentary. The lovers of light cherish a kindly feeling towards Origen, but it cannot be pretended that his explanation of "The Parable of the Dragnet" adds to our knowledge. The "Seven Rhythms" of Ephrem Syrus on "The Pearl" (*i. e.*, the Faith) are imaginative rather than illuminating; and, though the authors were so eminent, it is difficult to be deeply interested in what Leo the Great had to say "On his Birthday," or Gregory the Great "On Job."

—But perhaps it is considering too curiously to seek edification from these antique prelections: they should be approached from another side. They are monuments, historical landmarks; or, if not quite so much, at least illustrations of the standards and tastes of the past. The editor admits that some of his selections "are more valuable as indicating steps in progress than as brilliant specimens of eloquence." If even the more personal and intimate among them—Gregory Thaumaturgus's Panegyric on Origen, that of Nazianzen on his friend Basil, and his Farewell to his patriarchate, Urban II.'s speech at the Council of Clermont urging the crusade, and St. Bernard's lament "On the Death of his Brother"—have their points a little dulled by time, we should remember that these, and not only these, but the less notable efforts here associated with them, "seemed to their hearers eloquent beyond criticism." Dr. Lee is surely too exigent in requiring these ancient masterpieces to conform to the "rules of the twentieth century," since we do not yet know what those rules will be. Into this company of fathers and doctors of the Church one incongruous figure has been—perhaps too liberally—admitted. Constantine the Great was fond of orating, but (from our modern viewpoint) the pulpit was hardly the place for him, and "The Coming of Our Lord in the Flesh" not exactly a suitable topic. The best that can be said of this appearance of Saul among the prophets is that he disported himself more gracefully than did the late Col. James Fisk on a somewhat similar occasion. It is a pity that Dr. Lee did not follow this excerpt with one from Eusebius's laudations of the Christian Emperor. The 'Life of Constantine' would surely afford passages sufficiently oratorical, and fully illustrative of the ideas and modes of expression of that age. But if other sources than professed speeches had been drawn upon, the epistle of Ignatius to the Romans affords passages more poetical and moving than anything in this volume.

—Ten years ago, as now, New Hampshire was the first of the New England States for which the Census Office made public the statistics of population by minor civil divisions. We then examined those statistics in some detail, because of the light they threw upon the movements of population in rural New England. A similar study now shows that the rural towns, as a class, are still losing inhabitants, although such loss has not been quite so great in the last ten years as it was in the decade between 1880 and 1890. In 1890 every one of 148 of the 249 towns of the State had fewer inhabitants than it had in 1880. This year every one of 133 towns has a less numerous population than it had ten years ago. One hundred and thirty-six towns, or considerably more than half of all the towns of the State, have to-day fewer inhabitants than they had in 1870. The losses of population have been, as a rule, in the towns which were already sparsely inhabited. Of the fifteen cities or towns every one of which now has upwards of 4,000 inhabitants, not one has a less population than it had in 1890, although it appears probable that, had it not been for an extension of its boundaries during the decade, Laconia might now show a decrease. Of the nineteen places which now have between 2,000 and 4,000 inhabitants each, five are less populous than they were a decade ago. Of the 25 which now have between 1,500 and 2,000 inhabitants each, 9 have suffered a loss since 1880. Of the 40 with between 1,000 and 1,500 inhabitants each, one-half have gained, the other half have lost. Of the 150 each of which has less than a thousand inhabitants, only 51, or just about one-third, have a more numerous population than they had in 1890.

—The following tables, reproduced from our columns of ten years ago, and now brought down to date, show how far in the last half century the process of concentration has been going on. The population is shown (A) for 35 towns which in 1890 had each upwards of 2,000 inhabitants; (B) for 69 towns which in 1890 had each between 1,000 and 2,000 inhabitants; (C) for 145 towns which in 1890 had each less than 1,000 inhabitants:

Census.	A	B	C
1900	243,726	94,228	73,634
1890	207,455	93,352	75,723
1880	167,338	94,601	85,052
1870	137,440	92,314	88,555
1860	126,235	97,815	102,020
1850	113,506	97,628	106,842

The following table shows the percentage of total population in (A) towns having upwards of 2,000 inhabitants in 1890; (B) towns having 1,000 to 2,000 inhabitants in 1890; (C) towns having less than 1,000 inhabitants in 1890:

Census.	A	B	C
1900	59.22	22.89	17.89
1890	55.10	24.79	20.11
1880	48.23	27.26	24.51
1870	43.18	29.00	27.82
1860	38.71	30.00	31.29
1850	35.69	30.71	33.60

The largest places have more than doubled their population since 1850. The middle class have slightly fewer inhabitants than they had fifty years ago. The least populous have one-third fewer people than they had in 1850. In the middle of the century, each of the three classes of towns contained about one-third of the entire population. Now, the largest has about three-fifths, and the smallest between one-fifth and one-sixth of the whole.

—According to a statistical table in the recently published twentieth volume of Meyer's Konversations-Lexikon (third annual supplement), based upon the latest data furnished by the boundary treaties between the Powers, it would appear that all but about one-seventh of the African continent is now included in some "sphere of influence" or another. The French sphere is the largest, comprising about 3,700,000 square miles (about the extent of Europe) out of a total area of 11,600,000. England comes next with 2,400,000 (including the Boer territories). Then follow in order Germany, Belgium (Congo Free State), and Portugal, each with somewhat less than a million square miles. The Egyptian sphere (about 400,000 square miles) may properly be regarded as part of the British. The extent of the French sphere will appear less imposing on consulting the map of Africa contained in the preceding volume (giving the boundaries laid down in the Anglo-French convention of 1899), which shows that within this domain is included the greater part of the sands of the Sahara. Italy continues to claim a protectorate over a sandy Eritrean waste of 250,000 square miles; and Spain, in addition to her islands, would still like to be considered as entitled to a big strip of Sahara coastland. The British sphere (including Egypt and her dependencies) is estimated to contain in round numbers about 50,000,000 souls; the French, 35,000,000; the Belgian, 17,000,000; the German, 9,000,000; the Portuguese, 8,000,000. The statistical enumeration before us winds up with an area of nearly a million square miles which is designated as *Herrenloses Gebiet*, or "Territory without a master."

—The calendar of the Imperial University of Tokio, for the year 1900, forms a handbook of over 300 pages, including a list of the publications of the University. At the present time few foreigners are connected with the six faculties of law, medicine, engineering, literature, science, and agriculture. The buildings of the first five institutions stand within the grounds of the former daimio of Kaga, in the northwestern part of the city, but the College of Agriculture is in one of the suburbs of Tokio. In the evolution of this institution, called, since 1897, Teikoku Daigaku (Divine Country Great School), to distinguish it from the sister institution then founded in Kioto, Japanese have for the most part replaced the foreigners as professors and instructors, though many of the native officers of administration and instruction bear titles or degrees won in the institutions of Europe and America. European learning as directed by the Government goes back to the days of the Tokugawa Tycoons, but the University, in its present form, is an outgrowth from the school called the Daigaku Nanko, which was revived by the Imperial Government after the restoration of 1868. Besides the historical summary and the imperial ordinances, the book contains the general regulations, the schedule of studies to be pursued in the six colleges, and lists of officers, teachers, and students. At present, appointment of foreigners to positions in either of the universities is exceptional. The power of appointment rests with the presidents of the University and the directors of the schools, subject, however, to the permission of the Minister of Education. The equipment of the various museums seems to be excellent, and that in the colleges of medicine and forestry and engineering unusually fine. The list of monographs shows how profoundly interested the studious and scholarly Japanese are in both theoretical and applied science. The number of students now on the roll in the various colleges is 2,700, of whom 890 are in law, including politics, 474 in medicine, 286 in literature, 71 in science, 380 in engineering, and 264 in agriculture. Of 3,813, the actual number of graduates, 214 have deceased, leaving still a body of highly educated men to swell the grand total of Japanese trained in modern ideas and culture.

CHARLES HENRY PEARSON.

Charles Henry Pearson, Fellow of Oriel, and Education Minister in Victoria. Memorials by himself, his wife, and his friends. Edited by William Stebbing. Longmans, Green & Co. 1900.

For those who take the trouble to read this book through, and are not content just to turn over its pages in search of the few good stories and quotable opinions which it contains, it is a singularly disappointing and even irritating production. Pearson's own part of it, the account of his early life, which occupies rather more than a third of the volume, is modest in tone and well written in style; but the other chapters continually annoy one by their perpetual insistence on qualities which have to be taken for granted, because, whether it could have been helped or no, the book certainly does not succeed in making us realize them. The whole account of his Victorian career is conceived in a spirit which must be very distasteful to sensible Australians. The simple fact is, that Victoria gave Pearson the chance of political influence for which he had craved in vain in England, as well as the experience which enabled him to write his one successful book. The climate of Australia suited his health far better than that of England; and it probably saved him from total blindness. Under these circumstances, to speak of the gratitude which Victoria owed to him "for the surrender possibly of political honors at home, probably of literary renown higher even than that he acquired, certainly of ease," is more than foolish. Pearson was constitutionally unable to take his ease anywhere for long. When, after enjoying a fellowship at Oriel for a good many years, he went into residence for a time in order to be near the Bodleian, he could endure the experiment for only six months:

> "The *désagréments* of college life were manifold. Talk of roughing it in the bush; I have never roughed it there as I have done at Oxford. Dirty servants, unpunctual and inattentive; an impossibility of being private in one's room, as the bedroom and pantry were approached through the sitting-room; badly cooked food; dogs forbidden; and the night made hideous with drinking-songs or practice on the piano, as the morning was with the chapel-bell. These were the prominent features of barrack life in the University."

Two years later he was invited to go to Cambridge as lecturer on Modern History at Trinity College:

"There was no want of friendly society or

> of intellectual stimulus. . . . But the work I had to do was most unsatisfactory. . . . I sickened over the drudgery of contriving answers to possible questions in the examinations. At the same time the longing for the Australian bush came over me again almost like home-sickness as I walked out day by day along the dull roads and flat fields that surround Cambridge. I began to ask myself why I should live in one of the ugliest spots on earth when I had a home in one of the prettiest."

Greater men than Pearson have had to keep their necks in the yoke of educational drudgery, and to live in uglier places than Cambridge, without having the pecuniary means to go off at any moment they pleased and take "a cottage of gentility" with "two horses, a groom, and a man."

With Pearson himself we can hardly be vexed; he was a good deal of a hypochondriac, but also a good deal of an invalid. A man at bottom of deeply religious feeling, he knew well enough that if his life had not been altogether successful, the cause was as much in himself as in external conditions. "My life has been faulty, but God will judge me by my intentions," was one of his last utterances. To the fond partiality of those dear to him any error in critical judgment may well be pardoned; but it is difficult to explain how an accomplished and experienced man of letters like Mr. Stebbing could have allowed so unsatisfactory an account of his friend to be given to the world.

Pearson's case was a typical one, and one which a master of psychological analysis, like Browning or Mr. Henry James, might have delighted to handle. He was one of those Englishmen who are cursed with a reputation for "brilliancy" at the university. They may or may not have distinguished themselves in the examinations and gained a fellowship, but their conversational powers, their ability to produce epigrams and paradoxes, have made them the centres of admiring groups of undergraduate friends, and there is thought to be no prize too great for them to aspire to in after-life. But when they get out into the world, success comes very slowly; men outstrip them in the competition who were apparently but dullards at the university, or did not go to the university at all; and, as Pearson remarks with bitterness, "rank and wealth tell for something like two-thirds in the struggle for success in the old country." If, by the time they are forty, they have not achieved distinction, they get out of humor with the world and cultivate cynicism. The case is commonly worse when the possession of a certain income has enabled them, like Pearson, to live in bachelor comfort, and to cultivate the æsthetic sense by an annual trip to the Continent; for then they receive as matters of course what other men must struggle hard to obtain.

Up to 1870 this might have seemed an adequate description of Charles Pearson. He had got his fellowship, and he had apparently some other private means; but conscientious scruples had kept him both from the legal and the clerical professions; he declined to remain in Oxford as a tutor; ill health had turned him back from a medical career; he was dissatisfied with his meagrely endowed professorship of history at King's College, London; he had done a good deal of journalistic work, and had even edited a high-class review for a year, without establishing a permanent connection with any one journal; and his historical writings, learned as they were, and deserving of esteem for industry and intelligence, had shown neither originality of thought nor force of style sufficient to catch the attention of the general public. It was really a piece of great good fortune that, at this critical point in his life, the state of his health led him to Australia. There his reputation as an Oxford scholar gave him everything in the way of opportunity that the new country had to offer. He found there was drudgery attached even to a professorship of history at the University of Melbourne, and promptly resigned; he accepted the headmastership of a college for girls, and kept it for two years and a half, until the governing body took alarm at his freely expressed views on the Victorian land question; and then at last, in 1877, he threw himself into colonial politics.

He was returned to the Assembly in 1878; was Minister without portfolio from 1880 to 1881; and a private member again till February, 1886, when he became Minister of Public Instruction. This office he held until November, 1890. During his term of administration he introduced a number of reforms into the educational system of the colony; and his enforcement, as a matter of official duty, of the secular school policy which Victoria had adopted by statute long before he entered into politics, and which even in his own judgment was somewhat too extreme, aroused the keenest opposition from the friends of denominational schools, especially the Roman Catholics and the Presbyterians. On all this part of his career the information here furnished is surprisingly meagre, and quite insufficient to enable us to estimate Pearson's services to Victorian education. It hardly seems to occur to the writer that all the reforms he ascribes to Pearson simply followed the lines of similar measures in the old country. A dozen pages of well-chosen extracts from his political speeches might with advantage have taken the place of the like amount of vague eulogy. Certainly Pearson enjoyed the feeling that he was guiding the destinies of a young nation; his high standards of personal probity and good taste must have had some influence upon the rough-and-tumble and not altogether scrupulous politicians around him. For some years his advocacy of land reform involved him and his under the ban of social ostracism by the wealthy "squatters." But this "cloud" had "lifted" long before he finally left Australia; and considering that throughout he had many warm friends among the men of highest cultivation in the colony, that he several times visited England and never lost touch with English life, the disapproval of Melbourne's social magnates affected him to a surprising extent. He was probably one of those people, and they are numerous, who are democratic in principle and aristocratic in sentiment. It is a small thing and not to be taken very seriously, but we could wish that his wife had not told us that "he never gave up his Bond Street tailor."

In 1892 Pearson withdrew from active political life, and left Australia for England, with the understanding that he should be appointed to a permanent position in London as Secretary to the Agent General for Victoria. A few months after he had entered upon his duties, he was superseded by the Victoria Government for reasons which the writers of the memoir describe as inadequate and discreditable to the politicians involved; and this blow may have contributed to hasten his death, which came in 1894, at the age of sixty-four. But before the end he had published his 'National Life and Character,' a pessimistic forecast of the future of civilization, which at once impressed the imagination of English readers. Its prophecy of the "Yellow peril" renders it even more painfully interesting to-day than it was seven years ago. The work was a great literary success, and a success of the kind that Pearson valued. At the time he died, new editions were still being called for, and the magazines had not ceased to print elaborate criticisms. His literary success cast back reflected light on his political career; his political career added to the weight of the book; and he was probably *felix opportunitate mortis*. For he had said his say and made his mark; and there is little reason to believe that he could have repeated his achievement.

In Pearson's own reminiscences there are many quotable passages, which have already been seized upon by the reviewers with little regard for the personal equation, which can never in his case be forgotten with safety. But there is one little bit of information which has not been so noticed, and which is worth citing because it pleasantly illustrates the character of a scholar who deserved well of English historical scholarship, and whose merits were shamefully overlooked in his lifetime—the late Professor Brewer. Brewer and F. D. Maurice were both professors at King's College, London, when Pearson was a student there before going up to Oxford.

> "Professor Maurice was in many respects the most remarkable man King's College ever had upon its staff, and his influence over his pupils in after life was sometimes considerable. I have spoken of him as failing to command the full attention of his auditors. . . . The chief reasons were that Maurice lectured a little over our heads; that his delivery, though impressive, was rather monotonous; and that he was a little too forbearing when he ought to have been vigorous and imperative. There was certainly no conscious or unconscious desire to slight or annoy him. He was popular and respected. Still, at one time the inattention displayed at his lectures was so marked that Professor Brewer, with characteristic loyalty, came in to sit as a student and take notes, as a sign of the value he attached to Maurice's thoughts."

Studies and Appreciations. By Lewis E. Gates. Macmillan. 1900.

Professor Gates's volume of essays recommends itself at the very first glance by the unity of interest presented in its several studies; no less so, by a steady preservation of critical tone and style. The subjects of the papers fall entirely within the nineteenth century and are treated from the point of view of contemporary criticism, tacitly ignoring the *a-priori* standards of "donnish" classicism, and with extremely scanty reference to authorities prior to Lessing. Sainte-Beuve and Taine seem to have chiefly influenced Professor Gates's method; the former through the minuteness of his psychology, the latter by his care in the verification of facts, and his general positivity. In the last essay, "Impressionism and Appreciation," which, from its position in the volume, may be taken as a profession of critical convictions, the writer appears, however, not disinclined to look for assistance to recent attempts at constructing a scientific basis for æsthetics out of the results of experimental psychometry. Without taking too literally the phrase "weighing a fancy and measuring a motive," we may nevertheless perceive in its very substantiality some indication of the author's intellectual tendencies. One might perhaps wish to see the method applied to critics themselves; to M. Émile Hennequin, for instance, whose 'Critique Scientifique' is not unfavorably commented on by Professor Gates. Our readers will doubtless remember the grotesque inadequacy of M. Hennequin's system as shown in appended tabulations, all contributing to a studious disparagement of Hugo. Professor Gates's own directness of insight remains among the best proofs that effective criticism still demands something more than statistics and formulæ.

The two leading papers discuss the Romantic movement in England and the reaction of British common sense that followed hard upon it. It was not, however, common sense alone which triumphed; apart from the revolt of Byron and Shelley against moral ordinance, the concentrated mass of opinions held in what calls itself "society" bore down as a whole upon any expression, poetical or other, the popular dissemination and influence of which might work toward social disintegration. One has to live for some time in England in order to gauge its full force. It was largely this that drove Wordsworth into retirement, and then craftily drew him into conformity; it is chiefly this that has, in our day, isolated the lives of a great philosopher and a great poet. "The return to conventional life," which Professor Gates discerns in Carlyle, Arnold, and others of that time, signifies, in some sense, the surrender of those passionately individualistic ideals of life and art for which, through all their moral misdirection, the earlier generation made such splendid sacrifice.

The several studies in which Professor Gates treats single authors or aspects of their work are extremely thorough, as well as apt in expression. We should select, as a specific example of his best manner, the analysis of Poe's employment of terror, with the artful devices for "imposing it vibratingly on the temperament of his readers." In other cases, ampler treatment would supply what appears an omission on the essayist's part. Thus, "Nature in Tennyson's Poetry" merely hints at the conception of a reign of indifferent law which the poet found in the teachings of modern science and expressed in the ringing stanzas beginning,

> "Are God and Nature then at strife
> That Nature lends such evil dreams?"
> (*In Memoriam*, lv.)

Tennyson's own guess at the cosmic enigma shows, in its weakness, how fully he had grasped the terrifying idea which was soon to find its definitive poetical form in the verse of Leconte de Lisle. There is also something to be said concerning "the counterfeit life in 'Wuthering Heights,'" of which Rossetti declared that its scenes were laid in hell. With all allowance for the exaggeration of its character-drawing and the hardness of its outlines unrelieved by shading, Emily Brontë's novel has been held on good authority to represent, in dramatically intensified form, the utter brutality of isolated Yorkshire existence some two generations ago; it has been said to bear to the actual surroundings of the Brontës at Haworth the same relation as Dotheboys Hall to the typical Yorkshire school of its day. In connection with Hawthorne, the spirit and ethical drift of 'The Scarlet Letter' are not quite sufficiently conveyed in its brief characterization as "the Romance of Expiation against the dark, sullen background of the Puritan temperament." Whether Hawthorne was fully aware of it or not, Hester Prynne's words in chapter xvii., "The Pastor and his Parishioner," may easily be interpreted as the most subtly seductive plea for the supremacy of passion in human life that English fiction has to show; nor is this plea weakened by the gingerly evasion, on the part of most commentators, of the profoundly thrilling issue involved. "What we did," says Hester, "had a consecration of its own. We felt it so! We said so to each other! Hast thou forgotten it?" Of repentance, not a word, in spite of her seven years' suffering; for she is still ready to resume with her lover, in other climes, a life whose sole warrant is its enduring passion. Even George Sand's heroines, in their rebellion against moral dogma or code, are not more untrammelled than this outcast of Puritan rigor.

In Professor Gates's examination of the contrast between impressionism and appreciation, he very naturally favors the side to which his own applied work gives illustration and support; he argues very closely, indeed, for the preservation of a certain objectivity in the critic's attitude, which alone, as all admit, can impart to any judgment the united characters of sincerity and historical importance. His presentation of the case is strengthened by the pretensions of "impressionist" critics as soon as they make a parade of theory. The only justification of the literary existence of so-called critical impressionism is in the continually varied grace and agility of the performer, keeping us eagerly waiting for the surprise of his next jump, which absolutely precludes the repose of a theoretical didacticism. Is not this the simple explanation of the fact that all such pretty antics speedily become *vieux jeu?*

It is pleasing to note that the style of these essays makes no concession to the spirit of preciosity which beclouds so much of contemporary disquisitive prose and too often passes for originality. Happy inventiveness of phrase Professor Gates has in abundance; and, though some of his pages seem at times to suffer from clogging or retardation, through the strenuous search after expression, the reader more frequently chances to fall on such enlivening felicities as, "the God-gifted, hand-organ voice of England," applied to a verse-maker beloved of the many. Reflecting on this volume, as well as on one or two others recently issued from our institutions of learning, we have no misgivings as to the immediate future of academic criticism among us.

The Attaché at Peking. By A. B. Freeman-Mitford. Macmillan. 1900. 12mo, pp. 386.

The maker of that delightful classic, 'Tales of Old Japan,' now wise with the experience of three-score years and three, reprints the letters which he wrote from Pekin thirty-five years ago. His new volume is bound and lettered in a style uniform with his first book, and those who have the latter are sure to welcome the present. His is not "the wisdom which comes after the event," for one sees in his pages clear evidences of prophetic insight. The author, ex-member of Parliament and member of royal commissions, belongs to a literary clan, and, we might almost say, inherits his power with the pen and his mastery of good English. After education at Eton and Oxford, Mr. Mitford was for five years in the Foreign Office, and at St. Petersburg two years. He was appointed to Pekin in 1865, so that he had opportunities to study Chinese civilization—with its Mantchu annex—before going to Japan, with which country his name is usually and happily associated.

His letters describe Hong-Kong, Canton, Shanghai, Tientsin, as he saw these while in transit for the capital. Getting clear of the hideous sights and smells of the Peiho River late in May, he reached the city of dust and mud which holds the British and other legations. These, with all the other foreign official edifices, stand between the south wall of the Tartar city and that "Pink City," or imperial enclosure, into which the commonest native beggars might go, while even the foreign Ministers dared not enter. His first epistles from Pekin portray Prince Kung and other Chinese notables, both military and civilian. As the grandson of an earl and otherwise an English gentleman of the regulation pattern, he wore a monocle, and this gave the Chinese endless amusement. On the other hand, Mr. Mitford was amused at the make-up of the two mandarins whom he first met, especially the dandy Heng Chi, who wore a pearl-gray silk dress trimmed up with blue, with girdle holding fan-case, chop-stick case, and other knick-knacks, richly embroidered and mounted with seed pearls and baby-face coral. Beside his snuff-box of the finest emerald-green jade, "worth its weight in diamonds," he carried a huge silver Geneva turnip watch, which he displayed with much pride. His pipe, with its tiny silver bowl and green jade mouthpiece, was sheathed in his black-satin boot. Underneath his white cap decorated with pink coral button, peacock feather, and more green jade, were broad-rimmed silver spectacles. Heng Chi's companion, a jolly, fat old fellow, and a man of letters, had translated Longfellow's "Psalm of Life" into Chinese verse from a literal version given him by Mr. Wade.

Being a keen observer and a most charming writer, Mr. Mitford's pages are full of vivid pictures of Chinese life at the capital. As the old order changes slowly, this record seems in vividness and charm as if written yesterday. He adds notes concerning people and personages whom he met, though he does not appear to have kept up with the history of foreigners in Korea, a country which he prophesies will be owned soouer or later by Russia. Almost of equal value is his preface of sixty-four pages. In this he shows how easy it was for the Japanese to take a leap into the light, leaving the thirteenth for the nineteenth century, and to change with a skip. He adds: "It cost the Japanese no sacrifice of national pride. What they gave up was none of their own invention. The Chinese, on the other hand, have an autochthon civilization of which they are justly proud. . . . No wonder that the son of Han thinks a good many times before he will scatter his past to the four winds of heaven as the Japanese did without a sigh." Mr. Mitford argues that the Chinese mandarins have been wiser in their generation than the men who made the Japanese revolution of 1868, for the myriads of Chinese officials, from the highest to the lowest, are alive to the fact that their very existence depends on keeping up a constant animosity against the foreign devils. To Mr. Mitford, this is the key of the situation.

In the recent uprising he does not see the results of religious conviction, but of political antipathy. His belief is that the outbreak of fanaticism against foreigners arises not from missionary enterprise, or foreign commerce, or the opium trade, but the haunting dread of reform. "Foreign intercourse in any shape is the bugbear of the mandarin, as being the one standing danger threatening abolition of himself and his privileges, of which the two most dearly prized are robbery and cruelty." He sees no salvation for China unless the capital is removed from Pekin to Nankin, that is, nearer the centre of trade and modern activities. But this, the Mantchu dynasty knows only too well, would take the power out of the fossilized hands of the court, drive away the bats and owls of the Forbidden City, and, by bringing the viceroys and the whole descending scale of mandarins under control of an intelligible and intelligent government, put an end to the time-honored extortions and blackmail. He heartily approves of Lord Salisbury's policy, and trusts that this year may be the parent of a less ill-omened brood of horrors than the barren conquest of 1860.

A most lively and sarcastic but truthful chapter on "How Mandarins Are Made" is appended, and there is a good index.

Outline of the Comparative Physiology and Morphology of Animals. By Prof. Joseph Le Conte. D. Appleton & Co. 1900. Pp. 499.

Professor Le Conte has a really wonderful capacity for selecting what is interesting in science. He has done much before to entice his readers into fresh fields of knowledge; the little book before us can safely be said to have much more than the interest of the ordinary novel. It is also not at all unnecessarily technical, and the general reader will find it wholly to his taste and liking. But it is written in the first instance for the use of schools. As a school-book, it is intended, according to the preface, to follow a detailed study of certain selected types of animal life, and to precede and accompany special laboratory courses in high schools, colleges, and universities. And this is the proper use to make of the book for students who are bent upon a university course of study; but the great proportion of the reasonably well educated people of the country end with the high school, and out of the three or four selected *aperçus* of the scientific field, which is all that the high-school student has time for, a general view of the physiology and morphology of animals such as this book presents should, in the opinion of the present reviewer, certainly form one. The dictum of Hesiod, "Fools! who know not how much more the part is than the whole," was of very necessary application when the "whole" consisted in barren classification and dry catalogue of facts; but when the whole can be made, with no sacrifice of brevity, so vivid and so full of detail as it is in this book, they are fools who know not *how much more comprehensible, more illuminating, the whole is than the part.*

There are very many schools of the secondary grade for which human physiology constitutes the only inlook into the whole field of animate existence, and this is becoming more and more the case as the (perfectly proper) claim for some real and thorough study of literature in school is more urgently pushed. But human physiology would itself be far more intelligible if it had for a setting the long process by which the wonderful powers of the body of man have been gradually worked out; and at the same time there would be gained an acquaintance, not bald and cursory, but perfectly adequate, though condensed, of the general scheme upon which one form after another of living creature has been adapted to its environment. The great idea of Darwin is the most illuminating that man has yet contributed towards the comprehension of the universe, but we do not take full advantage of this idea in our educational scheme if we do not exhibit man as the finished product—finished for the moment—of a long series of struggles towards complexity in reaction to the forces of nature. Though the earth is not any longer, since the time of Copernicus, the centre of the universe, man is still the end-member of his long line of ascent, but his position is no less dignified, and far more interesting, if it is exhibited in connection with the successive links of the chain which connects him with his humble origin. This the book of Professor Le Conte permits to be done with great vividness and charm.

There are a few statements in Professor Le Conte's book which may be lacking in absolute accuracy, but it is impossible in a bare outline to make room for every unimportant exception to general statements. On the whole, the work is extremely well done. It is to be regretted that terms of psychological import are not used with a little more care. Thus, under the head of animal functions as distinguished from organic functions, we find enumerated "sensation and consciousness," but consciousness is properly the name for all conscious states, including states of sensation.

Professor Le Conte is far in advance of his time in his treatment of color, and has been so ever since the issue of the first edition of his little book on 'Sight,' when he already knew that the sensations of the partially color-blind are blue and yellow and nothing else, although most writers then and now (and even the Commission appointed by the British Association to inquire into the subject, within a very few years), misled by the Young-Helmholtz theory, constantly affirm that these defectives are lacking in a sense for green alone or for red alone, with no mention of what becomes, for them, of the yellow, which that theory always most unfairly ignores. It is therefore the more singular that our author does not take a more intelligent view of the means by which the eye takes cognizance of the position of points in space. If we use the language of quaternions, which is peculiarly well adapted to describe the spatial powers of the eye, we may say that the superficial extension of the retina gives us the versor element of the position of a point with reference to a fixed origin; and a combination of the feeling of convergence of the two eyes together with the feeling of duplication of images gives us its tensor element. Professor Le Conte's discussion of the latter part of the question of space-perception has long been known for its acuteness and ingenuity, but his view as to the sense-content by which we recognize the versor element of a point's position has been equally well known for its strange perverseness—the character of which this is not the place to set forth. There is room for a good discussion of this subject on the part of some psychologist in a chapter to be used as a correctional appendix to the treatment of the subject in this volume.

Professor Le Conte's book, pure science though it be, is not without an ethical import. The fundamental principle of development in the animal kingdom, as he points out, has been cephalization; the control of the bodily activities has been more and more intrusted to a central clearing-house in the brain. The work of this clearing-house has become more and more effective for the good of the organization as a whole by reason of its vast increase in complexity. The prettiest picture that the physiologists have yet given us of the progress from the lower animals to man is that furnished by Ramon y Cajal of the series of brain cells, beginning with the branchless black spot of the rat, and ending in the countless processes and endlessly interlacing collaterals and dendritic terminations of the pyramidal cells of man. The brain has been more and more fitted physically for its office as an interchange between the immensely complicated impressions received from an external world and the great variety of responses in the way of conduct which it is possible to make to them; and (whichever the order of the advance may be) man has also felt subjectively more and more the necessity of basing action upon wide-reaching considerations. In this phase of development he can now take a consciously active part. The dictum of the physiologist, at the present moment, as to the highest duty of man is, then, to *think, think, think!* Let those who feel that they have brains of but feeble calibre be content to follow in the footsteps of their fathers, but the more favorably endowed must know that their duty is to go farther and farther afield in the search for considerations to bear upon the wresting from environment of a decently happy mode of life, not only for themselves and their descendants, but for their more unhappy fellow-men as well.

Ladysmith: The Diary of a Siege. By H. W. Nevinson. New Amsterdam Book Co.

For the world at large the siege of Ladysmith is an interesting incident. For the people of England it is an historical event. In his opening chapters Mr. Nevinson sketches some of the engagements, Elands Laagte, Tinta Inyoni, and Nicholson's Nek, which preceded the 118 days' siege of Ladysmith. The scene of those trying days he pictures as "like the bottom of a frying-pan with a low rim. The fire is hot, and the sand is frying. The flat-topped hills stand round it reflecting the heat, and in the middle we are now all frying together, with sand for seasoning."

The major portion of the book takes the form of a daily record of incidents and events, the fighting, the suffering, and the ennui. It is inevitable that through any story of such an experience there must run a distinct thread of sadness and depression. This, in Mr. Nevinson's book, is partly, though not wholly, offset by a touch of quiet humor in the comments of the author, and by the introduction of quotations from the irrepressible "Tommy." The life of the army he illustrates by the remark made by Gen. Sir George White to his staff. "Gentlemen," said Sir George, "we have two things to do: to kill time and to kill Boers—both equally difficult."

Of the life in the bomb-proofs erected for the shelter of the townspeople, he says, at the time of their construction:

> "What those homes will be like at the end of a week, I don't know. A picnic where love is may be endurable for one afternoon, where there are plenty of other people to cook and wash up. But a hungry and unclean picnic by day and night, beside a muddy river, with little to eat and no one to cook, nowhere to sleep but the rocks, and nothing to do but dodge the shells, is another story. 'I tell you what,' said a serious Tory soldier to me, 'if English people saw this sort of thing, they'd hang Chamberlain.' 'They won't hang him, but perhaps they'll make him a Lord,' I answered, and watched the women trying to keep the children decent while their husbands worked the pick."

In his details of this daily life the author is clear and graphic rather than vivid. The book interests, while it does not thrill. Wounds, disease, and death stand out in prominent display, yet the book is in no way a gruesome tale. Much of that which would so readily lend itself to a sensational style is dealt with in a decidedly matter-of-fact tone. Boer shells and whistling bullets are as the heat and rain-storms—disagreeable, but quite to be expected under the circumstances.

In the main, Mr. Nevinson's statements of the military processes are accurate. Some of his estimates of Boer losses, Boer strength, and Boer ordnance do not accord with the fuller information of later days, but they are those which were commonly accepted at that time. He is notably fair and just in his attitude towards the Boer people. Though never abating his position as an Englishman, he yet concedes something of justification for his opponents. He speaks of the war as one which will "only be remembered as the fine struggle of an untrained people for their liberty against an overwhelming power." Yet he is no pro-Boer.

The book should take its place among the best of the reports of that long and weary isolation in a place whose defence had no value save that it kept a certain force of the enemy from more active operations elsewhere. It is fittingly illustrated, and, in an appendix, offers interesting statistics of the commissariat. The Diary appeared originally in the form of letters to the London *Daily Chronicle*, for which paper Mr. Nevinson acted as special correspondent.

The Referendum in America. Together with Some Chapters on the History of the Initiative and Other Phases of Popular Government in the United States. By Ellis Paxson Oberholtzer. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1900.

This learned and valuable volume contains, besides the specifications of the title, a couple of chapters on "The Interplay of French and American Thought in the Eighteenth Century" and "The Downfall of Franklin's Government in Pennsylvania." To some people the last caption will be rather obscure; what is meant is the downfall of the early Pennsylvania Constitution which established a Legislature of one chamber, and which the author thinks may fairly be fathered upon Franklin, if upon any one man. We will not undertake to review the evidence which he brings forward to sustain this point, which is aside from the main purpose of the book. Concerning the Referendum and Initiative the volume gives a vast amount of useful and curious information, a great deal of it technical, so that the book is well fitted to be a legal vade-mecum of the subject, while at the same time it is not too professional for the comprehension of students.

The author points out that the principles of the Referendum and Initiative have long been embodied in American custom and law. the former being the usual means by which Constitutions and Constitutional amendments are adopted or rejected, and the latter familiar in the form of legislation based on petition. The Swiss referendum and initiative, however, are a step beyond this, and seem to be designed as a means of counteracting the corruption or folly of regular representative bodies through direct superintendence of their work by the sovereign people itself. In its complete form it involves the right on the part of the constituency to demand a popular vote on a law already passed, or to compel the Legislature to act upon a law to be introduced. In one or two Western States this system has been put on trial. There is no reason, however, to be very enthusiastic over the result, for, according to statistics here given, popular interest is but little aroused over such questions. What brings out a full vote is an election, not simple questions of policy in which the fate of individuals is not involved; so that in the end it may turn out that the referendum and the initiative, like many another mechanical corrective for misgovernment, will leave us pretty much where they found us. Of course, if the referendum and initiative really achieved what their promoters claim for them, there would be an opening for a strong argument that the representative system had had its day. If, as Rousseau thought, you can get "la haute politique" out of a group of peasants assembled under a spreading tree, it seems hardly worth while that the group should first elect a representative to make a fool of or sell himself, and then assemble again to apply its collective wisdom to the correction of his individual error.

The Expositor's Greek Testament. Edited by the Rev. W. Robertson Nicoll, M.A., LL.D. Vol. II. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1900.

The second volume of this work is a decided improvement on the first, which was noticed in the *Nation* of March 10, 1898. To be sure, it still retains the mongrel *Textus Receptus*, so called, in the post of honor at the top of the page; but the subjoined textual discussions, which in the Acts are of course especially numerous and extended, treat it with merited indifference, while Professor Findlay, who comments on the First Epistle of Corinthians, attempts to grade his textual preferences somewhat after the fashion of Griesbach; and Professor Denney, in dealing with Romans, states frankly that the text he follows is "practically that of Westcott and Hort."

But the body of the work is of a distinctly higher order than in the former volume. Of the 953 pages, more than 550 are devoted to Acts. This proportion can hardly be held to be excessive when the cardinal importance of that book for New Testament criticism is considered, and the throng of questions relating to geography, history, archæology, and textual criticism of which it is the centre. In its Introduction Professor Knowling shows himself to be familiar with the numerous books and widely scattered essays which this portion of Scripture has called out in recent years; and in the body of the commentary gives evidence also of similar wide research. His comments have, as might be expected, a decidedly conservative leaning. He is disposed, for example, to try to harmonize the two accounts of the death of Judas; regards the Pentecostal gift of tongues as the miraculous power to use foreign languages; and, on the difficult text in chapter xx., 28, inclines to the reading "church of God"—a decision he seeks to fortify by referring θεὸς in Romans ix., 5 to Christ, although this latter passage his collaborator joins good recent interpreters in taking as a doxology to God.

Professor Denney, in commenting on Romans, while passing somewhat airily over the delicacies of interpretation, is terse, clear-cut, and generally sensible, as his notes on iii., 25, v., 7-10, illustrate, but v., 12-20 less successfully. Professor Findlay's work, too, on I. Corinthians is not lacking in either scholarship or point. The new volume, accordingly, may expect to receive the respectful attention of students. Its easy use is embarrassed by the neglect to explain the abbreviations in which it abounds. The list given in the commentary on I. Corinthians is quite insufficient for the work as a whole. Curiously enough, the binder has stamped the back of this volume with the contents of the *first*.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott, Lyman. (1) The Supernatural; (2) Salvation from Sin. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. 35 cents each.
Adams, C. K., and Alden, J. Representative British Orations. 4 vols. G. P. Putnam's Sons. Each vol., $1.25.
Andersen, Hans Christian. Fairy Tales and Stories. With Illustrations by Hans Tegner. Century Co. $5.
Anstey, F. The Brass Bottle. D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.
Bacon, B. W. An Introduction to the New Testament. Macmillan. 75 cents.
Baedeker, K. Handbook for Northern Germany. $2.40. Handbook for London and its Environs, $1.80. Leipzig: Baedeker; New York: Scribners.
Baldwin, Emma C. Kodak Sketches of Two Little Girls. Boston: Idea Publishing Co. $1.50.
Baring-Gould, S. A Book of Dartmoor. London: Methuen & Co.; New York: New Amsterdam Book Co. $1.50.
Baring-Gould, S. In a Quiet Village. John Lane. $1.50.
Baring-Gould, S. A Book of the West: Being an Introduction to Devon and Cornwall. 2 vols. London: Methuen & Co.; New York: New Amsterdam Book Co. $3.
Barr, Robert. In the Midst of Alarms. Frederick A. Stokes Co.
Besant, Walter. The Fourth Generation. Frederick A. Stokes Co.
Blackmore, R. D. Lorna Doone. New illustrated edition. Harpers.
Borrow, George. Lavengro. John Lane. 75 cents.
Borrow, George. The Romany Rye. John Lane. 75 cents.
Borrow, George. The Bible in Spain. John Lane. 75 cents.
Bourget, Paul. Domestic Dramas. Translated by W. Marchant. Scribners. $1.50.
Brereton, F. S. In the King's Service. London: Blackie & Son; New York: Scribners. $1.50.
Brereton, F. S. With Rifle and Bayonet. London: Blackie & Son; New York: Scribners. $1.50.
Brine, Mary D. A Merry Little Visit with Auntie. American Tract Society. 75 cents.
Brooks, E. S. In Defence of the Flag. Boston: Lothrop Pub. Co. $1.25.
Brown, John. Rab and his Friends; And Our Dogs. Century Co.
Buck, R. The Emancipation of the Worker. Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co. 50 cents.
Burgess, Gelett. Goops and How to be Them. Frederick A. Stokes Co. $1.50.
Campbell, W. W. Beyond the Hills of Dream. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Carus, Paul. Eros and Psyche. Chicago: The Open Court Pub. Co.
Castle, Egerton. Consequences. Frederick A. Stokes Co. $1.50.
Caxton, William. The Golden Legend, or Lives of the Saints. (Temple Classics.) London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 50 cents.

Chih-Tung, Chang. China's Only Hope. Translated by S. I. Trowbridge. Fleming H. Revell Co. 75 cents.
Clark, J. Scott. A Study of English and American Poets. Scribners. $2.
Conant, C. A. The United States in the Orient. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Connor, Ralph. Black Rock. New ed. Fleming H. Revell Co. $1.25.
Connor, Ralph. The Sky Pilot. New ed. Fleming H. Revell Co. $1.25.
Courtney, W. L. The Idea of Tragedy. Brentano.
Coutts, F. B. M. The Mystery of Godliness: Poems. John Lane. $1.
Crane, Stephen. Wounds in the Rain. Frederick A. Stokes Co. $1.50.
Crane, Walter. Line and Form. London: George Bell & Sons. 12 shillings.
Croskey, Julian. "The S. G.": A Romance of Peking. Brooklyn: Mason.
Darapsky, L. Das Departement Taltal (Chile). With accompanying maps. Berlin: Dietrich Reimer. 30 marks.
Davenport, H. (Cartoonist). The Dollar or the Man? Boston: Small, Maynard & Co.
Davis, Richard Harding. With Both Armies in Africa. Scribners.
Day, Cora S. Philip Desmond. American Tract Society. 25 cents.
De Nevers, Edmond. L'Ame Américaine. 2 vols. Paris: Jouve & Boyer.
Dickens, Charles. (1) The Cricket on the Hearth. (2) A Christmas Carol. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Dithmar, Edward A. John Drew. Frederick A. Stokes Co.
Du Bois, Patterson. Chat-Wood. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. 50 cents.
Dudeney, Mrs. Henry. Men of Marlowe's. H. Holt & Co. $1.25.
Dunlop, Robert. Daniel O'Connell. (Heroes of the Nations.) G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Du Pont, P. F. Under the Blue Sky. Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co.
Du Pontet, R. Iuli Cæsaris Commentariorum Pars Prior, de Bello Gallico. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde. 2s.
Edwardes, Charles. Jones the Mysterious. London: Blackie & Son; New York: Scribners. 75 cents.
Ellet, Elizabeth F. The Women of the American Revolution. New ed. 2 vols. Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co. $4.
Finzi, Giuseppe. Petrarca. Firenze: G. Barbèra. Lire 2.
Fraser, W. A. Mooswa and Others of the Boundaries. Scribners. $2.
Fuller, H. B. The Last Refuge: A Sicilian Romance. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Fuller, J. E. The Touch Writer. A Text-book for instruction in operating the typewriter without looking at the keyboard. Cincinnati: Phonographic Institute Co.
Fyles, Franklin. The Theatre and its People. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.25.
Gardiner, C. F. The Care of the Consumptive. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Garland, Hamlin. The Eagle's Heart. D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.
George, Henry, jr. The Life of Henry George. Doubleday & McClure Co.
Gladden, Washington. Straight Shots at Young Men. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. 35 cents.
Glimpses of the Grand Cañon of the Colorado. Denver: Frank S. Thayer. $2.50.
Gray, J. C., and Carey, C. S. The Class and the Desk. American Tract Society. 50 cents.
Grenfell, Bernard P., and Hunt, Arthur S. The Amherst Papyri, Part I. New York: Henry Frowde.
Grinnell, G. B. Jack among the Indians. Frederick A. Stokes Co.
Hackett, Frank W. The Gavel and the Mace. McClure, Phillips & Co. $1.25.
Hall, T. W. Heroes of Our Revolution. Frederick A. Stokes Co.
Harrington, J. W. The Jumping Kangaroo and the Apple-Butter Cat. McClure, Phillips & Co. $1.
Hawley, J. S. Creeds and Religious Beliefs, as They Appear to a Plain Business Man. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. $1.
Hill, F. T. The Case and Exceptions: Stories of Counsel and Clients. Frederick A. Stokes Co. $1.25.
Hinkson, H. A. The King's Deputy. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.25.
Index-Catalogue of the Library of the Surgeon-General's office, U. S. A., Second Series, Vol. V. Government Printing Office.
Irwin, S. T. Letters of Thomas Edward Brown. 2 vols. London: Archibald Constable & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $4.
Jerram, C. S. The Armies of the World. New Amsterdam Book Co. $1.25.
Jewett, John Howard. More Bunny Stories. Frederick A. Stokes Co.
Kidder, F. E. Churches and Chapels: Their Arrangements, Construction, and Equipment. William T. Comstock. $3.
Kitton, F. G. The Minor Writings of Charles Dickens. A. C. Armstrong & Son.
Lacombe, Paul. La Guerre et l'Homme. Paris: Société Nouvelle de Librairie et d'Edition. 3.50 francs.
Lankester, E. R. A Treatise on Zoölogy, Part II.: The Porifera and Cœlentera. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $5.50.
Leavitt, J. McD. Reasons for Faith in Christianity. Eaton & Mains. $1.25.
Loomis, Charles Battell. Yankee Enchantments. McClure, Phillips & Co. $1.25.
Lorimer, G. C. Christianity in the Nineteenth Century. [The Boston Lowell Lectures, 1900.] Philadelphia: American Baptist Publishing Society. $2.25.
Macaulay. Critical Historical Essays. Vol. II. (Temple Classics). London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 50 cents.
Mack, Anna E. Heaven's Distant Lamps; Poems of Comfort and Hope. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.50.
Macy, Jesse. Political Parties in the United States: 1846-1861. (The Citizen's Library.) Macmillan. $1.25.
Mahan, Capt. A. T. The War in South Africa. Peter Fenelon Collier & Son.
Markham, Edwin. The Man with the Hoe, and Other Poems. Doubleday & McClure Co. $2.
Massachusetts Historical Collections, Seventh Series, Vol. I. Jefferson Papers.
Meiklejohn, J. M. D. The Art of Writing English. D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.
Mifflin, Lloyd. The Fields of Dawn, and Later Sonnets. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Miller, J. R. Loving My Neighbor. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. 35 cents.
Miller, F. J., and Nelson, J. R. Dido: An Epic Tragedy. Silver, Burdett & Co. $1.
Mitchell, S. Weir. Dr. North and his Friends. Century Co. $1.50.
Morley, John. Oliver Cromwell. Century Co. $3.50.
Morse, L. B. The Road to Nowhere. Harpers. $1.50.
Neilson, H. B., and Bird, C. Droll Doings. Scribners. $2.
Nevinson, H. W. Ladysmith: The Diary of a Siege. London: Methuen & Co.; New York: New Amsterdam Book Co. $1.50.
Newmarch, Rosa. Tchaikovsky. John Lane. $1.50.
Noble, Edmund. Russia and the Russians. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
O'Connor, E. Scott. Motifs. Century Co.
Osbourne, Lloyd. The Queen versus Billy, and Other Stories. Scribners. $1.50.
Parker, Gilbert. The Lane That Had No Turning. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.50.
Paterson, Arthur. Oliver Cromwell. Frederick A. Stokes Co. $3.
Peake, E. E. The Darlingtons. McClure, Phillips & Co. $1.50.
Percival, John. Agricultural Botany. H. Holt & Co.
Prothero, R. E. The Works of Lord Byron, Vol. 4: Letters and Journals. London: John Murray; New York: Scribners. $2.
Reade, Charles. The Cloister and the Hearth. 2 vols. Harpers.
"Rita." Vanity! The Confessions of a Court Modiste. F. M. Buckles & Co. $1.25.
Robertson, J. M. An Introduction to English Politics. London: Grant Richards; New York: New Amsterdam Book Co. $3.50.
Robertson-Scott, J. W. The People of China. London: Methuen & Co. 3s. 6d.
Robinson, W. C. The Elements of American Jurisprudence. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $3.
Robinson, W. The English Flower Garden and Home Grounds. New ed. London: John Murray; New York: Scribners. $6.
Rossetti, Dante Gabriel. The Blessed Damozel. John Lane. 50 cents.
Rotch, A. Lawrence. Sounding the Ocean of Air. London: Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge; New York: E. & J. B. Young & Co. $1.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 1, 1900.

The Week.

In the severe indictment of the Administration for its course in matters growing out of the war with Spain which appeared in the article that President Eliot of Harvard contributed to the *Outlook* week before last, he declared that it "has succumbed deplorably to a temptation which always besets rulers in time of war—the temptation to keep from the people the knowledge not only of future plans, but of past events and of the documentary evidence relating thereto." The worst illustration of this practice yet brought to light is that which is charged against the President by Chairman Jones of the Democratic National Committee. In his letter of acceptance, Mr. McKinley quoted a part of the secret instructions given by him to the United States Commissioners whom he sent to Paris to negotiate the treaty of peace—the part which he used being favorable to the position of his party in the present campaign. On the 5th of October Senator Jones addressed the President a note asking that the remainder of the document should be made public. Over three weeks have passed without any reply, and Mr. Jones now very properly tells the story. The public endurance of this suppression should be unaccountable in a free country.

The question of civil-service reform does not cut much of a figure in the campaign. President McKinley attracted support from reformers four years ago because, as a Representative in Congress, he had defended the Civil-Service Law from attacks, but he has forfeited their confidence by repeated surrenders to the spoilsmen since he entered the White House. Bryan, however, seems bent on convincing people that things would only go from bad to worse in this respect if he should become President. In a speech at Washington on October 23, he came out in favor of a fixed term for all appointees, including the host of Government clerks. This is in accordance with the plank in the Chicago platform, reaffirmed at Kansas City, which opposed "life-tenure in the public service," and favored "fixed terms of office." This is simply the old doctrine of "rotation in office," made compulsory by law. In point of fact, the introduction of the four years' term for collectors, postmasters, and other like officials has always been recognized by students of the subject as a great misfortune, and civil-service reformers are laboring to secure the abolition of the system. To extend it to the minor employees of the Government would be the longest step backward that could be taken.

Nothing has done more to cool the feeling of Southern Democrats toward Bryan than his attempts during the closing weeks of the canvass to win the votes of Northern negroes by telling them that the Filipinos are colored people like themselves, that the Republican party is trying to deprive them of their liberties, that the only hope for such people is with the Democrats, and that the Republicans have not given the negroes as many offices as they were entitled to have—with the implication that they would get more if they should vote the Democratic ticket. With that independence which now characterizes a large portion of the party press, many Democratic newspapers rebuke the candidate of their party sharply for talking in this way. "Was this remark [that the colored man has bestowed Presidencies on the Republican party and received janitorships in return] intended as an implied promise that he would do better by the colored man if he should be made President?" asks the Nashville (Tenn.) *Banner*, and it continues: "If not, it was mere campaign claptrap, in which a statesman who aspires to the Presidency should not indulge." As to the larger issue of Southern treatment of the negro, the *Banner* pronounces the candidate's disingenuous explanation of recent Constitutional changes "a bold and patent equivocation, such as Mr. Bryan frequently makes," and thus tells what it considers the truth: "The people of the States where these new Constitutions have been adopted, made no disguise of their desire to get rid of the negro vote, and unless this talk of Mr. Bryan to the negroes be considered as merely the cant of a stump politician, intended to catch votes, it is not such as will appeal to the sympathies of the majority of Southern Democrats."

Secretary Root's seven-column speech at Canton is certainly exposed to the old curse on the man who leaves nothing unsaid. Those whom stern duty compels to go through it to the bitter end, will feel free to speak in warm terms of its masterly commonplace. All the slain are duly slaughtered once more; the familiar old documents are brought out with the startled air of a discoverer; and the President's townspeople, who, Mr. Root seems to think, must have omitted to read Mr. McKinley's letter, are refreshed with long extracts from it. All this moves on such a dull level of humdrum that we are naturally surprised when we come upon two really brilliant bits of pettifogging. We suppose the temptation was too strong for the great city lawyer when he found himself before a country jury. It is charged, said Secretary Root, that the President asked Congress in December, 1898, for an increase of the army to 100,000 men. "That," he added, with an earnest glance at the bucolic jury, "was a reduction, not an increase." How unfortunate, then, that Secretary Alger thought he was recommending that the regular army be "permanently increased," and that the President himself fell into the extraordinary blunder of telling Congress that the 100,000 men he asked for were for the "permanent *increase*" of the army! Mr. Root may perhaps be excused for not having read Secretary Alger's reports, but he certainly ought to remember what he himself wrote less than a year ago. In December, 1899, he wished "most strongly to urge that the customs duties between Porto Rico and the United States be removed," which course, he said, was demanded by "the highest considerations of justice and good faith." It must have required a superhuman effort of memory for Secretary Root to forget all this. But he did it completely, and with a grave visage assured the innocent villagers that Congress had passed a law to do exactly what had been recommended.

The glib promises of Secretary Root and Philippine Commissioner Worcester that the Filipino fighting will be over as soon as the election is over, have their sufficient and appropriate comment in the continued Boer fighting. Mr. Chamberlain made exactly the same complaint about the South African hostilities that the Republicans make about the Philippine. "The Boers refuse to surrender," said Mr. Chamberlain angrily, "only because they doubt whether the Government has the country at its back. Give us an unmistakable vote of confidence, and you will hear of no more fighting in South Africa." Well, here we are nearly two weeks away from the general election in England, in which the Government got its big majority, and news comes of a serious British reverse almost in sight of Kimberley. Mr. Chamberlain is seen to be a false prophet. Can Mr. Root hope for better luck? Is there not every sign in the Philippines of an aroused national sentiment which prefers death to submission? We say nothing now of the infinite meanness of maligning an enemy whom we have been unable to subdue; but what kind of effect at home can the Republicans look for if their predictions turn out to be mistaken, and the fighting does go on under McKinley just the same? What excuse can they then invent to cover their shame? They will scarcely have the impudence to say they knew all the time that the Filipinos would fight to the death, election or no election, and that now the deceived voters must pay for and ship at once to the Philippines an army of 100,000 men.

Senator Frye bluntly, if very indiscreetly, told the truth in his speech on Friday night, when he said of the Filipinos: "Practically, they were allies." In view of this, what becomes of the vast indignation of Roosevelt and Root over the charge that there was anything like an alliance? Practically, says Senator Frye, there was an alliance, thus leaving his colleagues to wriggle out of an obligation simply because it was not down in black and white. The Senator, who was also a Peace Commissioner, could not deny his own record. At Paris he asked Gen. Whittier if the Filipinos were of "material assistance" to our army, and the answer was, "Very great." Still more significant was the question put at Paris by Senator Frye to Commander Bradford, with the latter's answer:

> "Suppose the United States, in the progress of that war, found the leader of the present Philippine rebellion an exile from his country in Hong Kong, and sent for him and brought him to the islands in an American ship, and then furnished him 4,000 or 5,000 stands of arms, and allowed him to purchase as many more stands of arms in Hong Kong, and *accepted his aid* in conquering Luzon, what kind of nation, in the eyes of the world, should we appear to be to surrender Aguinaldo and the insurgents to Spain?"
>
> "We become responsible for everything he has done; *he is our ally*, and we are bound to protect him."

Well, in view of what has since been done, what kind of nation does Senator Frye think we now appear to be in the eyes of the world?

Two of President McKinley's own judicial appointees in Hawaii have adopted the heresy that the Constitution follows the flag. Judges Galbraith and Humphreys of the Hawaiian Supreme Court ordered the discharge of a prisoner convicted under territorial laws which, the Court held, were repugnant to the Constitution of the United States and, therefore, null and void. The full opinion, as printed in the Honolulu *Republican*, follows that of Judge Lochren of the United States District Court in all substantial details. The prisoner was discharged on narrow technical grounds relating to indictment by a grand jury and conviction by a jury of only nine persons; but the court went boldly to the bottom of the whole question, and its opinion, though strictly *obiter*, is worth citing:

> "We cannot assent to the doctrine that the operation of the Constitution in the Territories belonging to the United States depends upon the will or action of Congress extending it there. This doctrine necessarily carries with it the admission that what one Congress can give, the same or a succeeding Congress can take away; that although Congress, by the organic act organizing the Territory of Hawaii, extended the Constitution and laws of the United States to this Territory, the next Congress might repeal that part of the organic act, and that then the people of this Territory would have none of the guarantees of life, liberty, and property provided in the Constitution, and might thereafter be governed as a province, a crown colony, or in any manner that Congress, in its wisdom, or unwisdom, might provide; that a tariff might be levied on the products of the islands going into the States, and citizens of this Territory might be denied the rights and privileges of citizens of the United States residing in other parts of its imperial domain."

This, of course, is the decision of only an inferior United States court, and may be reversed by the Supreme Court next month; but it is enough to set shivers running down Republican backs to have such doctrine urged by McKinley's own judges.

Monday morning's papers published a letter from Mr. B. K. Durfee, an Insurance Examiner of the State of Illinois, to Mr. James Von Cleave, the head of the Insurance Department of that State, giving certain facts that had come to his knowledge while examining the affairs of the United States Fidelity and Guaranty Company of Maryland. The letter is dated June 12 of the present year. This is a company which gives bonds for contractors and public officers, clerks, and others holding places of trust and responsibility. It is not the only Maryland institution which has done an extensive business here in the way of giving bonds for New York city officials. The letter of Mr. Durfee says:

> "It seems that in locating their office in New York city it was necessary to secure the influence of Richard Croker in order to receive a fair proportion of the city business—that is, surety on contractors' bonds and on employées of the city. That influence had to be paid for, and it was done by paying Croker a per cent. upon the net profits of the company on business done in New York city. This percentage, instead of being charged up to commission account or payments to agents on commission, was charged against interest account and deducted therefrom."

He says further that the sum of $12,104.57 had been paid to Croker in the year 1900, of which $10,000 was his commission on business done in New York in the year 1899.

It is true, as Croker says, that these practices are not now disclosed for the first time. The Mazet Committee brought out sufficient testimony to show that Croker was receiving an income from the bonding business of this Maryland company, an income that did not appear on any of the company's books, that was not paid in bank checks, but "generally in bills," as the agent of the company testified. It is true, also, that when Croker demanded that Platt be called to the stand to show his family connection with the other Maryland bonding company, the Mazet Committee did not see anything to be gained by so doing, but "scuttled" with great rapidity. Thereupon there was much mirth in the public prints for a few days. Mazet himself was defeated in the next election, and this was the only result of the investigation, but it was a result not to be despised. Of course this Maryland driblet is a very small matter. It does not go far in accounting for the income of Richard Croker or of any other irresponsible party boss. It is one of the sources of demoralization and public pelf that have happened to be discovered. But does it not cast a shadow over the pretensions we are making to introduce good government into distant lands?

Are even the Kentucky Colonels abandoning the strenuous life? Here are Col. Young and ex-Gov. Bradley coming out in a "card" at Louisville, not to post each other as unspeakable villains, not to threaten to shoot each other on sight, but to say that "in order to settle the personal strife between us, each of us has withdrawn everything of a personal character that he has said concerning the other." We can but rub our eyes at the millennial sign. The chief wonder is that this is a preëlection sobering. We are all accustomed to the withdrawal, after the votes are counted, of campaign epithets intended purely to fire the heart of the voter. Nothing is more common than to see a "traitor," an "enemy of his country" (strictly in the Pickwickian election sense), become, when elected, the honorable opponent whose talents and energy we respect, and whose friendship we proudly claim. But before the result is declared—and in Kentucky! For our part, we feel that the least *amende* we can make is to withdraw everything of a personal character which we have said of the fighting Kentucky Colonel.

The Commissioner of the Illinois coal-operators' State organization, Mr. Herman Justi, has just issued a little prospectus, in which he sets forth the chief aims of his commission. One of these aims is to "render coal-mining in Illinois more profitable and less perplexing and annoying," by having all agreements entered into between men and their employers drawn in writing, and "couched in language so plain that the simplest mind may grasp their full meaning," nothing being left to conjecture or memory. The last State agreement entered into, under which miners are now working, provided an elaborate scheme for adjusting disputes without suspension of work at the mine. These provisions were intended as safeguards for operators and miners alike. The commission stands ready to propose arbitration, but only as a last resort, since it hopes that the necessity of referring matters to outside tribunals may be largely avoided in the future through the elaborate provisions in standing annual agreements for direct negotiation regarding grievances.

Commissioner Fitchie, in his latest report to the Commissioner-General of Immigration, makes no attempt to conceal the fact that the contract-labor law is persistently violated by incoming aliens at the port of New York. He says that there is a well-organized system of circumventing the immigration laws; that a syndicate of padrones, with headquarters in this city, has branch offices in several European capitals, and is prepared to furnish, at reasonable notice, any number of foreign laborers required. The system has been so artfully elaborated, says Mr. Fitchie, that the immigrants brought over in this way are utterly ignorant even of the fact that they are contract laborers; and it is chiefly owing to this fact that it is practically impossible to detect them. From the first the weakness of the law has been the fact that conviction could be secured only by the sworn confession of the suspected immigrant; and though, owing to a misunderstanding of the spirit of the law, such confessions have been frequently obtained, the class against whom the law is chiefly aimed have had no difficulty in slipping in. As a result of the latest device of the padrone syndicate, practically no deportations of the most undesirable and ignorant class of immigrants have taken place, and what few exclusions have been made have been those of the highest type of aliens arriving at this port.

Defalcations of bank officers and clerks are not so uncommon as to excite great surprise, but when they rise to the magnitude of $700,000, as in the case of the First National Bank of this city, they rather take away one's breath. Yet it is perhaps easier to mystify the accounts and make away with that sum in a bank which constantly handles fifty million dollars than $70,000 in one which has only five millions to look after. Still more difficult would it be to spirit away $7,000 from a small bank in a small town where the eyes of the superior officers can see everything that goes on, and where even the neighbors can discern any signs betokening that a bank clerk is living beyond his salary. Every bank defalcation, large or small, ought to teach a lesson, ought to make the next one more difficult of accomplishment, ought to contribute something to the protection of the banking business and of society. The American Bankers' Association has for years maintained a bureau for the detection and prevention of forgery and sneak thieving. By careful study of the methods, mental processes, and haunts of the rascals who "work" the banks from the outside, the bureau has largely reduced the amount of successful frauds, and has landed in the penitentiary most of the fraternity who perpetrate them. The Alvord case shows that there is work for a bureau which shall apply itself to frauds hatched inside of the banks also.

There has been considerable stir in England lately over the sending of orders from South Africa, for machinery and iron and steel goods for the mines and railroads, to the United States. The explanation offered by Mr. Wyndham, the Parliamentary Secretary of State for War, is the very simple one that the American mills could do the work more promptly than English ones. This is a case analogous to the building of the great Atbara bridge for the Cairo-Khartum railway a year ago. Here the question of time was of supreme importance, and a Philadelphia establishment took the job away from all the English bidders and executed it in even less time than the contract provided. In the reopening of the South African gold mines time is money in a peculiar sense. In the repair of the railways after the wear and tear of war it is scarcely less so. In both particulars the American mills have been found better equipped than those of any other country, and so it will be hereafter to an increasing extent, not only as regards the demand of South Africa, but of the world in general. There is, perhaps, nothing in the whole range of traffic with so promising a future as the iron and steel industry of the United States, notwithstanding the temporary depression.

The Peace Congress which met at Paris early in October adopted resolutions condemning Great Britain for her course in the South African war, particularly for having refused the preliminary offer of arbitration. What made this action more significant was the fact that several English delegates were present and took part in it. Indeed, they even wished to draft the resolutions in stronger terms. Referring to their attitude, M. Michel Bréal, the distinguished French scholar, writes to the *Temps* to point out how strong and sound a remnant there is in all civilized countries which, even in the stress of actual war, dares to protest against it when unjust. The country is to be congratulated, says Professor Bréal, alluding particularly to England, which can "produce such minorities." To the Gentiles this is foolishness. To be in the minority is, to them, the chief of sins—being nothing less than to "get left." What can be more criminal than that? The end and aim of politics and public life being to produce a "brute majority," what possible comfort can there be in knowing that you are right although you are in a minority?

M. Waldeck-Rousseau has taken advantage of the laying of a corner-stone in Toulouse to outline his policy for the approaching session of Parliament. His tone was not that of the Premier already beaten, which many believe him to be. He insisted that France had seen the end of the Nationalist agitation, and that there was a general rallying to the Republic and to the Administration. He pledged his party to a policy of military expansion, and, while asserting his faith in the finding of the Rennes court-martial, promised impartial amnesty to all who had through the *affaire Dreyfus* suffered legal disability. He promised as well to introduce a bill for old-age pensions, and to restrict the right of association—a measure directed against religious organizations. It will be seen that there was something for everybody—army, *intellectuels*, and Socialists—for all France save the Clericals and the remnant of irreconcilable Royalists. Behind these brave words of the Premier, however, one cannot but suspect a certain trepidation. It is one thing to propound a bold and benevolent policy before an audience of amiable Toulousans; quite another, to convert that policy into legislation before the Chamber of Deputies. It is true that the provinces generally appear to be with the Ministry, but the Chamber of Deputies is apt to take its tone from Paris, and at Paris there is no sign of the conciliation that M. Waldeck-Rousseau asserts. The threatened reopening of the Dreyfus case would put the Ministry in sore straits. Most serious of all, the Government must soon face the old turbulent anti-Republican and personal factions that have a power out of all proportion to their moral weight or popular support. These masters of the art of turning out a Ministry have their eye on the Premier.

The diplomatic representatives of France and Mexico have just signed a treaty for the mutual protection of registered trademarks. Upon proper registration, each country agrees to give faith and credence to the trademarks and infringement laws of the other. That is, a French mark must be appreciated in Mexico according to French law, and vice versa. A significant clause forbids the act of imprinting upon any article "a false indication as to the place of its origin (manufacture), whereby one of the contracting states, or a place situated in either of them, is, directly or indirectly, referred to as the country or place where the article originated." For example, the Government monopoly in France cannot make a "Mexican" cigar, nor a Mexican wine-grower a Burgundy. This policy gains significance from the decision of the Paris Judges of Award that American wines bearing European names should be excluded from competition. Since the treaty just signed will affect in only the slightest degree Franco-Mexican trade as it now is, we must suppose that the French have sought to contrive a model treaty which may later serve as a precedent in dealing with Great Britain (as regards the New Zealand and Australian wine trade, for example) and the United States.

QUESTIONS FOR MR. M'KINLEY.

Lord Erskine once said to Canning that he thought Mr. Percival must be more of a man than Canning was willing to allow; "for," he added, "you never make a speech without making an enemy, and he never makes a speech without making a friend. That goes a good way in the long run." Speech-making as a branch of the gentle art of making enemies has had abundant illustration in the present campaign. Mr. Bryan's oratory has unquestionably repelled many; whether it has, at the same time, won more, election day alone can tell. But as between Presidential candidates, the competition has been not that of rival speakers, but of volubility against silence. In no respect has Mr. McKinley been more lucky than in having to sustain the dignity of his office by keeping still. It is not only that a very pleasing "otium" goes with this "dignitas." The President's abstention from speaking is a positive political advantage to him. By observing silence he at least escapes making blundering speeches. There is traditional shrewdness, also, in looking wise and saying nothing. Many a Sir Oracle has shattered his reputation by opening his lips.

In one way, however, Mr. McKinley's advantage of silence seems somewhat unfair. His opponent has to answer (or dodge) questions. We do not remember that the English practice of "heckling" candidates has ever been so extensively used in this country as we have seen it this year. Every Republican committee, every newspaper, every rival orator, has a triumphant list of questions which Mr. Bryan is challenged to answer. No such awkward queries confront President McKinley. He allows his supporters to go on advancing contradictory arguments for his election, and is not himself called upon to reconcile opposites. Yet if he were the leader of a party in the sense that Gladstone was, or Chamberlain is, he would not be permitted to take refuge in silence. He would have to explain his policy in the past, and sketch out a distinct programme for the future. Direct and searching questions would be put to him, and the people would find out whether it could be said of him, as it was of Anselm of Laon by Abelard: "He was that sort of man that, if any one went to him being uncertain, he returned more uncertain still. He was wonderful to hear, but at once failed if you questioned him."

Some of the questions which Mr. McKinley would have to answer if, like Bryan, he had gone out to meet all comers, relate to his Philippine policy, past, present, and future. A very embarrassing *questionnaire* could be presented to him on that subject. For example:

(1.) Had you any warrant in law for *declaring in your proclamation of December 21, 1898, that* the United States had acquired "rights of sovereignty" in the Philippines, the fact being that we had, at that date, no more title to the islands than to Ireland? If not, were you not guilty of an impeachable offence? Have you ever rebuked Gen. Otis for attempting to suppress this proclamation on the ground that it would drive the natives to take up arms?

(2.) Is it true that your original instructions to the Peace Commissioners commanded them to take only coaling and naval stations in the Philippines, or at most the island of Luzon? Did you in those instructions speak gratefully of the services which the Filipinos had, as our allies, rendered to our arms? Did you state as a reason for not surrendering Aguinaldo to Spain that he had been of the greatest assistance to our army? If none of these things were said in those parts of your instructions which you have suppressed, what was said, and what defence have you for garbling a public document?

(3.) Did you say to Senator Wellington, when urging him to vote for the treaty, that its ratification was the surest way to secure the Filipinos their independence? Is Senator Hoar right now in saying that you will soon advocate Philippine independence? If the Supreme Court decides that trade with the islands must be free, and that their inhabitants may freely come to compete with our labor, will you still say that Duty and Destiny require us to keep the Philippines, or will you scuttle as precipitately as Senator Foraker has said you would?

There are many things about the President's intentions in Cuba which the Cubans and many other people would mightily like to know. The questions would cover points like these:

What did you say to the Cuban leader, Señor Cisneros, which made him go from Washington to Havana and declare there that you had no intention of allowing Cuba to become independent? Did Gen. Wood speak with your authority and approval when he told inquiring Cubans that the United States would insist upon maintaining forts and garrisons in Havana and Santiago, and that Cuba would not be permitted to have a diplomatic service, nor an army, nor a navy, neither would she be allowed to contract a national loan without the consent of the United States? Do you consider a crippled independence such as that would be, a fair and honorable fulfilment of our solemn pledges?

Several other important questions relating to the future policy of President McKinley would gladly be put to him by troubled voters. For instance:

Are you now negotiating for the purchase of St. Thomas, and will the acquisition of that island be announced among the other good things we are to look for "after the election"? Do you mean to take a vote of the inhabitants, as Seward did, or will you just buy them and then shoot them if they say they will not have you to rule over them? If Porto Rico is the "key" to the Gulf and the Isthmian canal, what do we want of St. Thomas? Must we have a whole bunch of keys to lock a door that no one wishes to open? If you have $7,000,000 to squander on St. Thomas, how many millions more do you expect to spend in shipping subsidies, in Nicaragua canals, and in all those forms of Government bounty which are simply waiting on your reëlection? In your next message will you, for the first time as President, say a word in favor of economy in governmental expenditures, or do you think the people of this country will for ever go on paying taxes without a murmur to foster the grandiose schemes of the Washington speculators?

It is really a pity that President McKinley will reply to none of these questions. A wise question is half of wisdom, we know; but that is only when the question is answered. If the Sphinx simply furls her wings and is silent, it does you no good to propound your riddles to her stony face. And the worst of it is that not even Mr. McKinley's next friends will answer. They have, indeed, one "bountiful answer which fits all questions," namely, Trust McKinley.

NO NEED OF PHILIPPINE "REVELATIONS."

The extremely well-informed London correspondent of the Manchester *Guardian*, Mr. George Russell, writes that, after our Presidential election, "revelations" about the bad state of affairs in the Philippines will be made "which will astonish people both in the United States and in Europe." This, he says, he has been told by people intimately acquainted with the actual Philippine situation. The censorship and official terrorism now keep back information, but, once November 6 is safely passed, the whole shameful story will come out. Then, remarks Mr. Russell, "the new Imperialism will have to justify itself as best it may."

Be this as it may, we need no one to rise from the dead to tell us that things are going badly in the Philippines. Mistake and failure are writ large on American occupation of the islands from the first day until now. Granting that it was not a huge blunder to take the archipelago at all, the record of our attempts to govern the inhabitants is an unhappy mélange of ignorance, ineptitude, and disappointment. Feebleness alternating with ferocity, threats following blandishments, vacillation and inconsistency, have marked our course, and now the last state of the islands is worse than the first. As conquerors, as colonizers, as a boastful world-power, we are a ridiculous failure in the Philippines. Voltaire said that there are only three ways of subjugating a people. One is by means of law, another by the aid of religion, and the third is to "cut the throats of a part of the nation in order to govern the rest." We have tried a little of each, though our main reliance has been throat-cutting; but by neither method, nor by all three together, have we won any appreciable success.

Among the accumulating proofs of this we note an interview with Mr. Spencer Pratt in the Singapore *Free Press.* Mr. Pratt was formerly United States Consul at Singapore, and had much to do in getting Aguinaldo to go back to Manila He was on terms of friendship with many Filipinos, and spent some time in the Philippines this past summer. Condensing what he says of the state of affairs there, we find him declaring that "the situation, from the military point of view, is very unsatisfactory"; that there is "gross maladministration" and "corruption" in the civil government; that the army, from top to bottom, has a strong "distaste for their present work," one officer telling him that "at least 100,000 men will be required to effect the pacification of the islands"; that the President's amnesty proclamation was "not taken seriously," and fell absolutely flat; that the natives do "not believe that the American people know the facts of the situation, or that they had given any moral authority for the things that were being done." Ex-Consul Pratt said, in concluding his interview: "It is a great pity some one was not sent to learn the truth and tell it to the American people; the present state of things would then never have been allowed."

Prof. Ferdinand Blumentritt, of the Berlin Society of Ethnology, is the leading German authority on the Philippines. We have before cited his writings. He has now issued a pamphlet, covering the latest developments, which has been translated by Dr. D. J. Doherty, and published by Donohue Bros., Chicago. It ought to be read by everybody desirous of knowing the truth. Professor Blumentritt's closing section is headed "American Blunders." It is not pleasant reading for Americans, but it would be wholesome reading for them. It is an impartial account of the frightful results of an ear-to-the-ground policy when the welfare of 8,000,000 human beings is involved. The Washington Government fumbled and backed and filled through all the critical months; the American officers in Manila fumed and fretted, and were evasive or tongue-tied in their dealings with the natives; then when, at last, the United States made up its mind, so fatally late, to keep the islands, the crowning blunder was made of riding rough-shod over the inhabitants, of neglecting native advice and assistance, of crushing, instead of cherishing, an existing local government, of hunting trusted native leaders to death—in short, of floundering about in domineering ignorance and brutality as if the A B C of colonization and government of protectorates had yet to be learned by the United States.

This severe indictment by Prof. Blumentritt of American management in the Philippines has a striking side-light thrown upon it in the last annual report of Sir Frank Swettenham, Resident-General of the Malay Protectorate. It is a record of remarkable prosperity, progress, and contentment. Now the point is that the Federated Malay States are peopled by a race kindred to the Filipinos, and that, in 1874, their pacification was undertaken under the protectorate of Great Britain. The thing was done without military operations. Sir Andrew Clarke, who did the work, wrote out an account of his methods, which was published among the documents printed along with the Paris Treaty. It might as well have been written in a Malay dialect, for all the heed our Government paid it. No troops, no force of any kind, urged Sir Andrew, but native rule under an upright and able protectorate. There was the whole open secret. By all means, wrote Admiral Clarke to Capt. Mahan, bind Aguinaldo to you; make him Governor of Luzon at a fixed salary; select other native rulers for other groups. The Filipinos will be easier to govern than the Malays, wrote Sir Frank Swettenham to Consul Pratt, because they are more intelligent, and understand better the ways of white men.

Thus we see that, to an experienced English Resident-General, the problem before the United States seemed simple and easy. All that one had to do was to know as much of colonization as is taught in the kindergarten. But we were too proud to learn. We would show the world how to do it. We would hew out our own way. Well, we have done it, and as we look about at the ruin we have wrought, we are not much inclined to boast. American cleverness, Yankee 'cuteness, the traditional inventiveness and energy and readiness of our country—what have they to show in the Philippines? If they had aimed at making a desolation, could they have been more successful? Our miserable and tragic failure there has been mainly due to a wilful blindness to experience. Our folly in taking the islands at all is but heightened by our demonstrated lack of sense and tact in governing them. The capital blunder we have committed has been the neglect of that first principle of modern colonization laid down by Sir Andrew Clarke, namely, the prime need of a "sympathetic administration," which "deals tenderly with native prejudices, and seeks to lead upward a free people instead of forcibly driving a subject race."

END OF THE COAL STRIKE.

The strike of miners of anthracite coal has ended in a substantial victory for the men, and this without any considerable disturbance of the peace. They get a 10 per cent. advance in wages, which is perhaps equal to 25 cents per ton of coal. That they are entitled to this advance in view of the severity of the labor they perform and the dangers they incur, few persons who know anything about coal-mining will deny. The only question really open to dispute was whether the market would justify such an advance. This question is a very complicated one. It is a question of supply and demand, and it takes in the whole range of coal supply, anthracite and bituminous. It touches also the question of foreign and domestic demand and supply, since we are both importers and exporters of coal. We export largely to Canada at the same time that we import from Nova Scotia, whose mines are capable of sending us a much larger supply than we now receive if the price is raised sufficiently to neutralize the tariff. We are beginning to export coal to the Mediterranean countries, and this, too, is a question of price.

In our own market the competition between anthracite and bituminous is severe, and the problem with the operators and the carrying companies has been whether they could recoup themselves for the increase of wages demanded, by an increase of the market price of anthracite. To do so they must get a little more than the additional price per ton which the increased wage calls for, since the increased price will lessen the quantity consumed. There is always a certain margin of consumption at $5 per ton which will cease when the price rises to $5.25, and the loss of this proportion of sales may make all the difference to an operator, and may take all the profits of his business. It is possible, on the other hand, that the market price may be raised sufficiently to put the operator in a better position than he was before.

We say that this is possible, but it is not probable. It must be assumed, in any calculation of chances, that the producers of anthracite were charging all that they could get, in competition with the producers of bituminous, before the strike began, and that this competition will not be relaxed by reason of the advance of wages in the anthracite field. There is still another way in which they may recoup themselves. Anthracite has some properties which give it a preference over bituminous. It produces no smoke. It is preferred for domestic use. Its use is compulsory in New York city and in some other large markets. In such places it is only necessary for the producers to combine and agree not to give away their coal as they have done sometimes, under the fierce stress of competition, heretofore. Nothing but an experiment can solve these various problems.

Nor are the economical problems all

on one side. If for any reason the public will not pay the increased price for anthracite, the increased wages cannot be paid for any great length of time. The advance will not in that case be sustained beyond the 1st of April. If the consumption should fall off 10 per cent. by reason of the increased price, then 10 per cent. of the men employed in mining will have to be laid off, or their working time correspondingly reduced. There is the chance also that increased wages may attract a greater number of laborers into the mining field, and thus eventually bring on an undesirable competition in the labor market. These problems will also solve themselves by time. The men immediately concerned, the strikers, were not bound to consider remote consequences, which may not come at all. They were right in looking to their own present interests, because if they did not do so, nobody else would. They have won a victory of considerable magnitude, and they and their leader, Mr. Mitchell, are to be congratulated on the orderly course that the proceedings have generally taken.

The action of the strike leaders in calling out men who were working under agreement to arbitrate has, as we have before remarked, dealt a severe blow to the cause of arbitration in that region. The operators are not likely to enter into such agreements with their men in the immediate future. The men have received "concessions," but they do not go back to work under any "agreements." The operators have merely "declared" their intentions and "posted" notices. Finally, the strike leaders have done exactly what they have said all along they would not do—namely, order the men back to work at the mines where satisfactory concessions had been received without waiting for such concessions everywhere. When the strike was declared off, a number of operators had made no concessions, and the official order continued the strike at these mines. If this policy had been adopted at the start, the levelling-down process might have been avoided, and the employees of G. B. Markle & Co. might now be working under a definite agreement to arbitrate differences as before. The policy adopted by the strike leaders of treating all operators alike has removed all incentives for individual operators to make any special concessions to their employees in the future. This makes the miners' victory much less of a victory than it might have been.

What effect will the strike have on politics? has been asked more than once. It is the general belief that if it had gone on, and especially if it had been accompanied by rioting and bloodshed, the effect would have been disastrous to the Republican party. The Republicans are looked upon as the party of capital, and it is true that events during the past few years have driven capitalists increasingly into that party. The demand for bad kinds of money which the Democratic party has put into its platform has contributed more than aught else to this result. The disposition in the same party to tamper with the courts of justice has had a tendency to turn Democratic lawyers of influence and distinction away from their own camp, and naturally many of their clients follow them. Alliance with the Populists has had the same effect, so that in one way and another capitalism and Republicanism have become associated together. This is not a desirable condition, since it creates class distinctions which widen and deepen, and may end no one knows how. The fact for present consideration is that if the strike had not been settled before the election, it would have been very damaging to the Republicans. If it had been accompanied with disorder and shooting, it would have created excitement everywhere, and must have injured McKinley. This dangerous factor is now removed, and nobody will be more rejoiced than Senator Hanna, who has allowed it to be understood that he had a hand in bringing about peace. So upon the whole it is probable that the Republicans have not lost any votes, but may have gained some, as the outcome of the strike.

CO-OPERATION IN FRANCE.

Full official reports of the coöperative congresses which assembled in Paris this summer are now appearing, and they give an account of the movement in France which is full of interest. France is the land of productive coöperation, much as Germany is the land of credit and England of distributive coöperation. Without including the earlier more purely socialistic experiments, the coöperative movement in France dates back to the middle of the century, when the Government interested itself in workingmen's associations and advanced large sums of money to them for capital. These loans were placed without sufficient care, were seldom repaid, and were soon dissipated. The Government, however, has never given up its policy of protection and favor, nor have coöperative associations on their part ceased to look to the Government for aid. The coöperative establishments are the "infant industries" of France.

It is this dependence upon public favor which led the National Congress of Coöperative Producers to devote its attention so largely to a discussion of means to be employed for enforcing rigorously a decree issued June 4, 1888. The Congress began and ended its session with a discussion of this decree relating to the award of public contracts. Its essential provisions were that such contracts should be divided up and let out piecemeal wherever possible, in order to give opportunities to coöperative societies; that the associations need not deposit any guarantee fund where contracts did not exceed 50,000 francs; that such societies should be given preference, where bids were equal, over other contractors; and that accounts for work performed should be settled every fifteen days. The provisions of this decree, which have been extended to departmental and municipal contracts, have been so generally disregarded in the public awards that M. Waldeck-Rousseau, Minister of the Interior, a year ago addressed a circular to departmental officials, warning them that they were liable to suits for damages where contracts were awarded illegally. On February 4, 1900, at a banquet tendered him and M. Millerand, Minister of Commerce, by certain coöperative associations, M. Waldeck-Rousseau declared that he believed the state should be the first client of coöperative associations, the first to manifest confidence in such societies before all people. As a witness of his own confidence, he gave out certain building contracts in connection with the Exposition to coöperative societies, and after the work was finished, he tendered those associations a banquet, in which he drank to the health of coöperators and gave assurances of more work to be done.

Having prepared and addressed to the several Ministers of State a memorial reciting the original decree of 1888, and later decrees relating to its non-enforcement, the Congress proceeded to consider a question of more general interest. It asked itself what were the essential features of coöperation. The Congress displayed an almost morbid sensitiveness in taking up what was generally felt to be perhaps the most serious question which could be brought before it. Many of the French societies have borrowed money, or secured necessary capital, by issuing shares to outsiders who have been given the privilege of voting on their holdings of stock. In many lines of industry, such advances of capital to associations of workingmen are absolutely essential to their establishment and successful operation. The provisions in accordance with which these outside shareholders have been allowed to vote and enter into the management of concerns, have varied from society to society. Some voice in the management they have demanded as a condition of making any advances whatever. A society operating with capital contributed by outsiders obviously begins to assume the features of a joint-stock company, and this similarity is decidedly embarrassing for coöperators. Moreover, coöperative societies of producers, even when they have not secured outside capital, have shown a marked tendency to develop into joint-stock concerns. One shareholder after another drops out, the more enterprising members buy up the less enterprising, some die, and in one way or another shares come into the possession of a few men who perhaps retire on their incomes. The number of employees not owning shares increases, and as the concern prospers in a business way, it contracts as a coöperative association, until those who own the stock develop into full-fledged capitalists. Now to define a co-operative society is to determine the exact point at which a society of coöperators becomes a society of bourgeois capitalists.

The Congress set about answering this question, and determined upon a number of essential requisites for a society which should undertake to qualify as co-operative. M. Bougot proposed that no member be accorded more than one vote, whatever the amount of his shares, and this democratic principle was agreed to by a vote of 34 to 24. Immediately upon adopting it, however, the delegates began to seek a less radical provision. It was felt that societies would find difficulty in securing necessary advances of capital on such terms, and a compromise was effected in the adoption of a resolution that, to be a coöperative society in good standing, an association must not require a payment of more than 200 francs ($40) of members before giving them a voice in the management of the concern, nor more than 1,000 francs ($200) as a condition of eligibility to the Board of Directors, three-quarters of whom must be working coöperators; it must not allow more than five votes to any one shareholder, nor more than one vote for every 500 francs ($100) of subscribed capital, and when a question of amending the statutes of a society or of dissolving it should arise, members must vote on the one-man-one-vote principle.

In France the societies of producers are not closely affiliated with the societies of consumers, as they are in England, where productive societies have been established by the distributive societies. Indeed, no close affiliation of this sort is possible in France, because the productive societies in general do not produce what the distributive societies want. Instead of producing for an assured market through distributive societies, the French coöperative producers have entered into the general field of industrial competition. In meeting this competition they have been less agile than capitalistic employers, and have, in many cases, gone to the wall, although they have enjoyed special privileges and favors from the Government. They lack the spirit of aggressive and self-reliant independence which characterizes the English societies. The French coöperator, on the other hand, is doctrinaire, and finds in his philosophy an inspiration akin to religious enthusiasm—a spirit entirely lacking among English coöperators.

MAX MÜLLER.

In this decade have died three men who, born in the twenties within five years of each other, have occupied, each in his own field, the same relative position in respect of science on the one hand and of the general public on the other. Tyndall, Huxley, and Max Müller, who died on October 28, at Oxford, for half a century represented to the world at large the oracles of their respective fields of knowledge. Yet none of the three held this position in the eyes of the inner circle of scientific workers, who, indeed, recognize no oracle, and judge their colleagues exclusively on technical grounds. The general public, on the other hand, look for the man as revealed in his general thought and especially in his style. Perhaps this judgment, though often extremely inaccurate in details, is, on the whole, not less just than the narrower appreciation of the scientific world. These three men well illustrate the difference in the two points of view. While not admitted to any lofty rank by his scientific brethren, Tyndall held his materials in a firm grasp and was master of a clear style and a thought behind it equally gleaming and incisive. In like manner Huxley will be remembered less as a comparative anatomist and taxonomist than as a popular lecturer and writer of books comprehended of the people, and well weighted with careful thought. Both of these men died in the full glory of popular applause, and therein they were happier than the third of this remarkable trio, for Müller's fame waned before his death, and for the last ten years no critic has been too humble to speak of him lightly in his capacity of linguist and mythologist.

But the master of a generation ago cannot be dismissed without the meed of praise due to his ability and to the work actually accomplished by him. It is true that he was at his best as an interpreter. His unrivalled style, his enthusiasm, his eloquence in a domain distinguished for arid research, made him and his field known to those who would otherwise have had no interest in the line which he represented. But is this a slight thing? There are many who owe to Müller's magnetism the first impulse to tread in the path which he opened for them; many who have been accustomed to sneer, and yet have him to thank for the ability to do so. In a word, Müller, even as a middle-man between the inner shrine and the outer world, deserved well of two generations. In his matured strength he was an inspiration, and he always aided his chosen science by his poetic insight and suggestiveness, even when the cause for which he fought was wrong. Regarded solely from the material side, the benefit he conferred upon Sanskrit studies in winning means for others as well as for himself to prosecute their labors, is not a small item in the score of good he must have entered to his credit.

But in point of fact, despite the unsatisfactory nature of much of his later work, Müller was by no means a mere go-between, feeding the public with grain raised by others. It is true that he was somewhat vainglorious and not very scrupulous in the allotment of praise which should be rendered for what was done by others under his supervision. What he constantly proclaimed to be his own great work, the edition of the 'Rig Veda,' was in reality not his at all. A German scholar did the work, and Müller appropriated the credit for it. But, even in this case, though the judgment be true, it is harsh. The German scholar was paid for his labor, and did the best he could to circumvent Müller in getting out his *editio prima*. The incident is not altogether creditable to either party, but one thing is certain: there would have been no scholar doing the work at all had not Müller started it. That his hand left the plough and he hired some one else to do willingly what he was unwilling to complete, is a matter of minor importance. Then, again, Müller's 'Ancient Sanskrit Literature,' published forty years ago, was an independent and thoroughly scholarly book, which has ever since held its own with the first publications in this complex field of investigation.

When, after twenty years, Müller returned to the special study of literature, from which his phonetic and mythological pursuits had withdrawn him, although the volume published under the title, 'India, What Can It Teach Us?' showed a marked decline in power in the body of the book, the learned appendix on the "Renaissance of Sanskrit Literature" proved that the old scholar was still there, vigorous, ingenious, persuasive. But the very circumstance that the most important part of the book was relegated to an appendix, while the main part was taken up with such bagatelles as "The Truthful Character of the Hindus," and "Human Interests in Sanskrit Literature," was indicative of a grave change in Müller's attitude. He had catered to the public so long that scholarly work had become of only secondary consequence. For his general reputation this was a fatal error, since the very public he served repudiated him as a guide, while the scholars he had deserted, and to whom, in his eagerness to be always the first, he had been insultingly unfair, were more prone to ridicule his pretensions than to admit the genuine worth of his contributions to knowledge.

It is no time now to speak of the unhappy quarrels which disfigured the later years of Müller's life. Not only in this country, but in Germany, his bitterest enemies were those of his own household. Sanskrit scholars could not forgive the dishonesty of statement which marked his ex-parte presentation of facts, nor the maliciousness with which he pursued the objects of his dislike. But let that pass. What remains that is good? The noble edition of the 'Rig Veda' and the authoritative 'History of Sanskrit Literature' will perhaps abide as his most solid attainment in Sanskrit scholarship. Apart from these, as editor-in-chief of the 'Sacred Books of the East,' he has been instrumental in furthering, to the best of his ability, the good cause of publishing translations of the most important Oriental records. His own work in the series was slight, and the two volumes of Upanishads and one volume of Vedic Hymns, translated for it by him, are of ephemeral value. Nor do the slighter volumes of text-books which he prepared at intervals, call for special remark. They were the *parerga* of necessity, pot-boilers, such as no scholar loves but most must undertake.

But while this list records the most valuable of Müller's works in one field (though even here one should not overlook his adjutancy in the publication of Pali books as well as of Sanskrit), that which has really given him his widest renown has as yet been scarcely referred to. And it is surely not a small matter that a scholar can win a hear-g in two lines of research, for though all mparative philology may be generally re- arded as the concomitant of Sanskrit scho- arship, it should be remembered that they have no more to do with each other than have Greek and folk-lore. The 'Science of Language,' 'Chips from a German Workshop,' and other related volumes represent the middle period of Müller's career, and have perhaps had the widest influence. They were not very correct, but they were very popular, and they lighted up a dark field and encouraged research. As Müller advanced, he appears to have fallen a victim to the very factor in his mental furnishing which made his books so interesting to beginners, even an imaginative, fanciful way of looking at facts. He seems to have regarded words as endowed with some mysterious potency, and thus was drawn to the peculiar view which he upheld in his mythological studies and later in his 'Science of Thought.' Thought was bred of words, not words of thought. And so we got the showy but too airy structure called science of mythology, and the myths of the sun and dawn, when the day of etymological mythology was already past.

The position taken by Müller on this subject was never renounced by him, and when, but a couple of years ago, he published his 'Contributions to the Science of Mythology,' he reasserted his opinions with the obstinacy of desperation, for he saw clearly that in this regard the world had passed him by. But toward the end of his life, amid much frivolous writing, such as his 'Auld Lang Syne,' published in 1899, wherein the man's egotism comes unpleasantly to the fore, he returned for his last work to that special pursuit which, it would seem, he held particularly dear, and in which, with pardonable self-esteem, he evidently thought himself peculiarly fitted to direct opinion. This was pure philosophy. Müller always pretended to speak of his other work as merely preparatory to the deeper studies of the relation of mind and matter, and in his translation of Kant's 'Critique' and his own various publications on religion and philosophy he doubtless felt the greatest satisfaction. He was at heart a Vedantist in a European sense, an idealist; and in the exposition of idealistic philosophy he believed that he was performing advanced work as well as gratifying his own tastes. His very latest book, the 'Six Systems of Indian Philosophy,' reveals not only his constant predilection for philosophical studies, but his inner sympathy with that great monistic system which proclaimed that all was one and that that one was God.

Of Müller's private life little need be said. Coming from Germany when but a young man, he settled in England, which he ever after made his home, living the quiet life of an Oxford scholar. The death of his daughter some years since was his first great blow, and one from which he never fully recovered, being affected by it physically and mentally. For a while, his morale was shattered, but, after a time, he bravely resumed the forsaken labors of his life. He was one who welcomed distinction and he received many honors. In his death the world has lost a master perhaps more brilliant than profound, but one whose labors have not been wasted. He made no great discovery, but he was an able scholar and that will endure.

WAR AS A MEANS OF PEACE.

If I were a millionaire, instead of giving more Bibles to all the schools, I would spend a few millions in distributing through what a Congressman would call "the homes of the land" copies of a little book by M. Novikoff, which was sent to me from France a few years ago, called, 'Les Prétendus Bienfaits de la Guerre.' War is to this age of the world what the rescue of the Holy Sepulchre from the infidels, or the conversion of the heathen, was to the Christian of the Middle Ages. It is the crying evil of the time. To the promotion of war even the clergy of our day are openly or secretly devoted. Many modern parsons are really as busily engaged in stirring up strife as was Friar Tuck, and just as ready, if need be, to take a hand in the fray themselves; and this in spite of the fact that they have seen civilization contending for two thousand years for existence against the spirit of war and conquest.

Man's fondness for killing his fellow has been so inveterate since the dawn of civilization that Christianity itself has been made an additional pretext for destroying life. In fact, ever since then, we find that man's principal and noblest occupation has been the destruction of his fellows. Of course, he would not acknowledge that his object was simply destruction. At the outset only, as in the case of the Indians, did he admit that he meant simply to kill. He very soon began to give reasons for this killing; for instance, that the other fellow wanted to kill him, or did not hold the true faith, or was the possessor of something which the aggressor desired for himself. One of the most desolating of African wars, at the beginning of this century, was caused by the gift to an African chief, by a British naval commander, of the lid of a brass soup-tureen. As the chief wore it as a sort of breastplate, it excited the envy and hatred of neighboring potentates, who fought splendidly in order to secure it.

But the worst wars in history have been caused by somebody's failure to believe the right things about the next world. There has always been a body of persons, priests or ministers, who knew exactly what was going on in the next world, and egged on the warriors to kill the people who didn't believe them. This caused what were called "religious wars." To them succeeded wars about "the balance of power." What "the balance of power" meant was, that somebody else was getting too strong for our comfort. There are traces of the religious wars to-day. The Philippine war is partly religious, we are told, and a good many bishops and parsons are promoting it because it gives a good chance of converting unbelievers. M. Novikoff discusses these various causes of war, and he shows that in a very large number of cases the reasons alleged for war, even when very foolish, did not exist.

Whether any particular faith or custom is good for humanity, we cannot tell *a priori*. We find out, for instance, whether wars are foolish, mainly by the result. M. Novikoff goes over the history of a good many of them, considering them, as their admirers say, as means of deciding disputes between nations. The vast majority don't decide anything, except which of the combatants is the stronger for the time being. The Spaniards spent 100 years trying to convert the Dutch, and failed. Louis XIV. tried for fifty years to make France the greatest military Power in Europe, and was forced to confess, on his death-bed, "qu'il avait trop aimé la guerre." Spain tried to retain the hegemony of Europe and the possession of the American continent for 200 years; she now has no fleet, has not an inch of soil on the American continent, and has no army of which any one is afraid. England tried to retain the northern half of America, and lost it. France, under Louis Napoleon, tried to subjugate Germany, and was defeated with frightful loss. Russia tried to seize Constantinople, and was defeated. England tried to exclude her from the Black Sea, and found all her gains gone in ten years. Austria tried to retain Italy, and lost it. America has been trying to annex the Philippines for two years, without success. Most of these things have occurred in our own time. I need not refer to Napoleon's attempt to found a great European empire, and to the manner in which the attempt turned out. The most comic result of it all is, that we in America, who have seen all this, and who, we thought, had learned something from it, have taken up the business of fighting just as the foremost men of the older world have concluded that, as a means of deciding quarrels, war is a mistake.

The principal use of Novikoff's book is in showing the absurdity of war as a human occupation. He does not, however, discuss the actual causes of war as fully as he might. As a general rule, no causes of war are ever discussed until passions are aroused and the war is on the point of breaking out. These causes will be found mainly in the education of young people. The young man is taught that somebody is going to attack his country, and that his highest duty is to defend it. His mind is familiarized from his school days with the idea that he will be called upon to fight in its defence. The feeling is consequently maintained that the natives of every other country are possibly enemies. Lord Salisbury, for instance, who commits so many "blazing indiscretions," astounded the English by warning them a few months ago that they ought to have targets for rifle-practice in their back yards, and must be constantly ready to repel foreign attempts to invade them. Chamberlain, the new Radical apostle, hurled defiance to the four corners of the earth, and is strongly in favor of the embodiment of yeomanry. In fact, nearly all the addresses at Lyceums and at Mechanics' Institutes point to the possibility of death on the battle-field as something that lies in every one's path. The fact that wars are diminishing in number is concealed as far as possible. The fact that the increasing manufactures and commerce of the world indicate the devotion of a much larger proportion of time and attention than formerly to the arts of peace, is carefully ignored by political prophets and apostles. The condition of "our national defences" is referred to with dread. In fact, nothing is left undone to keep alive the mediæval apprehension that a nation which is not constantly thinking of or preparing for war, is in danger at any moment of being attacked by somebody.

One of the most comic illustrations of our unwillingness to devote ourselves to the things that make for peace, was our choice of one who had been the captain of a of-war as one of our representatives in the deliberations of the Peace Conference at The Hague, a year ago. Peace is a thing which, even more than anything else, needs to be promoted by men who believe in it and wish for it. A soldier, either naval or military, has been all his life wishing for war and finding reasons for making it. To depute him to find reasons for being at peace with all mankind, is very like the Congressional device of referring a political measure to a hostile committee. Perhaps there could not have been found, in the army or navy, a better man to be our delegate than Capt. Mahan, but he was still a man whose fame and promotion depended on his mastery of the art of war. The result is, that in the articles he has since written on the subject of peace-making, he generally treats it much as the French Deputy, on hearing that there were anarchists in his district, treated anarchy, through fear of losing anarchist votes: "My friends," said he, "there is a great deal of good in anarchy; only we must not abuse it."

So, likewise, "a world-power" may have a little peace now and then, but it may have too much. It may, in order to procure peace, be guilty of base compliances, of forgiveness of injuries. It must set men like Roosevelt of New York, or Morgan of Alabama, to putting things right in the world by frequent bouts of slaughter. The fact is, what our modern education needs more than aught else is the duty of keeping before the eyes of children the value of peace, for nations as for men. Preaching war at peace conferences is as ridiculous and needless as wearing swords at evening parties. We have tried for centuries the plan of training our young men to be ready to kill each other; why can we not try, during one generation, the plan of training young men to "do justice and love mercy"? E. L. G.

Correspondence.

THE DUTY OF OPPOSING McKINLEY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I am prompted to ask Mr. Truman Buck (see *Nation* of October 18, p. 307) to do a little swearing for me also. He strikes you hard and pierces your armor, it seems to me. The logic is against you.

Since the *Nation* mapped its course for the campaign, I have recalled in memory the lessons it has taught me during the thirty-five years since I became a regular and constant reader. I am absolutely unable to reconcile support of McKinley with those teachings. On the contrary, they speak to me in trumpet tones the duty of opposing him with all my might. What is worth doing at all is worth doing well. Now I cannot maul him without a club, and the only available club is Bryan. It is not the club of my choice; but it will do, and the emergency is desperate.

Were there no other reasons for supporting Bryan, the following would settle the question for me:

(1.) McKinley's crime is an actual one. If what he is doing is the greatest crime in history, then he is the greatest convicted criminal, and the blood of his victims cries to Heaven for his punishment. But the crimes of Bryan are yet in the womb of the future, and may be strangled at birth. They are not crimes, but mere possibilities of crime. If I am told that they must be prevented, I answer, you cannot do that. If you applied that rule, you would never elect a President; no candidate would be judged fit.

(2.) The worst that Bryan could do would be merely robbery; and murder is a higher crime than robbery. And to say that murder is a higher crime than robbery is to say that McKinley is a greater evil than Bryan. This, also, is involved, that to support him is to aid and abet the highest of crimes.

Now, to keep as far as possible from that crime—to wash my hands clean of blood—I must vote for Bryan. He is my medicine; and I swallow that pill with joy.

The *Nation* has long been for me a preacher of "the strenuous life," a preacher of righteousness, of truth, of freedom. But in this campaign it is not so strenuous as I could wish. Please let up a little on Bryan—just a little—and maul McKinley harder—just a little. A. F. HAMILTON.

GRANVILLE, O., October 20, 1900.

SOME INFORMATION FOR ARCHÆOLOGISTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Last June a small fund was placed at my disposal by the Peabody Museum of Harvard University for the purpose of carrying on archæological work in Arizona. From the excellent monographs published by Dr. Fewkes, and from the experience of a previous journey to the region, I decided to explore a group of ruins upon the Moqui Reservation. Upon learning that the present agent for the Moquis was a punctilious person, a courteous request was addressed to him for permission to excavate upon the district under his charge. The following letter was received in reply:

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR, INDIAN SCHOOL
SERVICE, OFFICE OF SUPERINTENDENT,
KEAM'S CAÑON, ARIZ., July 25, 1900.

Mr. Frank Russell, Keam's Cañon, Ariz.:

DEAR SIR: I am in receipt of your letter and will say I have no authority to give you permission to carry on your work on the Moqui Reservation. You must obtain permission from the Commissioner of Indian Affairs, Washington, D. C.—Very respectfully,

CHARLES E. BURTON,
Superintendent and Special Distributing Agent.
Per E. J. Bost,
Clerk in charge.

The following notice was found posted in conspicuous places about the Moqui Reservation:

MOQUI TRAINING SCHOOL,
KEAM'S CAÑON, ARIZ., April 10, 1900.

To Whom it May Concern:

Owing to the fact that unauthorized persons have come upon the Moqui Reservation for the purpose of digging pottery, and for various other unlawful purposes to the detriment of the good of the Indians, all persons are hereby warned that they will not be allowed to trespass in any way upon this reservation. All persons desiring to pass through or to visit this reservation must report to the undersigned and show their specific permission to be present upon the reservation, or give good reasons why they should be allowed to be present in the Indian country.

Attention is called to the following sections of the United States Revised Statutes:

"Section 2147. The Superintendent of Indian Affairs, and the agents and sub-agents, shall have authority to remove from the Indian country all persons found therein contrary to law; and the President is authorized to direct the military force to be employed in such removal.

"Section 2148. If any person who has been removed from the Indian country shall thereafter at any time return or be found within the Indian country, he shall be liable to a penalty of one thousand dollars."

Done by order of the Commissioner of Indian Affairs, Washington, D. C., this tenth day of April, 1900.—Very respectfully,

CHARLES E. BURTON.

Believing that the representative of the largest university in America would not be classed with "persons" present upon the reservation for "unlawful purposes," and supposing that a permit was a mere matter of form, I wrote to Prof. F. W. Putnam, Curator of the Peabody Museum, asking him to apply for it to the Indian Department at Washington. While awaiting his reply, our party travelled about three hundred miles in a "prairie schooner" in the examination of various ruins. Just as we were in a position to secure some adequate reward for the outlay of time, trouble, and expense, these letters were received:

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
OFFICE OF INDIAN AFFAIRS,
WASHINGTON, July 31, 1900.

Prof. F. W. Putnam, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.:

SIR: This office is in receipt of your communication of the 24th instant in which you state that Dr. Frank Russell, instructor of anthropology in Harvard University, is now on a brief visit to Arizona making anthropological researches; that he wishes to do work of this character in the Blue Cañon on the Moqui Indian Reservation—the explorations to be in the interests of the said university and any objects found to be placed in the university museum; and you, therefore, ask that the necessary permission be granted in the premises.

In reply you are informed that this office has recently refused several requests for permission to do excavating work and to make anthropological collections on the Moqui Indian Reservation, for the reason that the office very much doubts whether it has authority under existing treaties to grant permits for persons to go upon Indian reservations for the purpose of excavating and carrying away property rightfully belonging thereon.

In this connection, I have to add that greater efforts have recently been made to prevent the remains of antiquity located within Indian reservations from being despoiled, and also to put a stop, so far as possible, to persons going upon such reservations with a view to excavating and carrying away material therefrom.

I do not see how this office can consistently grant Dr. Russell the desired permission.

Very respectfully, A. C. TONNER,
Acting Commissioner.

Upon receipt of this communication, I left the ruins which were just promising hopeful returns, but was pursued by the following billet:

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR, INDIAN SCHOOL
SERVICE, MOQUI TRAINING SCHOOL.
KEAM'S CAÑON, ARIZ., August 21, 1900.

To Mr. Russell, or
To any party excavating on the Moqui Reservation.

SIRS: You are hereby directed to report to this office at once and show your authority to be on this reservation, and especially authority to excavate among the Moqui ruins.

Very respectfully, CHARLES E. BURTON,

As the neighbors of Mr. Burton were unanimous in their statements that he, "dressed in a little brief authority, played such fantastic tricks upon the reservation as made the natives weep," his letter occasioned no surprise, but it was in striking and deplorable contrast with the remarkably generous and hospitable treatment accorded by all others met with in Arizona. In some cases, many dollars' worth of specimens were presented, and invaluable assistance rendered.

If the Indian Department could not see how it could consistently grant a permit to the representative of the Peabody Museum, who wished to work at a point thirty or forty miles from the inhabited pueblos, in a locality occupied by Navajos off their reservation, and where the Moquis never go under any circumstances, how does it explain the fact that the Field Columbian Museum party was permitted at that time and for months before to excavate at the foot of the Moqui mesas? Why should that party be permitted to invade a cemetery so recent, and held so sacred by the Moquis, that they should at last threaten to roll rocks down upon the workmen? Furthermore, the ruins are being ransacked by the Navajos, who sell the unbroken pottery for a mere pittance to a score of traders, who scatter it broadcast over the United States, and in some cases dispose of it to European institutions. The Navajos will not touch the human skeletons; hence these are thrown out upon the surface to bleach and rot. Neither will they preserve the specimens of pottery that are at all broken, thereby depriving museums of many a beautiful vase.

The absurd attitude of the Indian Department reached a rare climax in the following notice, posted just before I started for the East:

> DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR, INDIAN SCHOOL
> SERVICE, HOPI TRAINING SCHOOL.
> KEAM'S CAÑON, ARIZ., September 4, 1900.
>
> To the Public:
>
> Pottery digging and any kind of excavating among the Hopi ruins or Hopi burial places are hereby prohibited to both "whites" and Indians. Violations of this order will subject Indians to severe punishment, and white people to expulsion from the reservation and a heavy fine. Traders are forbidden to buy any more ancient pottery.—Very respectfully,
>
> CHARLES E. BURTON,
> Superintendent and Special Distributing Agent.

Since we are informed that "this office has recently refused several requests" (except to the Field Columbian Museum), this last proclamation raises grave doubts whether the Indian Department "has authority under existing treaties" to prohibit the Indians from "excavating and carrying away property rightfully belonging" to themselves. And since "greater efforts have recently been made to prevent the remains of antiquity from being despoiled" (except by the Field Columbian Museum), and neither "whites nor Indians" are allowed to excavate (always excepting the Field Columbian Museum), it is to be presumed that these specimens of ancient handiwork, many of them of perishable materials and invaluable to students of American archæology, are destined henceforth to disuse and wasteful decay.

Oh, Consistency, thy name is Department of Indian Affairs! FRANK RUSSELL.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., October 18, 1900.

SOME ODD LOCUTIONS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Students of language may be interested in the following:

"I noticed the lower part of his pantaloons were *foxy*-dusty." (From testimony of S. C. Jeffries, in the printed report of the case of the State vs. Udderzook.)

"They do according to what the *heft* of 'em decide." (Here heft means majority. Used by a Nova Scotian of English descent this summer in reference to the actions of a body of men.)—Yours truly, E. N.

NEW YORK, October 25, 1900.

Notes.

R. H. Russell's enlarging list includes 'Characters of Romance,' sixteen prints by William Nicholson; 'Americans,' by Charles Dana Gibson; 'The Passing Show,' drawings by A. B. Wenzell; Irving's Knickerbocker illustrated by Maxfield Parrish; R. L. Stevenson's 'Child's Garden of Verse,' illustrated by M. E. Squire and E. Mars; 'Down South,' photographic studies by Rudolf Eickemeyer, jr.; and 'Mr. Dooley's Philosophy,' by F. P. Dunne.

The Macmillan Co. have in press 'The Men Who Made the Nation,' by Prof. Edwin Erle Sparks, and 'The Clergy in American Life and Letters,' by the Rev. Daniel Dulaney Addison.

The "Harvard Studies in Classical Philology," it is announced, will hereafter be published by the University. The eleventh volume is just appearing.

The first complete edition of the works of the Danish philosopher and critic Sören Kierkegaard is announced by the Gyldendal Publishing Co. of Copenhagen. The text will be based on Kierkegaard's MSS., and will be accompanied by critical notes by specialists. In view of the fact that Kierkegaard was the most original thinker of his time in Denmark, it is strange that his works are now for the first time brought together forty-five years after his death.

Dickens's 'Cricket on the Hearth' and 'Christmas Carol' have been issued in two companion volumes, prettily decorated without and well printed within, by G. P. Putnam's Sons. The excuse for their reappearance is found in numerous designs by Frederick Simpson Coburn. These are much above the average, and are in two styles—vignettes in pen and ink, interspersed in text and border, and full-page wash drawings. There is the usual want of harmony between modes so opposite, but there is mediocrity in neither, and the edition will commend itself to the gift-seeking and gift-receiving public.

Some months ago we reviewed a pleasant and singularly naïve work by Mr. Clifton Johnson, entitled 'Among English Hedgerows.' In his new book, 'Along French Byways' (Macmillan), Mr. Johnson entertains us, in his peculiarly artless style, with the trivialities of French country life as he envisaged it, camera in hand, in his solitary summer rambles. If the aim of travel be to know certain countries from within, Mr. Johnson has mastered the art. His book is a record of contemporary peasant life as interpreted by a sympathetic outsider with a wonderful eye for detail. As in the earlier volume, the excellent photographs lend half its distinction to the book. Mr. Johnson embarked on the discovery of rural France with the same open mind that he displayed in his English travels. He knew no French, and conceived of that fact as no drawback to research, and it is partly owing to his ignorance of their speech that he has a detached air in studying the peasant type; it is as though he were describing to those who were unlikely to see for themselves the manners and customs of some outlandish tribe. When he sees a Frenchwoman smoking a cigarette "in a manner that seemed to me quite scientific," he records the fact as a genuine and rather startling contribution to one's knowledge of the sex. "That, I suppose, was fast life." Fast life, however, figures little in these sketches. Their claim to attention lies in a peculiar repose and a sympathy with the life of toiling France; they are in parts a sort of prose commentary on the paintings of Millet.

We meet with Mr. Johnson again applying his special talent to 'Lorna Doone,' in the new Harper's edition. His discriminating explorations of Exmoor give the story its topographical setting, and are worth many times over the imaginative figure illustrations still retained by the publishers. The book is gayly bound.

It is William Martin Johnson who tries his hand at embellishing Charles Reade's 'The Cloister and the Hearth,' in two volumes (Harpers). These are wholly in the line of border decoration (chiefly with the pen), occasionally hitting the mark if one waives the fashionable intrusion of the margin upon the square of the printed page, but in general not reaching a high level of invention or execution.

With pleasure one passes from "process" engraving to real woodcut illustration such as we meet with in the latest (eighth) edition of W. Robinson's 'English Flower Garden and Home Grounds' (London: Murray; New York: Scribners). We passed a favorable judgment on this handsome and authoritative work five years ago, when it was in its fourth edition—a statement sufficiently indicative of the place it has made for itself. We may recall the fact that the latter half is a dictionary of flowers available for the garden—in England; only with reserves in this country.

'The Diary of a Dreamer,' by Alice Dew-Smith (G. P. Putnam's Sons), is a series of reveries written with the rather elaborate detachment from the cares of the working world which is characteristic of so much of the occasional literature of the day. Mrs. Dew-Smith writes with the deliberate air of isolation that we all know so well; when this isolation is set off by a charming garden adorned with sun-dials, crimson ramblers, and shady seats, the dreamer who publishes her dreams may count on an audience. The great popularity of certain modern works on gardening among people who have the vaguest aspirations after a garden, is part of the reaction against town life that is as old as Horace and seldom more genuine than his hankering after the country. Mrs. Dew-Smith's reflections as she gazes up into her big chestnut tree or watches the birds take their bath, have the usual charm of setting and the quiet humor that life in a garden invariably brings out. It is a book to be read as a sedative by the busy and overworked. The scene is laid in England, and is bathed in a peculiarly English atmosphere of peace and leisure.

An oblong album of three-color prints on gray mounts constitutes 'Glimpses of the Grand Cañon of the Colorado' (Denver: Frank S. Thayer). The views are, with two exceptions, from photographs made by Oliver Lippincott, Los Angeles, touched with water-color by J. P. Robertson of Denver, and then reproduced as above stated. Formally, the series conveys a perfectly just idea of the extraordinary scenery in question; and the high coloring is not so excessive as to detract from the general fidelity to nature. 'The American Spion Kop, from "Grand View,"' involves a transplanting of names which may or not become a fixity through this medium.

In 'The Other Man's Country' (Philadelphia: Lippincott) Mr. Herbert Welsh presents a brief and forceful argument from the pro-Filipino standpoint. His book is, therefore, naturally, a sharp arraignment of the policy of the American Administration. The greater portion of the volume consists of a review of the steps which led up to and resulted in the outbreak of February 4, 1899. In supporting his argument, Mr. Welsh quotes freely from various authorities and from official reports. He styles his book "An Appeal to Conscience," and emphasizes certain features of an important question in which the American conscience has, as yet, played but a too subordinate part. He states that "the main purpose of the book is to indict and condemn Imperialism as a political doctrine inimical to the spirit, not only of American Democracy, but Christianity itself." The main strength of this doctrine in America Mr. Welsh ascribes "to the active or tacit approval it has received from the moral and religious people of the country." Those who desire to know both sides of the argument, or to support an existing conviction, will find the book well worthy a careful perusal.

Mr. H. Whates's 'The Third Salisbury Administration, 1895-1900' (London: Vacher & Sons) is described by him as a kind of lapidary inscription, placed on the grave of a defunct Ministry, and Dr. Johnson has told us that no man is on oath in that genre. Accordingly, we find here and there in the bulky volume a too great fondness for saying nothing but good of the dead; although Lord Salisbury's failure in dealing with the Sultan, and his Government's lamentable coming short of its promises of social reform, are fairly to be collected from these pages. In the account of the (for Americans) humiliating Venezuelan episode, there is much distortion and some incoherency, which are the sure betrayal of a writer not versed in American politics. Still, the long review of five years' diplomacy—a singularly momentous period in England's foreign relations—has its value for reference, with the need of checking for unconscious bias always borne in mind; while the appendix, with its list of treaties and conventions, petitions and dispatches, is elevated to the traditional importance of a lady's postscript.

No one knows what new discovery of classical or theological interest may come from Egypt at any moment, and consequently collectors eagerly gather the papyri which are from time to time offered for sale in or from that country. The most important private collection yet made is that of Lord Amherst of Hackney, which is now being edited by Messrs. Grenfell and Hunt. Part I. ('The Amherst Papyri,' Oxford: University Press; New York: H. Frowde), containing the "Ascension of Isaiah" and other theological fragments, has just appeared. The names of the editors are a sufficient guarantee for the scientific accuracy and the thoroughness of the work. There are nine plates, containing facsimile reproductions of the torn, worm-eaten, brown old manuscripts. These are transliterated in full. The paper is heavy, with uncut edges, and the publication throughout is a delight to head and eye and hand. "The Ascension of Isaiah" is a fragment of the original Greek of an Apocryphal work of the first part of the second century after Christ, which was known heretofore only in an Ethiopic translation and partial Latin and Slavic translations. Outside of this, the volume contains a curious Christian hymn, from about 300 A. D., or a little later, a letter from Rome of the third century, two small liturgical fragments, probably "choir slips," from the seventh or eighth century, two New Testament fragments, a few Psalms, one brief passage from Job, and another from Genesis. The second part, now in preparation, is to contain the "classical fragments and the non-literary documents, which are much more numerous."

In his 'Jacob at Bethel' (London: David Nutt), the second in a series of studies on Biblical subjects, Dr. A. Smythe Palmer argues that the ladder of Jacob at Bethel was a *ziggurat* or stage-tower, and connects the old Hebrew traditions of Bethel and its religious rites with Babylonian religious usages. The book is full of suggestive comparisons. It is a curious combination of conservatism and radicalism. One minute we are following the Biblical narrative with a literalness which would delight the most orthodox. The next minute we are, with ruthless radicalism, placing Hebrew traditions and Jewish uses on a plane with heathen rites and practices. The Stone at Bethel was a "menhir or standing-stone" of the same kind as "the Arabic *asnâm*, or rude blocks of stone worshipped as idols, and the Carthaginian deity, Abbadires (Aug. *Ep.* 44), said to be equivalent to *abaddir*, a baetylian stone (Hebrew, *eben'addir*, 'mighty stone . . .') analogous to the great stone chair of the ancient Irish king, Ollamh Fodhla (died 1277), still existing at Loughcrew, County Meath" (p. 124). The book is an essay in comparative religion, and is chiefly occupied with the discussion of stone worship, comparing the Hebrew use of sacred stones and the ideas connected with them with the worship of sacred stones in other regions.

To get a sober statement of the relation of Buddhism to Western civilization is not easy. The inquiring student who, unable himself to control the sources, asks for information, is told by the Christian specialist that all the parallels between the lives and teachings of Christ and Buddha either are coincidences, or show that Buddhism has borrowed from Christianity. Less orthodox scholars maintain, on the other hand, that the coincidences are too striking to bear the name, and that the borrowing has been from East to West. Arthur Lillie, whose 'Buddhism in Christendom' showed previously on which side he stood, has now contributed to the series of "The World's Epoch-Makers" (Charles Scribner's Sons) a similar volume, under the title 'Buddha and Buddhism.' After a biographical sketch and several specimens of Parables translated freely and commented upon in a popular manner, the author reviews the history of Buddhism. He holds that the council of Vesâlî is a "simple fiction" (p. 110), which enables him to draw the inference that, down to Açoka's time, third century B. C., no Buddhistic literature existed except that mentioned in the Edicts. So radical a view is scarcely for a hand-book, but should be the subject of a thorough essay. The author, however, is not careful to shun the expression of radical views. To him Christ was an Essene, the Essenes were Buddhists, and Christianity is Buddhism. But the reader may judge of Mr. Lillie's ability to prove this when he learns that the Asas, the Norse *haug*, and at least Balder in Scandinavian mythology are also Buddhistic, and that the religion of Mexico too is an offshoot from the same root, Xaca, the "Mexican Buddha," being "plausibly identified" by M. Paravey with Çâkya, Buddha's clan-name. No wonder Buddha is included among the world's epoch-makers. But there is a proverb, *ne quid nimis*, and the ease with which one can prove that all religions came from Buddha must make still questionable the "proof" as applied to any one in particular.

The 'American Jewish Year-Book' for the year 5661, just published by the Jewish Publication Society of America, Philadelphia, is more than double the size of the first issue. With it is incorporated the annual report of the society under whose auspices it appears. The record of the past year, a statement on "Judaism in France," by Rabbi Louis Lévy, and, above all, a statement of the origin in 1860, and the constant labors since then, of the "Alliance Israélite Universelle," by Jacques Bigart, must prove of value and interest to Jews, and will certainly widen the horizon and sympathies of all non-Jews. Among the new features in the book are lists of Jewish soldiers and sailors in the late war—if it can be said yet to be over—and biographical sketches of Jews who have served in Congress.

A new epigraphical journal has been started by Dr. Mark Lidzbarski (Giessen: Ricker), entitled *Ephemeris für Semitische Epigraphik*. The editor says in his announcement that scarcely a month passes without new discoveries in the field of Semitic epigraphy and the publication of new inscriptions, but the material is so scattered that it is difficult for the workers in that field to inform themselves of what is being done. The object of this journal is to impart all new finds and notice all new publications and articles. The new inscriptions in the first number of the journal, which seems, by the way, to be written from cover to cover by Dr. Lidzbarski himself, consist of some "old Semitic" seals and weights in the Ashmolean Museum at Oxford, and five Mandæan magical texts on clay bowls in the Berlin Museum and the Louvre. A good part of the space in this number is devoted to Carthaginian and Punic inscriptions already published, principally by Berger and Clermont-Ganneau. The most important of these, discussed at considerable length and with the assistance of facsimile reproductions, are a Carthaginian *ex-voto* to Ashtoret and Tanit, the longest and most complete yet found, and a Punic *tabella devotionis*, the first of the sort discovered. One very interesting article deals with two small Aramæan inscriptions from Cappadocia. These had already been noticed by Clermont-Ganneau, but Dr. Lidzbarski has procured new and apparently more accurate photographs and squeezes, and also fuller information as to their provenance. One, assigned by him to the 2d century B. C., reads in part thus: "*Dên-Mazdaianish*," that is, the Mazdæan religion, "spake thus: 'I am the wife of King Bel.' Then spake Bel thus to the Mazdæan Religion: 'Thou, my sister, art very wise, and more beautiful art thou than goddesses, and therefore have I made thee the wife of Bel.'" If the transcription which gives this translation be correct, we have here a written record of the amalgamation of two religions which is, to the best of our knowledge, unique. The other inscription is unintelligible, owing, apparently, to the fact that Aramæan letters have been used for the writing of some foreign language.

For many years the need has been felt by students of a new English-Danish dictionary. S. Rosing's work, which in its time met all ordinary needs, has long been antiquated in consequence of the unfortunate determination of its compiler that no changes should be made in it after his death. The only additions made to the sixth edition, published in 1887, were those found in Rosing's papers, and the seventh edition, published two years ago, is a reprint of the sixth. The appearance, therefore, this summer of the first instalment of an English-Danish dictionary under the editorship of J. Brynildsen and Johannes Magnussen, with the scheme of pronunciation by Prof. Otto Jespersen, could not fail to rouse general interest and satisfaction among Scandinavian students. Three parts have already been received, reaching the word *case*, and amounting to 114 two-column pages with sixty-eight lines to the column. Allowing for the difference in the contents of the pages, this is about twice the size of the corresponding portion of Rosing's work. This increase is in part the result of the careful treatment of the Norse element, which was not included by Rosing. But it is not merely in the number of the entries that the new work shows an advance. The mechanical makeup is perhaps the best that has yet appeared in a Danish international dictionary, the treatment of idioms is as nearly perfectly correct as can be expected from foreign observers, and the selection of words and illustrations shows, as a rule, rare discrimination. The modern character of many of the quotations deserves special commendation. The large number of proper names included is undoubtedly a valuable feature for Danish readers. In many cases biographical notes are added to the pronunciation and the Danish form. Some slight attention is given even to Americanisms, among which, however, should have been included "buggy," which is incorrectly rendered "gig, trille." The work, when it is completed, will be a worthy companion to the last edition of A. Larsen's Dano-Norwegian-English Dictionary, issued by the same publishers, the Gyldendals.

—The State Historical Society of Wisconsin, which first opened its Library Building on October 19, has had a unique career. Starting during the first session of the Legislature in 1849, its local habitation was till 1856 a corner in the old Capitol. Needing elbow room, it then removed with 1,050 books to the basement of a church, and remained there till 1867, when it brought its books, already over 20,000, into three halls prepared for it in the new Capitol. A dozen years afterward, its jewels having outgrown their caskets, Capitol extension was largely brought about in order to enshrine them in befitting settings. Within two decades its collections had become so ponderous that they threatened ruin to walls and floors; as well as too precious to be imperilled in a capitol which was far from fireproof. Accordingly, soon after the burning of Pennsylvanian rarities at Harrisburg, the State of Wisconsin set about rearing the structure just now completed. The new quarters, which have cost the State $575,000, the Society enters with more than 100,000 bound volumes, and about as many pamphlets, often more rare and of some historic value, with card catalogues of everything, even to the tiniest primer, and such a shelf arrangement that no particle can be hard to locate. The catalogue of its 10,000 newspaper files is of more than interstate reputation, having been found of national usefulness. The books are mainly stored in a wing (45x63 feet), reverted at right angles from the chief edifice. In all the six stories the stacks and shelves are iron. The façade of 200 feet has a central dodecastyle porch upward from the second story. Back of the porch is the reading-room (120x48 feet), with skylights and ceiling electric lights, and around the walls 180 shelves of reference books. Tables and chairs suffice for 240 readers, that is, two-thirds as many as the British Museum accommodates. Separated from the reading-room only by pillars are card catalogues and delivery counters.

—We lack the space for details concerning other features of a building which is, perhaps, the most costly that has ever been built under the name of an Historical Society. The name Historical, however, though legal and legislative, is partly a misnomer. In truth, the Library is not a complete building, still lacking a second wing to hold the books of the University, which now, numbering 50,000, find a temporary lodgment in the wing of the Historical Society. This Library Hall marks a new educational departure. It has been erected on ground furnished by the University. The accumulations of that institution and those of the Society clasp hands together under one roof. Thanks to this felicity of position, whatever the people, out of the abundance of their hearts, have bestowed on the Society as trustees is spread as daily food before their sons and daughters who here chiefly congregate for the bettering of their minds. The address delivered by Mr. Charles Francis Adams, at the dedication of the new building, on which we commented last week, will be published entire in the January number of the *American Historical Review*.

—The fifth volume of the series entitled "The World's Orators" (Putnams) is designed to illustrate, for English readers, the oratory of Continental Europe, from Mirabeau to Bismarck, France alone supplying fifteen out of the eighteen examples. There is little to be objected against the results of this selection from an enormous wealth of matter, save in the case of Victor Hugo, who is here represented only by the bad logic and gasping sensationalism of his speech against the death penalty. Nearly half of the volume is devoted to revolutionary speakers of various types and qualities; and the majority of readers will doubtless frankly admit that the almost vanished effervescence of such orations is not restored by indifferent translation. In this particular the work of editing appears to have been done *au galop*. Taking an example at random, we find the following markedly Gallicized sentence from Gambetta (p. 262): "Let us show to those who examine us our morality, our interior power, our might, and not, as has been shown up to now, the spectacle of dynastic quarrels or discussions concerning mere chimeras." Minor details betray here and there the same unreflecting haste. Did Sainte-Beuve not know how to spell his own name? In this work it appears at St. Beuve (p. 204). And we fail to find on the map of Italy a river not altogether unknown in the annals of history, here disguised as the Tessino (p. 167). An introductory essay discusses the form and changes of modern oratory, with occasional lapses, of which that art furnishes so many examples: "It was a saturnalia of death, and oratory was used but as the weapon by which to glut the maw of the guillotine, the Moloch of the time" (p. 15). "The orators of the day are sowing a whirlwind which they may reap in tears of blood" (p. 20). Has the spirit of Castlereagh been made reincarnate?

—'Historical Jurisprudence,' by Dr. Guy Carleton Lee (Macmillan), is an excellent, and for readers of English the only general, summary of the astonishing results achieved by that historical school of which Savigny and Hugo were the founders. Until recent years the Roman Law, being regarded as the only ancient system in which the growth of highly developed legal conceptions could be traced, has been the chief object of historical study; and thus, as Révillout complains, the *jus gentium* of the Prætors—Maine's "Roman Equity"—has far too generally passed for an original product of the legal genius of Rome. Dr. Lee's work reminds us that such notions are out of date. Before approaching the civil law of Rome, he surveys the far older legal systems of Babylonia, of Egypt, of Phœnicia, of Israel, of India, and of Greece, and shows us that these were in some respects highly elaborate, and that Rome had much to learn from them. For a knowledge of the ancient civil law of Egypt we have few materials, but as to the early law of Babylonia our information is now both varied and minute. To students like Oppert or Peiser, who can read the will of Sennacherib, or the group of original documents executed in Babylonia prior to the tenth century before Christ, the extant legal records of Rome must indeed seem absurdly juvenile. After a clear account of the growth and maturity of the Roman Law, Dr. Lee traces its influence down to the present day, as shown in the Canon Law, the Barbarian Codes, the early history of the law of England, and the Continental Codes. The book is accurate, as well as interesting. Its statements are at times over-positive, but this is scarcely avoidable in a work so condensed. Its usefulness for students is impaired by the omission of a bibliography, and by the meagreness of the footnotes. With these exceptions the form is on a par with the substance, though we cannot see why the adjective "Justinianean" should be docked of its last two syllables.

—"The early voyage of the Vikings to Vineland, as they named America, has illustration in a Runic epitaph cut in a rock on the Potomac: 'Here lies Syasi, the fair one of Western Iceland, the widow of Koldr, sister of Thorgr, by her father, aged twenty-five years. God be merciful to her.'" This statement, from p. 202 of Edward Clodd's 'Story of the Alphabet' (Appletons), would be very interesting if true. If by "story" one means "romance," the book is not inaptly entitled, except that it does not possess the literary qualities of ordinary fiction. Apparently the author crammed for his subject, and, if we may be pardoned the metaphor, vomited forth his material undigested. Small as the work is, a little more than 200 pages of primer size, much of it has absolutely nothing to do with the story of the alphabet. In one place the author rails against Egypt for having given to Christianity the Trinity, "mariolatry, and monasticism" (p. 143); in another, he spends pages in quotations from the 'Mimes' of Herodas and translations of the Logia from Oxyrhynchus. He seems to have filled up his pages with such miscellaneous scraps of information as he gathered in his "reading up," and as seemed capable of being lugged in under some pretence of connection with the subject assigned to him. We skip from country to country and rush from theme to theme, more or less generally connected with the story of writing, and particularly of the origin of writing signs, but the story of the alphabet is not told in this volume. Mr. Clodd did read, however, Taylor's 'History of the Alphabet,' and uses it freely. He does not accept Taylor's theory of the Egyptian origin of the alphabet, but reaches a happy compromise between all existing theories, thus: "The Phœnician alphabet was a compound from various sources, the selection and modification of the several characters being ruled by convenience, and that, primarily and essentially commercial" (p. 177). The book is part of a "Library of Useful Stories," but this particular "useful story" must be pronounced worse than useless.

—Horace is an author of perennial interest to every man of culture, and no civilized tongue is or ought to be without its continual contributions of literature inspired by his works. It does not follow, however, that labor in this field may not be misdirected and unprofitable. To make it profitable, its results either should have a literary value of their own, or should render new and important aid to our understanding and appreciation of the poet's work. Literary value certainly cannot be claimed for the 'Study in the Satires of Horace' put forth by A. Cartault, professor of Latin poetry in the University of Paris, and there is ample room for question as to its utility. It is no light task to read three hundred and sixty-five large pages of matter put together without any pretension to literary form, and we cannot discover that the author has made sufficient contributions to Horatian criticism to repay that task. His absolute exclusion of the Odes from his studies is not justified by his statement that the Odes were later and did not in any way condition the production of the Satires, for an author's later work will always throw much light upon his earlier efforts, no matter how far apart the two may be in time, purpose, or internal construction. And within the Satires themselves Professor Cartault's method is dry and mechanical in the extreme. The work appeals to no one not capable of reading the original text with comparative ease; and to any one who is so capable, at least half the "results" are obvious at sight except in their comparatively unimportant arithmetical aspects. One could not tell at sight, for instance, that there is one proper name, satirically employed, for every fifteen and two-thirds lines of the two books; and whatever it be worth to know this we may set down to the credit of the professor of Latin poetry in the University of Paris. But whether the professors in that university can best discharge their duty to the memory of the great writers of classical antiquity by furnishing such information, is another question.

HEREDITY AND HUMAN PROGRESS.

Heredity and Human Progress. By W. Duncan McKim, M.D., Ph.D. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Evil, in its various forms of incapacity, vice, and crime, has disturbed man from the beginning. Under primitive conditions, natural selection, the handicap of physiological weakness, kept down the physically incompetent, and the harm a feeble stock inflicts upon a community was minimized. Organized robber bands and unjust wars were the commoner sources of the greater crimes of violence, and glorified "the good old plan" for the control of property or the right of might. But these had their compensations. As society became more complex, and we may say refined, the offences against the individual and the community grew in variety and in degree, or were better recognized. Temptations and opportunities increased, and the willingness to yield to the one and to embrace the other outstripped them both. To reduce, if possible to abolish, these offences is a dominating problem of sociology. When they cease, a very great advance will have been made towards universal prosperity and general happiness. To maintain that such aims are Utopian, such a consummation impossible, begs the question, silences discussion, and terminates effort. No particular path may reach the mountain summit, but the nearer one approaches the top, the further he leaves below him the jungle at the base. To deny that a partial ascent is practicable, is the doctrine of despair.

It is axiomatic that, following the suppression of a cause, its consequences disappear. If, for example, the conditions leading to disease are destroyed, the disease itself must become non-existent. As a rule, the defectives or degenerates are the offspring of the physically or morally incomplete. Omniscience doubtless would account for every variation from the normal in one generation by some deviation in the progenitors; but with our limitations we say that some defectives are so by accident, where "accident" is only an expression to cover our ignorance of essential conditions. But given defectives, given degenerates, it is clear that wherever nature does not happily suppress reproduction, their progeny will inherit physical or moral vices. The spiritualist may object to the doctrine that moral vice is descendible, but one need not be philosophically a materialist, nor open the abstract theological problem of the origin of moral evil, if he points to everyday illustrations of depravity that correspond to, if they do not illustrate, ancestral traits. Two imbeciles, allowed to breed, generate idiocy. The habitual drunkard, either through the moral vice whose indulgence leads to physical changes in himself or by a preëxisting taint which partly shows itself in this pitiable state, projects into the second generation moral and physical evils without end. We have no space for illustrations, and cite those two classes as within every one's experience. The physical world is full of this influence in the inherited tendency to consumption, to cancer, to diseases of one class rather than of another. Not that the child of consumptive parents will die of consumption actually transmitted; but such a child is so weakened by predisposition as to be an easy victim when within range of the widespread cause. So with the offspring of vice; their tendencies are vicious, and usually these are followed. That the blood is bad is a common observation.

There are thus two types among civilized peoples: the normal or approximately normal, equipped with intelligence and the moral sense; and the abnormal, deficient in intellect, or with an incomplete conscience or none at all, or defective in both. As our emotional nature develops, pity and benevolence turn our feelings (and in a degree our judgment) towards those ill-equipped, in the hope of their relief and permanent rescue. From this very natural and proper desire for their melioration arises the doctrine that it is an imperative moral duty to assist the weak, to help the degraded, to maintain the helpless. The conception of this ideal is well expressed in a recent tribute to a distinguished modern philanthropist, the central conviction of whose life, which was in great part devoted to its demonstration, having been that "humanity has a claim to be honored and aided, even when its traits appear most abnormal and degraded." He sought "for the blind an education that could make him self-supporting; for the idiot, the training of his poor and maimed capabilities; for the insane and the criminal, the watchful and redemptive tutelage of society." As summed up, "in the world as he would have had it there should have been neither paupers nor outcasts." That is the common desire of economists and altruists alike: that there may be no pauperism and none uureclaimed.

Extremes meet in the desire to obtain such a consummation through the most opposite methods. Those who may be not unkindly designated the sentimental philanthropists devote themselves, directly or indirectly, to the reform of the vicious and the care of the physically afflicted. Dr. McKim, who may be regarded as an advanced utilitarian, discusses the question whether it is right to propagate the tainted and to foster or maintain the irreclaimably degenerate. This immediately raises the issue, Are there irreclaimable degenerates? If there are not, is not the world bound to redeem, or at least painfully to labor with, its base and degraded? There certainly are criminals for whom there is no earthly redemption. For instance, a man who had shot another was adjudged insane and was committed to an asylum for criminals. In the asylum he killed one man, and, after repeated efforts, indirectly caused the death of the Superintendent. His statement or argument on examination was: "I have previously killed a man, and am in this asylum," leaving the inference that the limit of punishment or of control had been reached, and that his irresponsibility exempted him from considering what he should or should not do. A criminal indicted for ninety-three burglaries was imprisoned under a life sentence. After trying to burn the prison, he was sent to a criminal asylum for the insane, and there he sought with great ingenuity to burn the place by multiple fires. Had he succeeded, great loss of life as well as of property must have resulted. It is a mere quibble to say that because these were insane they were not criminals. The moral element may be wanting, but the essential feature of crime, as distinguished from sin, was there. Perpetual vigilance alone prevents repeated outbreaks and the destruction of life and property.

By a nearly universal public sentiment the life of a murderer of sound mind is taken. He is executed as a preventive against the repetition of the crime by himself and as a deterrent against such offences by others, and in part at least as a punishment, notwithstanding that in theory the treatment is of the crime rather than of the criminal. A crime-maker will indefinitely extend crime by act and by example. If the spring is destroyed, the stream will not flow. Now, shall an irremediably insane criminal remain as a constant source of danger, requiring perpetual and costly vigilance for the protection of society and for the prolongation of his own life? Dr. McKim says no; and he advises the removal of such, not as punishment, nor for the effect upon others, but to relieve the community from expense and insecurity. This removal is not to be accompanied by pain, nor to be marked as a disgrace. It would be an euthanasia rendered necessary by misfortune and occurring in privacy. Accepting this disposal of the criminal insane, the logical sequence includes, in the interest of the race, the idiot, the imbecile, the congenital epileptic, the technically habitual drunkard, the habitual criminal, and the hopeless lunatic. There can be no doubt that were a clean sweep to be made of the defectives and degenerates, there would be greater hope for the elevation and the happiness of the survivors. The springs of life are continually poisoned by the admixture of strains physically vicious and morally depraved. The tendency through large groups is retrograde. It is not likely that any person of mature judgment knowingly tolerates for himself or his children alliance with one of those who commit the thousands of murders that yearly stain our records, with any of the weak-minded who are within or without our asylums, or with the profligate families, the minds and bodies of whose offspring are stamped with the stigmata of vice. He condemns and avoids them where possible. But the imperative instinct of reproduction finds somewhere, through the ignorant, the unwary, and the reckless, connections that maintain this private scourge and public peril. The community continues to suffer and to suffer in an increasing degree, as the resources of science preserve, at least for the time, the weak and the diseased to raise up new generations of doubtful vigor. So far does this spirit of short-sighted kind-heartedness prevail that, it is said, the lunacy law of one great State expressly provides for a patient, while still insane, to go home at stated periods to resume all his family relations. We know that with fatal regularity the prisons discharge upon the community their time-expired but unreformed inmates for fresh raids and renewed havoc. The wise may elude the direct influence of this corruption, but society cannot escape, nor can the individual avoid the direct contamination. Is it courageous or is it right for those who see the danger to permit the flood to continue rising without attempting to inhibit the fountains?

The alleged sacredness of human life will be urged against any proposition looking to death as a remedy. There has been, *however, little or no hesitation in the past in taking apparently* normal human life on account of infractions of rules of conduct, presumably for the direct good of the community, and not infrequently as an avowed punishment. The stake and the block of religious persecution have slain under the persuasion that such killing was not murder. To the Church life has not been as sacred as dogma. Eighty years ago English law attached the death penalty to numerous minor violations of the rights of property. Neither at home nor abroad even now is murder the sole occasion for which life may legally be taken. The fatal duel is recognized on the Continent, and under the euphemism of self-defence we exempt the surviving impromptu duellist. Both the sleeping sentinel and the deserter merit death by the just laws of war. War itself slays without hesitation and without remorse.

There is no instinctive refusal, certainly no insuperable objection, to take human life provided a real or a supposed need for the protection of society is recognized. The real question resolves itself into one of expediency. If it is believed that certain crimes can be suppressed only by the death penalty, that penalty will be prescribed although it may not always be inflicted. The point now raised is whether the evils flowing from degeneracy are sufficiently grave, whether the suffering they inflict upon society is sufficiently intense, to require this radical treatment. The suggestion at first jars harshly upon that charity and mercy which society constantly fosters, and which confuse the debased with the unfortunate as equal subjects for practical compassion. The real charity and the true mercy are those to be extended to the defenceless innocent for their protection from the ravages, one may say the compulsory and automatic ravages, of the physically, mentally, and morally diseased. General humanity is as an unguarded flock, the degenerates are as wolves in its midst, impelled by inexorable physical laws. Shall the wolves be exterminated, or should they be confined with the hope of ultimately breeding them into watch-dogs?

The problem is too serious for acceptance without debate, too far-reaching for rejection by an impulse. Dr. McKim has presented an appalling series of facts, and, although marshalling them for a special purpose, has not done so as an advocate, but rather as a judge. He has considered first the condition, then a method for its relief. There seems no logical objection to the absolute removal of those whose unsoundness is complete and irremediable, particularly when they are a public charge. Where the limit of possible reform may be marked is a subject for anxious investigation. It will not be found among those who, repeatedly convicted of grave crime, are released after definite terms instead of being detained under indeterminate sentences. Nor does it seem likely that life imprisonment, if carried out, with its almost inevitable resultant mental break-down, is more merciful or more effectual than the obliteration proposed. Dr. McKim does not recommend, even if legislation could at once be secured, that the next generation be presented with a *tabula rasa*, free from every constitutional imperfection of mind, of morals, or of body. But he does advise the serious consideration of the situation that confronts society to-day, and that an initial movement be made toward its melioration. In turn we commend the volume not to physicians as professional men, to whom the title in part may seem to appeal, but to all good citizens interested in human progress.

FRANCE SINCE 1814.

France since 1814. By Baron Pierre de Coubertin. Macmillan Company. 1900.

'France since 1814' is in no sense a narrative, and it seems even less a critical essay than a political profession of faith. To speak in a somewhat more limited way, it is a preface to 'The Evolution of France under the Third Republic,' which was published in 1896. We are not told this outright, but the relation is clearly marked. By considering the two books as a whole, Baron Coubertin's attitude towards the Republic and its predecessors can be understood without chance of mistake. Incidentally, too, many opinions regarding modern problems of government emerge.

We should not be justified were we to say that Baron Coubertin answers Mr. Bodley—the name of the latter is not once mentioned or alluded to. But the clash of opinion between the two writers is so great that the reader cannot avoid noticing a contrast which may or may not have been intended. For Mr. Bodley the Napoleonic institutions under which France lives are admirable. While she retains them, the country may with a degree of safety try what political experiments she will. The genius of the nation demands centralization, and, with that wisely secured, the politicians may play their game of libel and plunder without destroying the welfare of the public.

Against such an interpretation of French public life Baron Coubertin steadily protests, though quite as much by implication as by direct avowal. He denounces Bonapartism under all its forms. Wherever he has need to criticise the First Empire, it fares no better with him than the Second Empire fares with the ordinary historian. His worst charge against the Left under Louis XVIII. is, that it "prepared the way for all the revolutions to come" by reviving Bonapartism.

> "How, only a few years after the fall of the Empire, there arose that extraordinary legend which in the eyes of a large section of the French people transformed Napoleon into the champion of liberty and peace, is one of the most interesting psychological problems in history. Such an audacious fiction could have little hold on the generation which had known the Emperor. But the generation which followed was in a manner nursed in this fiction, and it stuck to it." "In their blindness the Liberals helped to mislead both themselves and public opinion by deafening the ears of France with their eternal panegyrics of the men and the institutions most directly hostile to liberty."

The same dislike of the Napoleonic spirit appears particularly in contrasts between the two Emperors, and in a statement of the danger which France runs from her system of administrative centralization. Thus: "As it was less tyrannical than that of Napoleon I., the Cæsarism of Napoleon III. took more time to exhaust itself." And: "The prestige of 'enlightened despotism' would have been still more damaged if contemporaries had been able to realize how far the two Napoleons had lived on the preceding régimes; the first Napoleon using the patrimony of the fallen monarchy as a tool for his genius, the other exhausting the finances of the restored monarchy for the satisfaction of his ambition." Finally, Baron Coubertin fears the advantage which the Socialists will gain in France from the inheritance of Napoleonic institutions.

> "The work of Napoleon was twofold. He tried to create a permanent political régime and failed. But at the same time he hedged French society around by a circle of administrative laws which have survived him; and though they are in open contradiction to the national tradition, for a century no later government has dared to touch them. . . . The work rests on a single unique principle, State tutelage. Agreed that the citizen is to be perpetually guided and superintended, it follows as a natural consequence that he is to be suspected. The whole system of French administration, embracing finance as well as education (for Napoleon assimilated the training of children to the collection of taxes), rests on this fundamental basis. It may be imagined what obstacles such an organization offers to progress."

England is partially protected from Socialism by the absence of centralization, Germany by the prestige of the Empire; but France, "in the hour of danger, will find itself confronted with two alternatives, either to abandon itself to the perilous chances of State Socialism, or to destroy an administrative system which must inevitably lead it there."

But if Baron Coubertin inveighs against the Napoleonic scheme of institutions, it is not from love of the First Republic in any of its forms. Mr. Bodley finds the chief merit of the Revolution in the brilliant series of pictures which it produced; and though Baron Coubertin would hardly agree with such a condemnation of its political purposes and methods, he has an abhorrence of the utopian ideals which the Revolution avowed and encouraged. He looks upon 1793 as a year when subtle poison entered into the constitution of the French people—the love of revolution, and the belief that a sudden regeneration of society is possible. The Jacobins of the Terror afterwards accepted Napoleon, strengthened him, and impressed his system with their baleful views. Until France, schooled by hard experience, has rejected both Jacobinism and Bonapartism, Baron Coubertin cannot believe that she has outlived the worst of the Revolution. He likes to contemplate "the reform of the *ancien régime*, wisely undertaken by Deputies distinguished for their talent and their good intentions, seconded, as it was, by Louis XVI. (a monarch, by the way, much misunderstood, who had given so many proofs of wisdom and goodness)." And from his closing aspiration we can see how fully he sympathizes with the Constitution of 1791: "If only the French people, made wise by experience, would cease to believe in radical expedients; if only—now that time has somewhat dulled the reverberation of the thunderstorm of 1793—if only they would conscientiously set to work to finish what they have so well begun!" Whatever in this century has sprung from the desire for measured and temperate reform is good, whatever has sprung from Jacobinism or its inverted form of Bonapartism is bad.

Starting out with these opinions of the Revolution and the First Empire, it is not strange that Baron Coubertin should see the best side of the restored Bourbons. For the wisdom and honesty of Louis XVIII. he shows the warmest respect, and, on behalf of Charles X., he says good things which have been usually overlooked. The victim of the July Revolution seldom receives much sympathy. As Comte d'Artois, his leadership of the *émigrés* in their unpatriotic attempt to secure foreign intervention is remembered against him. As Charles X., his grant of the milliard to the *émigrés* and his subservience to the Church have been a target for liberal historians. Baron Coubertin does not laud the last of the Bourbons—"His very ordinary character was supplemented by a very ordinary intellect"; but he recalls the fact that Charles X. possessed certain qualities which have always appealed to the French.

> "He was amiable; he was cheerful; his manner was a happy mixture of personal charm and kingly majesty. He was never at a loss for the apt or witty word, which is a sure passport to popular favor. In spite of his age, he had preserved the light build and the activity of youth, and when he showed himself on horseback at the head of his troops surrounded by a staff no less brilliant than himself. Charles X. was greeted with enthusiastic acclamations."

The Three Days of July have long since lost the deep meaning which contemporaries attached to them, but Baron Coubertin dims their significance still further by contending that Parliament, despite the ordinances of St. Cloud, did not wish the overthrow of Charles X. Casimir-Périer and Gen. Sébastiani had decided that there should be no disturbance, and the Government felt so confident that only sixteen men guarded the Hôtel de Ville. The plotting of Thiers and the complaisance of Louis Philippe upset a carelessly defended throne without proving the presence of extensive discontent. Baron Coubertin is not an *ultra*, but he has more sympathy for the Constitutional monarchy of the Bourbons than for the Government of the "Citizen-King," which had its root in a trickily managed revolution.

The July Monarchy and the Second Empire are large subjects when examined in detail, but each government ran through a course of evolution which can at least be indicated. Baron Coubertin is fond of marking chronological stages, and in the cases of both Louis Philippe and Napoleon III. he emphasizes critical moments which are fixed by changes of policy.

> 'For sixteen years Louis Philippe worked hard to become a king. He spent the first five years of his reign in trying to keep his seat in the arm-chair in which he had been seated in 1830, the latter eleven in an endeavor to raise the arm-chair and make a throne of it. He did not succeed in accomplishing this remarkable feat till 1846, two years before his fall."

So much for the first case. A corresponding division is made in the second.

> "From 1848 to 1856 Louis Napoleon, utilizing the forces accumulated by thirty-four years of Constitutional Monarchy, and further helped by circumstances eminently favorable to his career, rose to the most conspicuous and unexpected fortune. He spent the interval from 1856 to 1870 in exhausting these forces and squandering the advantages gained."

The chapters on the July Monarchy and the Second Empire are developed from these two ideas. When it comes to a question of mere legitimacy, Baron Coubertin speaks out for the *Coup d'Etat* and the plébiscites "It is as absurd to see in Louis Philippe the elected sovereign of the people as to refuse that title to Napoleon III."

Finally we must state Baron Coubertin's position toward the Second and Third Republics. In the downfall of Louis Philippe he detects an element of farce, inasmuch as the order to form a provisional government which the Deputies accepted, "came from the office of the *National*, a paper that could not reckon on three thousand subscribers." But with the civil war of June, following the collapse of the national workshops, it is different. "The more I study the annals of this century, the more I see that the revolution of June is what may be called a turning-point in the history of France." It not only meant the end of the truly Republican régime. "It meant the defeat of all the ends that the Liberal opposition had pursued under the Monarchy; it was the exciting excuse and the signal of a reaction which, like all violent movements, tended to overtake its object and lose itself in deplorable exaggeration." Furthermore, it was the legitimate outcome of utopian panaceas; and the fear of plunder which it provoked among the bourgeoisie established the cheap despotism of the Second Empire. Baron Coubertin detests the visionary and misleading promises of the Second Republic. He admires and supports the Third Republic because it has freed itself from such clap-trap. He sees in it a return to the parliamentary monarchy of 1815. Its institutions are "in all essentials those of which Louis XVIII. had laid down the lines in the famous Declaration of St. Ouen, their logical development in a Liberal and democratic form."

This is a book which must be examined from the standpoint of opinion rather than from that of fact, for Baron Coubertin uses historical data in the broadest manner. We have limited ourselves to an explanation of his leading principles, because a criticism of them would fill out an article for the *Quarterly Review*. From what we have said it will be seen that he is no friend of Cæsarism or of Socialist short-cuts to the Elysian Fields. One other feature of the volume is notable. Its ideas are very precise, and they find fit expression in perfect clearness of style. Most writers are intelligible, but few make a distinct impression upon the mind by virtue of well-modelled and restrained utterance. Baron Coubertin, using a foreign language, employs it more effectively than the majority of essayists whose mother tongue it is, and the disinterestedness of his tone is the more exemplary in that the subject involves political questions which are far from being dead.

MADE IN GERMANY.

William Shakespeare. **Prosody and Text: An Essay in Criticism, being an Introduction to a better editing and a more adequate appreciation of the Works of the Elizabethan Poets. By B. A. P. Van Dam, M.D., with the assistance of C. Stoffel [author of 'Studies in English']. Leyden: E. J. Brill; New York: Lemcke & Buechner. 1900.**

The statement on the first page of this book that "Innumerable corruptions which at various periods have been allowed to vitiate the text of Shakspere's works, are directly traceable to the somewhat surprising fact that all Shaksperian editors have been ignorant of nearly every rule of prosody," illustrates the point of view from which its authors approach their subject. Scattered through their work are numerous disparaging references to Shakspere editors more sweeping even than this. The Cambridge Text comes in for a large share of condemnation, and its editors are frequently charged with stupidity and ignorance. The authors persistently assume that English scholarship has been a sealed book to Englishmen, from Theobald to Wright, and claim with a vociferousness which rivals that of the Bacon enthusiast that they are opening for the first time the great treasure-house of Elizabethan English, despite the fact, which will be apparent to every Shakspere scholar, that much of their new material has appeared before in the work of editors and students of Shakspere. Indeed, the very first example they give of corruptions of modern text-criticism (p. 6) —"The textus receptus of M. of V. II., 5, 43, 'Will be worth a Jewess' eye,' simply originates in a mistake of Pope's. The oldest text rightly reads *Jewes*, the dissyllabic genitive of *Jew*"—is cited by Alexander Schmidt with a reference to other well-known syllabic genitives in Shakspere (Mids. II., 1, 7, *moones spere*, L. L. L. V., 2, 332, *whales bone*. Two Gent. I., 2, 137, *monthes mind*) in the beginning of his excellent paper on Shakspere text-criticism ('Gesammelte Abhandlungen,' p. 318), as an instance of how Shakspere editors do violence to Shakspere's English by transliterating it into modern English.

The book itself is a curious farrago of sense and nonsense, but it would be a mistake to condemn it out of hand because it shows in so many places a lack of good judgment and sound scholarship. It has its serious as well as its amusing side. Here are two—Dutchmen this time—who calmly offer to the English-speaking world an Introduction to a better editing and a more adequate appreciation of the works of the Elizabethan poets. One of the authors is an M.D., the other (it is to be hoped) a Ph.D.; both show evidence of a very thorough and detailed reading of Elizabethan literature, and an amount of painstaking work that ought to put American scholarship in English to the blush. But they also display an amount of stolid ignorance of the history and development of English speech that should provoke our impatience were it not so common among English-speaking people themselves. The thesis involved in their title, that Shakspere has not been fully understood and adequately appreciated by the people who speak the speech he wrote in, contains, alas! too many elements of truth. That is the serious side of it. Coupled with a statement which recently came from the University of Berlin, to the effect that Germans are in a better position to understand Shakspere than Englishmen and Americans are, for the reason that the German student possesses an adequate translation of Shakspere's English into the idiom he thinks with, while his English brother reads the plays in a transliteration that is hopelessly incorrect and inadequate, the thesis these two Dutchmen start out with deserves some attention. No one who has had anything to do with German scholars during the last quarter-century can have failed to be amused by their assumption of superior scholarship in English literature. Usually the assumption serves only to provoke a smile—the genuine English smile with which the English-born meet these Continental peculiarities. But sometimes it is irritating, especially when one feels that there is just enough truth in it to make a defence difficult. The question, then, which confronts us when we take up a book of this sort is, Why do not our American universities, with all their machinery for the making of scholars, accomplish more in the direction of sound and thorough scholarship in English? Why should our English scholarship be "made in Germany"? While the scholarship of this particular book is far below the average of German scholarship, and hails from Holland and not Germany, yet the work follows the German method, and the assumption which is found in the title and annoyingly runs all the way through the book is the common German one we are speaking of.

English scholarship in Shakspere has not been scientific in its method; it has forced Shakspere's writing into a strait jacket of modern English orthography. It has twisted his syntax into conformity with idiom three hundred years later than his, and it has "scanned" his verses into dilettante impeccability. It has done all this—a catalogue of heinous sins, surely. But who shall say the English heart has not loved Shakspere, and that the English mind has not appreciated him?

The mistake the German scholar often makes is that of thinking that the understanding of Shakspere is all a question of grammar. The mistake his English brother almost always makes is in thinking that it is all a question of feeling. But both are necessary—the one to help the other. It is not all knowledge, nor is it all appreciation, but appreciation based on knowledge. Indeed, we touch here on the whole question of adequate English training and the essential relation between grammar and literature. The fundamental defect of our present system is too little knowledge and too much feeling. Nor can we import the new method from Germany, else we shall fall into the other error of too much knowledge and too little feeling.

The latter point of view is well illustrated by this book; only the knowledge is of a very flimsy and superficial character (too flimsy and too superficial to deserve much attention), while the feeling is quite absent. Both weaknesses are well shown in the monstrous text of "The Tempest," I., i., which the authors offer us on pp. 323 ff. with such things as:

"*Mast.* Boåtswain!
"*Boats.* Here måster. Whåt [*sic*] cheer?
"*Mast.* Goód. Speak tó
The mariners. Fall to it; yarely, or
We run ourselves aground. Bestir, Bestir!
"(Exit)."

The way in which these lines of monstrous blank verse are manufactured shows a woful ignorance of the fundamental principles of English sentence-stress. Further on we have:

"*Boats.* D'ye not hear him? You mar our labour. Keep
Your cabins! 'Sblood! You do assist the storm"

—where the authors insert "S'blood" with the naïve note:

"'Sblood is not in the F. The gap in the blank verse, however, requires filling up, and when we learn from i. 35 that the 'Boson' is a 'blasphemous dog,' we think there can be no harm in putting somewhat stronger language on his lips than the rather tame phrase, *A plague*, in i. 30. Sebastian can hardly have objected to it, since he uses *A pox* himself. The logic of the context, therefore, requires at least one rattling oath from the boatswain's mouth, and there is exactly room for it in i. 10. And after the boatswain's *'Sblood*, Gonzalo's *be patient* fits in admirably."

And this is an "Introduction to a better editing" of Shakspere!

Yet the fundamental principle on which the work of the book depends, viz., that of illustrating the language of Shakspere from Elizabethan literature, is quite sound. The error lies in the unintelligent application of it, and in the very lack of a sufficient familiarity with Elizabethan literature to illustrate it. Of the bad taste shown in the book, and of its painfully foreign-bred style, a style in which vulgarity takes the place of simplicity, we will not speak. Such things are their own best refutation. The book has in it much that deserves attention, but its material will have to be constantly checked by careful scholarship. Indeed, the only antidote to this kind of foreign work lies in the development of sound English scholarship at home.

Some time ago the *Nation*, becoming aware of the fruitlessness and fatuity of the elementary English instruction given in our best schools and universities, endeavored to arouse those who have this matter in charge to a more lively sense of their responsibilities. Since then there has been some improvement in the more practical aspects of English training, the net result of it being that sophomores write better themes than they used to. But is this all? Are we to stop here? Are our advanced students still to go to Germany to get their scientific training in English? Are they always to follow the lead of German scholars, taking what is given them from Germany in humble thankfulness and respect? Is it too much to look forward to a time when Germans will come to America to study Chaucer and Shakspere? Can we not invigorate our English scholarship, and make it so pervasive of our educational system that its thoroughness, its sanity, its catholicity will be everywhere recognized.

The Germans have been quite right i criticising its superficiality—it has been all but the highest quarters superficial a pedantic. And as long as scientific Engl scholarship remains the pursuit of the l ter years of a few university courses to be polished off by a German Ph.D., it will continue to be pedantic and superficial. But has not the time come for a change? What greater task can our educational system set itself than this? What more practical direction can educational effort take than this one? What richer fruit can our training bear than this of an intimate understanding of the history of our modern forms of thinking and of the development of our literature? Such a work is not at issue with our present culture, it is complementary to it. And, moreover, it offers the best means of checking the narrow and utilitarian aims of much of the teaching of modern physical science—aims which are already beginning to work havoc with the higher ideals of education.

An American Commoner; The Life and Times of Richard Parkes Bland. A Study of the last quarter of the Nineteenth Century. With an Introduction by William Jennings Bryan, and Personal Reminiscences by Mrs. Richard Parkes Bland. William Vincent Byars, Editor. Columbia, Mo.: E. W. Stephens. 1900.

We have read this book with some curiosity, on account of the importance attached by many to the opinions and career of Mr. Bland—a career which nearly resulted in his nomination for the Presidency four years ago; but it is a disappointing production. The picture given of Mr. Bland is so lacking in intellectual individuality that we are forced to the conclusion that he had very little force or originality of mind, and attained his representative character partly through this defect. Partly, however, it was evidently through his having one characteristic extremely rare in these days, at any rate in public life—rigid pecuniary honesty. We have read the extracts from his speeches, which take up a quarter of the volume, without being able to find in them anything especially memorable, while most of what he had to say about the currency was pure nonsense; but in the chapters containing Mrs. Bland's reminiscences she mentions one or two little incidents which are worth all the rest of the book put together. Mr. Bland was one of the distinguished few to whom it is repugnant and repulsive to take money not honestly come by, and who prefer to suffer the pecuniary consequences of their own negligence rather than to shift them on to the shoulders of others. Thus, we find it mentioned that when the Sergeant-at-Arms of the House ran off with the public money, Mr. Bland, feeling that he was in a measure responsible for the loose manner in which the business of the Sergeant-at-Arms's office had been managed, refused to receive as his salary any more than his share of the cash actually left—thereby, though a poor man, subjecting himself to a heavy pecuniary fine. Again, in 1893, a motion was carried for "extra mileage" which Mr. Bland thought improper. He not only opposed it, but refused to take the money, though much in need of it. Presents he absolutely refused to receive. In fact, no Roman in the days of the early Republic was more sensitive in money matters than this poor Missouri farmer, keeping up, to the bewilderment of the rascally politicians about him, the tradition which still connects public with private virtue. It was this simple honesty which gave Mr. Bland his real hold upon his constituency, and this trait it is by virtue of which his admirers are entitled to claim for him respect and admiration.

His career, however, shows at the same time of how little use to the public this simple sort of honesty may be when the politician who is fortified by it is weak in other directions. Intellectually, Mr. Bland seems to have had a fair knowledge of Constitutional principles—his attitude towards Imperialism and Colonialism was intuitively correct—but his economical education was so imperfect that he was completely carried away by the free-silver craze, and lived and died under the delusion that the rich, through the demonetization of silver, had gained a control over the prices of commodities through which they ground down and tyrannized over the poor. His speech on "The Parting of the Ways," delivered in 1893 in protest against the bill for the repeal of the Sherman Law, is as great a farrago of absurdities as the human brain ever produced, though, granting the major delusion—that law can regulate prices through the standard of value—it is plausible enough. So that here we have the spectacle of a remarkably honest man advocating a recipe for making something out of nothing, in its effects radically dishonest and corrupting, and supported for twenty years in the position of leader in this movement chiefly by his well-earned reputation for pecuniary integrity. The case shows how ridiculous it is to suppose that all the sponsors of the free-silver delusion are knaves.

Mr. Bland's life was an uneventful one, and this book is really less a biography than an ambitious attempt to give the author's views of the development and tendencies of American government and society during the past twenty-five years. As a whole, it is almost unreadable; but to those interested in the natural history of political delusions—a branch of study which clearly receives far too little attention in our schools and colleges—it deserves notice. In it the admirers of Mr. Bland put before the public what they still conceive to be the spirit of the time—the democratic conviction and faith for the coming century—the hopes, beliefs, and faiths with which those who are waiting for our political shoes are filled. Some think this spirit to be that of Expansion; others that of free trade; others that of tenure by fitness; others that of Populism. To the author of this volume, the history of the last twenty-five years points to one thing only—"that the reality of American politics is the struggle for the control of government as a means of controlling the products of labor, either directly or by the control of the medium through which they are exchanged—of money, however issued."

As to the latter half of this alternative, which is as much of the truth as the readers of this volume are offered, the currency question is confessedly one of the realities of American politics; but if history proves anything, it proves that it cannot be settled by being thrown into the arena of party politics, because it is scientific and technical in character and therefore must be left to experts. In no country have any other than experts ever settled it, and until it is left to them here it will be for ever unsettled. Therefore the question is not, as the author seems to suppose, whether the American people want "16 to 1" or the gold standard, but, Will Democracy learn the lesson of the currency which kings and emperors have learned before it, and leave it to those who know; or will it insist on plunging the country into periodical panics in order to keep the standard of value a sort of "little joker" to juggle with in elections? This is a reality of American politics, and is part of a broader question—Will Democracy in the long run bring fit men to the front, or are those right who maintain that universal suffrage will in the end always put ignorance in power?

Now, curiously enough, the author of this book does not really blink this question, but answers it, *passim*, by maintaining—it might almost be said to be a thesis of the volume—that the idea that public matters should be decided or public work done by *fit* men, is a delusion. He speaks throughout with great contempt of what he calls the "Whig" theory of government, and laughs at Cleveland's lack of confidence in the ability of the "inexperienced masses" to "manage the finances of the Government" (p. 195). He says that the difficulty with Cleveland was that "his sympathies inclined him at all points to a government of experts and of the 'fit' [notice, reader, the derisive quotation marks], selected, not because they represented the rest, but because of demonstrated superiority manifested in ability to govern rather than to represent others." The equal right of every man to share in the Government at some stage is undoubtedly an essential part of the democratic theory; but, in this travesty of it, the author puts forward as Democratic an idea which, if it ever prevails, will speedily bring popular government itself to an end. It is a theory that a herd of buffaloes or a flock of wild geese would know better than to act upon—and yet it no doubt plays a great part in helping to propagate such crazes and delusions as that to which this book is dedicated.

Numbers and Losses in the Civil War in America. By Thomas L. Livermore. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1900.

Col. Livermore here offers a careful and thorough examination of the relative strength of the Union and Confederate armies throughout the war, through a laborious application of the theory of probabilities to the confused and uncertain figures of the Confederates with regard to nearly all their army statistics. Some one has characterized the difference between the workings of the Northern and Southern mind by saying that the Yankee "guesses," while in truth he reckons; but the Southerner "reckons," although in fact he guesses. Certainly the two sets of estimates of war numbers give some warrant to this description. The data by which the historian is to determine the numbers of the Union forces are abundant, and based upon principles of enumeration which are seldom capable of misconstruction. The forms of making returns in all departments of the Federal army were of long establishment, and the reports of most of the branches of the army, from companies to corps, were apt to be made with regularity in pursuance of the war regulations. In one feature, however, the Union returns often disturb the historian when he desires to know the actual combatants in battle, in that the phrase "present for duty" included all sorts of detailed men who were not all in the fighting ranks. Thus, the Union forces in actual battle were apt to be overestimated. The Confederate returns appear often to have been made upon individual principles of presenting the best possible showing for the command. The numbers engaged, and the results in killed and wounded, were represented as incredibly less than those of their adversaries; while in respect of those actually put *hors de combat*, the rule was, at an early period of the war, established by an order of Gen. Lee, not to report the slightly wounded, lest encouragement should be given to the enemy. This was perhaps good warfare, but it was bad for history, and it has helped to mislead ardent advocates of the Confederate cause as to the comparative valor of the opponents.

The downfall of the Confederate Government, and the consequent destruction of a multitude of valuable war documents, aided in the obscuration of the facts, and the truth of history could be determined only by the process which has been frequently applied by recent writers, and which Col. Livermore carries out in a highly interesting manner, of sifting a host of lesser reports, civil and military, and comparing the numbers acknowledged some time before a campaign with those returned under

END OF THE CLOSE SEASON FOR BOSSES.

From the day the nominations are made until the day the votes are cast and counted, it is against the law in the United States to hunt bosses. At any rate, their chase is suspended during that period as if it were illegal. The most enthusiastic and determined hunter of the *Boss Americanus* hangs up his rifle while the Presidential election is pending. Platt goes, for the time, unwhipped of the *Tribune*. Croker is courted and lauded and fooled to the top of his bent by the great ones of his party, from the candidate down. It is the close season for bosses, with none to molest or make them afraid.

The immunity which they enjoy for this brief period is not unnatural. It is the time when the American people resolves itself into a committee of the whole to solicit votes. No man's vote is despised. Strike, but vote for me, is the motto of every candidate, of all parties. The ballot, once in the box, does not smell of blood. How to get the larger number there is the sole question. And the boss, as presumably the mightiest vote-compeller, bulks large in party plans and hopes. Both parties, even while they hate him, consult and flatter him in this their hour of need. This is but human nature—political human nature. Besides, there is a reason in the nature of political effort why the bosses should, through this time of electoral intentness and absorption, be left unvexed. We cannot attack all questions at once. To insist upon solving all political problems at the same time has been said to be the political vice of the French people—the secret of the sterility of their political struggles, the failure of their Parliament. Our way is to divide and conquer. One at a time, We will attend to you later—are American political watchwords. It sometimes happens that the smaller vermin can be destroyed along with the larger; but usually we have to suffer the local and partial evil, even allowing it to increase, while devoting ourselves to the extirpation of the universal evil. But it is only a truce. Both Tammany and "Tom" will find that the peace without honor which they have known for six months past is a precarious and fleeting joy. Their close season ended on Tuesday. Directly the boss became again fair game, and the hunt will reopen with greater vigor than ever.

It must not be supposed, however, that the bosses have left these undisturbed months of theirs unimproved. While ostensibly working for their respective parties, they do not in reality abandon for one moment their great principle of working for their own pockets all the time. Who supposes that Platt is at all concerned for the reëlection of McKinley, except as it may result in strengthening his clutch on the Republican machine in this State? Who doubts that Croker's ostensible activity in Bryan's cause is only his way of masking his plans for his own pecuniary and political aggrandizement? What they are giving their time and strength to is not work for party, but for their personal machines. The plots they are incubating we shall see hatched and full-fledged now that the election is over. Just what they are, no man can now say; but that they will cause an outcry, both within and without their own parties, we have not a particle of doubt.

It is a part of their regular plan of operations to extract the most unexpected and astonishing "mandates" out of an election in which their side has been successful. The people of this city may think that they are voting in favor of one or another national policy; but they will soon learn from Platt and Croker what they really meant by their ballots. Platt's expected "mandate" is only foreshadowed dimly as yet. His oracles are usually dumb until after election. But he has let us see a part of what he will gravely assert the people intended him to do with the power they have intrusted to him. There will be, he has said, a State Constabulary Law if the Legislature is turned over to him bound and gagged. By a State Constabulary, Platt means the control of all the police force of all the cities in New York, under a State Commissioner named by the Governor—that is, by Platt. What a monstrous measure this would be, devised solely for building up a political machine, we need not now stop to argue. At present we merely point out that this is a part of the "mandate" which the McKinley voters were, all unwittingly, to give to Tom Platt. The remaining contents of the mandate will appear later, as it may be convenient for the boss to unfold them. As for Croker, his mandate is concealed from nobody. He merely asks for fourteen Congressmen to make him a power at Washington; all the Assemblymen and Senators from Greater New York to make him a dictator at Albany and throughout the State; and such a renewed hold on this city as will enable him to cry out, with Blücher, as he surveys the accumulated wealth of New York, "Was für *Plunder!*"

One thing, however, the boss never learns by experience. That is, that his corrupt intrigues never gain respectability by an apparent victory at the polls, and that his personality remains as odious in triumph as it is contemptible in defeat. So if Platt and Croker have surprises in store for us after election, we also have the old surprise awaiting them. They will find that they are not autocrats. Revolt will spring up against their tyranny even in their own party organizations. "If the fleas were of one mind, they would have us out of bed." This was the saying with which a veteran English Parliamentarian used to comfort himself. Rascals cannot hold together. Already the signs of disruption in Tammany are visible and threatening. Many of Platt's victims are writhing ominously. The war against both is certain to be resumed with new intensity and implacability. So let them not dwell in a fool's paradise, or think that the public estimation of their character and doings will be reversed by the election. Henry George's avowed purpose, if elected Mayor, to clap both of them in jail, will never cease to be a pious desire with the right-minded.

THREATENED NAVAL INCREASE.

President Hadley's statement that American Imperialism began with the construction of battle-ships some ten years ago, has attracted no little attention from the press. As with individuals, so with nations, it is often enough the first step which costs. We have, in these columns, maintained from the first that the possession of a large modern navy would carry with it the strongest kind of temptation to use it at the expense of weaker nations, and we see nothing in the events of the last two years to cause us to change our opinions. We are glad to observe that such influential independent journals as the Boston *Herald* and the Philadelphia *Ledger*, and Republican newspapers like the Philadelphia *Bulletin*, are not afraid to ask whether it is not time to call a halt in the acquiring of war-ships, now that the growth of the navy has reached the size demanded by those who believe in the necessity of a strong fleet for defence.

The modernization of the United States navy began in 1883, since which time it has grown with great rapidity. Up to that year it had consisted of some twenty-five or thirty wooden cruisers left over from the Civil War, apparently quite sufficient for the patrolling of the seas, the safe-guarding of Americans in China and elsewhere, the protection of American interests during South and Central American revolutions, the destroying of derelicts, and the mapping of the coasts and sea-bottom. It does not appear that the prestige or honor of the country or the safety of American citizens abroad suffered in any way during the years 1866 to 1885—the era of a small navy. In 1884 the personnel allowed by law consisted of some 1,425 active officers, 7,500 men, and 750 boys. In 1896 the enlisted men and boys numbered 10,000, and by 1900 the figures had risen to 21,560 officers and men, the Marine Corps having meanwhile grown to 6,000. During the war of 1898 the laws were disregarded, and nearly 8,000 more men were enlisted than had been authorized by Congress. In 1884 the cry was that ginning, definitely projected a swift advance to the Hex River Pass and to Durban, is fully contradicted by the later information that it was only the strict orders of Kruger and Joubert, the Boer leaders, which restrained a younger and more aggressive element from making those expeditions. He also errs, as do most writers from the English standpoint, in an overestimate of Boer numbers, Boer system, and Boer efficiency.

The narrative covers the operations of the earlier days in Natal, the contest in the northern part of Cape Colony and the southern area of the Free State, and practically ends with the occupation of Bloemfontein by the British. The sieges of Kimberley and Ladysmith, and the battle of Paardeberg with the surrender of Cronje, are recounted in full and graphic detail. The subsequent movements, from May 2 onward, including the occupation of Johannesburg and Pretoria, are dismissed in brief paragraphs upon the last page. Capt. Mahan's narrative would have possessed a greater historical value had it been presented in an independent volume with the story brought down to, at least, the fall of Pretoria. The work suffers from the lack of a suitable index to both text and pictures, yet, in the field which it is evidently intended to cover, it is of both interest and value.

Conversations with Prince Bismarck. Collected by Heinrich von Poschinger. Edited by Sidney Whitman. Harper & Brothers. 1900.

Men of action are sometimes supposed to be chary of their words, but Bismarck certainly was never reticent in conversation. He talked almost as much as Luther—or as Lasker. Accordingly, we need not feel surprised whenever a fresh volume of his *Tischreden* or of his political "interviews" appears. The quality may vary, but the supply is large. In speaking thus, we do not mean to imply that Mr. Whitman's selection from the large anthologies of Herr von Poschinger is a poor one, or that he has not drawn from a good source. English readers know most about Bismarck's public and private character from the writings of Moritz Busch, but Herr von Poschinger is even more voluminous, and he has had a freedom of access to state papers which neither Busch nor any other biographer of Bismarck has enjoyed. His collections have become extremely large—so large, indeed, as to be unwieldy. Mr. Whitman's idea of culling the best conversations is justified, and he has been well guided in the matter of choice. At first sight the volume may seem to be of loose texture and mixed quality, for some of the conversations are with kings and some with reporters. But the design is doubtless to show the Chancellor under as many guises as possible. While little of the contents is wholly new, the fragments of which the book is composed have been so widely scattered that few persons can have met with them all either in newspapers or in memoirs.

The most obvious feature of the conversations here collected is that they contain a mass of Bismarck's *obiter dicta*, and one cannot help raising the question, "Are these opinions to be taken seriously?" Bismarck poured forth a flood of words to all sorts of people; and without a close knowledge of his character one would find great difficulty in distinguishing between what represents his real convictions and what was improvised at the moment. Mr. Whitman touches this subject in the preface, and refers the reader to the authority of Herr von Poschinger:

> "If it may excite surprise that, among the material here presented to the reader, there should be included interviews with journalists, accounts of promiscuous conversations which Bismarck held with friend and foe, it must be remembered that these have been deemed by a thoroughly competent judge to be not only authoritative sources of information, but also to deserve a permanent place among the records of the life of the maker of modern Germany. This test of authority is their hall-mark."

Mr. Whitman is quite entitled to call Herr von Poschinger an expert witness, and, if he considers that Bismarck revealed the true workings of his mind to "outsiders," the opinion must carry great weight. Otherwise we should feel bound to emphasize some words of Bismarck to Anton Memminger, the editor of the *Neue Bayerische Landeszeitung*, in a conversation at Kissingen, August 16, 1890:

> "To-day I still derive pleasure from conversation with this man, to-morrow with that, especially since I am no longer compelled to wear a muzzle. I have been a Minister for many years, and, as such, was forced to be silent about many things; but that has all changed, and now I am free to say what I please, because I am no longer forced to remain silent by binding considerations. And why should I, of all people, not talk?"

Toward the end of his life, Bismarck said, when put on diet by his doctor: "Two things have afforded me especial pleasure in life—politics and wine. Politics I may not touch any more, and now Schweninger has forbidden wine." This saying illustrates the character of the conversations brought together by Mr. Whitman from the collections of Herr von Poschinger. They deal with politics, and, if not with wine alone, with the free social intercourse for which wine stands. Occasionally, an abstract question arises for Bismarck to settle, as, in a conversation with Bluntschli (April, 1868), where he maintains "that nations bear a resemblance to Nature. Some are masculine [*e. g.*, the Germans], others are feminine [*e. g.*, the Slavs and Celts], etc." But the staple of his talk is either some practical matter of statecraft or the good story which comes to his lips whenever he is not out of humor. Herr von Poschinger has been candid. He gives the celebrated scene with Thiers and Jules Favre in all its brutality. "I will hear nothing more about it: bring an interpreter with you to-morrow; I will not speak French any more!" Nor does he try to cloak the garrulity of Bismarck when out of office. He reveals few fresh traits, but illustrates strikingly those with which the world is familiar. He shows Bismarck masterful, but spontaneous and devoted to the glory of his race; an unflinching statesman, but also a hearty German 'squire.

Prehistoric Implements. By Warren K. Moorehead [assisted by nine editors]. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke Co. 1900. Pp. 431.

Considerably above the average "treadmill" or "curio-archæology," Mr. Moorehead's 'Prehistoric Implements' must after all be classed with these sciolisms. It certainly is in no wise scientific, though here and there in its amplitude the shrewdness of field experience has welcome utterance. Hasty, uncoördinated, inadequate; unfulfilled even in its scrambling "plan" (if it may fairly be said to have one); of ignominious English and execrable proofreading—it is a painful example of the confidence with which too many books are made. Not one of its fourteen "sections" is adequate; and those on Ohio, California, and the Southwest are at least incompetent. A grisly table of errata covers three pages, but does not seine more than a tithe of the misprints—and is itself populous with blunders. "Squire" and "Squeir" (for Squier), "Lewis and Clarke," Band*i*lier," "Grinell," "J. B. Brower" and "Mr. Bower" (J. V. Brower), "Stewart" and "Stuart" Culin indiscriminately, "Metatte," "archæology" half the time with the ligature and half the time without, and on occasion "archaelogy"—these are fairly indicative of the orthographies here rife.

Without going into esoteric details, which could hardly be handled within our space, a reasonable measure of the scientific stature of the book may be had on p. 193:

> "The Spaniards under the adventurer De Soto experienced this [the violence of Indian arrows] to their sorrow. Their armor was pierced by these small points. . . . At the battle of Manilla [*sic*] two hundred Spaniards were killed; of the remaining living one hundred and fifty received seven hundred wounds. Cabeca de Vaca, a Spanish writer, who accompanied this unfortunate expedition, tells us," etc.

Perhaps for "De Soto" we should read "Dewey"—the former died some centuries too soon for "the battle of Manilla"; and "Cabeca" de Vaca accompanied "Cousin George" quite as far as he did De Soto. Or possibly Mr. Moorehead refers to De Soto's battle of Mauvila (Mobile). Therein and thereby eighty-two Spaniards perished, according to the roseate Garcilaso de la Vega, upon rumor of whom the text seems to depend; and the wounds that needed a surgeon were "mil, setecientas, setenta y tantas." Herrera says the slain and mortally wounded were eighty-three. Both explicitly explain the method of this mortality. Seeing the Spaniards otherwise "bien armados," the Indians aimed at their uncovered eyes and mouths; and there the execution was done. Deliberate purpose could hardly have surpassed the quantity and quality of the blunderings in these seven lines of "history." Of errors nearer home, an endorsement of the rather notorious "Stone Idols of New Mexico," and an unwinking attribution of tobacco to prehistoric California and the continent in general, are fairly exemplary. The editorial "puff" in the body of the book (p. 175) for one of the advertisers in its after-leaves, who has a collection to sell, is merely a matter of taste.

More than 600 illustrations (on the average fairly satisfactory) picture some 3,000 specimens. Many of these are rare and choice; and there are enough of them to be of summary value if they were adequately correlated, defined, and identified.

Our Forests and Woodlands. By John Nisbet. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 1900.

To the rapidly increasing number of those who take an interest in trees and in tree

States of taking account of gold found by individual prospectors. If they have any reason for concealing their gains, they cannot be forced to disclose them. Many Chinese laborers who have worked over old and abandoned diggings or have washed in river beds where the returns are too small to tempt white laborers, have gone back to their own country, taking their gold dust with them, of which no report has been made. This process is still going on in both the United States and Canada.

The supply of gold in the immediate future will come from the places which now furnish the largest output, the Witwatersrand of South Africa, Cripple Creek, Colorado, the various Australian deposits, the Klondike, Alaska, and Siberia. There are still large placer deposits in California, formerly worked by hydraulic apparatus, whose operation has been suspended or crippled by the difficulty of impounding the tailings or detritus, which was formerly allowed to flow into the river-beds and thence over the adjoining land, to the ruin of agriculture. The receipts from the Klondike have risen to $16,000,000 the present year, and from Cape Nome and other Alaskan points to upward of $2,000,000. The whole amount from the North is likely to be increased to $20,000,000 before the close of the season.

The reasons for the increased production of recent years are new discoveries of ore beds, new mining and metallurgical inventions, and better facilities of transportation. The decline in the price of silver and its demonetization have turned the attention of the mining fraternity, to a considerable extent, from that metal and stimulated the hunt for gold. There is not the least reason to suppose that we have come to the end of great finds of the metal or of new inventions for extracting it. There are probably just as extensive and just as rich deposits in the world, yet untouched, as those of the Comstock, the Transvaal, Cripple Creek, the Klondike, and West Australia. The financial and industrial crisis due to a shortage of the yellow metal, so confidently predicted by Professor Suess and others a few years ago, is so far distant that nobody need borrow trouble over it.

RICH MEN AND DEMOCRACY.

I have been reading with much interest Goldwin Smith's pamphlet entitled 'Commonwealth or Empire,' reprinted by the Anti-Imperialist League from the Toronto *Globe*. I was particularly struck by what he says of the growing alliance between the English Tories and the American multi-millionaires, and the resulting attempt to give a popular endorsement to the policy of a "chocolate éclair" like McKinley, to use Roosevelt's phrase. But I must remind Professor Smith that the growth of the illionaire class in America, and its were fore- De Tocqueville, in his 'Démocratie en Amérique.' As I am writing at a distance from my books, I am unable to recall his exact words, but he points out, at considerable length, the tendency in all democracies, and particularly in the American Democracy, for the rich and energetic and successful to seek to escape from the common mass by setting up little organizations, or clubs, composed of persons who are or think themselves distinguished. This tendency began to show itself after the end of the civil war, in 1865, by the formation of such organizations as "The Sons of the Revolution," "The Society of Colonial Wars," "The Colonial Dames," "The Daughters of the Revolution," "The Society of Mayflower Descendants," "The United Order of Pilgrim Fathers," "The St. Nicholas Society of New York," "The Holland Society of New York," and "The Huguenot Society of America." I suppose the first suggestion of these things came from the "Cincinnati," although the "Cincinnati" was gravely disapproved of by some of the best men in the country, after the Revolution.

Tocqueville points out the extreme improbability that the rich men, in any democracy based on equality, will be long content to share the common lot. In a money-making community, the rich and the energetic would be sure to accumulate large fortunes, and would consequently very soon begin to look upon themselves as a class apart, entitled to be "exclusive." This prediction began to be fulfilled very soon after the civil war. Owing to the immense natural resources of the country, and the tremendous and inexpensive additions made to the population by immigration from Europe, Northerners at least began to grow rich, hand over hand. Fortunes such as Europe had never seen in any rank began to abound among American business men. At first there was a ludicrous difficulty in spending these fortunes, but it soon passed away. Just at the same time, the new engines made the passage of the Atlantic so quick that a trip to Europe, which used to take place only once in a lifetime, became a summer excursion, and the making of it became a sign, in every American village, that a man had succeeded in life. The result of this was a great increase of social intercourse between the wealthy classes of both countries, and a complete change in English feeling toward America. Americans in England, from being looked on with dislike and contempt, became great favorites in English society, and welcome at all the great English houses, for Englishmen like "the smell of money." All their faults were eagerly overlooked in view of their wealth, admiration of which was greatly increased by the astounding size of American fortunes, and there was a rush of American heiresses to marry English titles. There was one bitter drop in the American cup, however, and that was that we had no coaling stations, no colonies, no subject races; in short, that we were not a "world Power." There was deep humiliation over this, in London ball-rooms and at dinner-tables, and our rich men determined to put an end to it. Washington and Jefferson we became a little ashamed of, and the Declaration of Independence became, as in the days of slavery, a mass of "glittering generalities."

In order to inaugurate the new republic, syndicate of rich men selected a candidate for President that would suit them, who had no convictions of his own; paid his debts, and got him ready for the office; and were successful under the pretence of danger to the finances. He answered the purpose admirably. He "put his ear to the ground," treated the Constitution as a dead letter, annexed large provinces on the other side of the globe, appointed a full line of viceroys and warriors of his own choosing, doctored their communications with home, treated subject races as vermin, and very soon enabled our wealthy men to hold up their heads as a "world Power" in England, and put an end to all nonsense about freedom and equal rights. If their movement should succeed in getting endorsement at the approaching election, I believe it will be the most skilful conversion of a republic into an empire of the many that have taken place.

Every republic runs its greatest risk not so much from discontented soldiers as from discontented multi-millionaires. They are very rarely, if ever, content with a position of equality, and the larger the population which is said to be equal with them, the less content they are. Their natural desire is to be a class apart, and if they cannot have titles at home, they wish to be received as equals by titled people abroad. That is exactly our present position, and would be the end of the American dream. All past republics have been overthrown by rich men, or nobles, and we have plenty of Sons of the Revolution ready for the job, and plenty of successful soldiers deriding the Constitution, unrebuked by the Executive or by public opinion. To make matters worse, the universities have largely followed the multi-millionaires, and a tap on the shoulder, a flattering word, or a free trip round the world, is enough to make many a college president swallow his own words, and preach doctrines of devils to the young men and to the world. This fact has been strongly and ably commented on by President Pritchett, a notable exception, in his inaugural address at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology in Boston the other day. In fact, there has not been a more complete abandonment of the cause of the plain people, by the rich and the learned, in modern times. I care little for either the Democratic or the Republican party, but I am concerned for the perpetuity of the American commonwealth, and for "the good old cause" everywhere, "the cause for which Sidney died on the scaffold, and Hampden died on the field," to use the language of a distinguished Englishman; a "cause ever dear to the wisest, the bravest, and the best, unfelt and abandoned only by the recreant and the vile."

E. L. G.

THE PARLIAMENTARY ELECTION IN ENGLAND.

AN ENGLISH VIEW.

OXFORD, October 23, 1900.

The general election is over; its resul are as well known at New York as in Lo don. With these I will not trouble the re ers of the *Nation*, nor have I the le intention of dwelling on the personal or the merely party aspects of a struggle w leaves behind it, even among the suppo of Lord Salisbury's Government, an im sion of dreariness. What I should like

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 8, 1900.

The Week.

If each man of intelligence and discernment who voted on November 6 were asked what issue it was that gave victory again to the Republican party by such decisive majorities, he would say that it was the fear of business disturbance in case Mr. Bryan should be elected. Whether such fears were well founded or not, whether they were prompted by the threat of free coinage at 16 to 1 or by the spectacle of Mr. Bryan as an ogre attacking the foundations of society generally—that was the decisive influence which controlled the great mass of doubtful voters. Time after time has it been proved that there are enough men unfettered by party allegiance to turn the scales in any election. This was shown in the campaigns of 1884 and 1892, when the Democrats put forward a candidate who commanded the confidence of business men. The result proved in both instances that when they planted themselves on such sure foundations, they had at least an equal chance of carrying the country. They had the same chance this year. It is idle to speculate what would have been the result if they had nominated Richard Olney, or Charles S. Fairchild, or some man of that stamp. It is sufficient to say that they would not have been beaten at the start. With such a candidate they would have been gaining, instead of losing, votes all the time, and would have been in better heart from day to day. The Republicans never could have organized the Sound-Money parade against such a candidate. All business men would have felt the same confidence in either contingency.

The most significant feature of Tuesday's election is the terrible rebuke to Bryanism which has been administered by the States between the Alleghanies and the Pacific. In New York and New England, McKinley majorities have fallen off notably from those of 1896, largely owing to the fact that four years ago the old Democratic organization in this part of the country was practically disrupted by the action of the Chicago convention, whereas since then a new one has been built up which took measures to get voters to the polls. In 1896 Tammany here and the McLaughlin machine in Brooklyn only "went through the motions" of a canvass, while this year both have made a real fight. In Connecticut four years ago the Democrats were in utter despair; this fall they were hopeful of electing their candidate for Governor, and thousands who stayed at home before, voted the whole party ticket on Tuesday. But west of New York, save as the exceptional conditions in Chicago reduced the Republican plurality in Illinois, Bryanism has shown itself far weaker in 1900 than in 1896. The McKinley pluralities have increased in the Middle West; States beyond, like Kansas and South Dakota, which supported Bryan the first time, have rejected him the second; the Bryan pluralities have fallen off tremendously in all the silver States; and the Pacific Coast is emphatically against the Democratic-Populist candidate.

The comparatively small plurality for Bryan in the Borough of Manhattan is a sharp rebuke for Croker. When one remembers that the old city of New York gave the Democratic candidate for President more than 76,000 plurality in 1892, and that a vigorous campaign was made for the Democratic-Populist nominee this year, the fact that Bryan has received less than 30,000 plurality, against the 85,000 which Croker was claiming just before election, must impress even the Tammany boss. Still more impressive in some aspects is the evidence that the Democratic candidate for Governor has suffered severely from having owed his nomination to Croker. Odell runs behind McKinley, of course, because tens of thousands of Democrats voted for the Republican electors, but such Democrats should have supported their party's candidate for Governor if he had not been objectionable. The fact that Odell does not run so far behind McKinley in 1900 as Black did in 1896, proves that many Democrats decided to rebuke Croker for his refusal of the nomination to Coler by voting against a Democrat who was objectionable only because he had lent himself to this scheme.

"McKinley's reëlection will end the war in the Philippines." This has been the burden of endless Republican speeches and soldiers' letters. Col. Roosevelt himself has assured us, with painful iteration, that the Democratic party and Mr. Bryan are alone responsible for the continuance of the fighting, and has asked our ballots on the ground that to vote otherwise is to strengthen the hands of the "rebels." Meanwhile we hear from no less distinguished a statesman than Mr. Perry S. Heath, recently Assistant Postmaster-General, and during the late campaign in charge of the Republican National Committee's "literary bureau," that Col. Roosevelt and all the leading Republican speakers and newspapers have wholly misled us. On the strength of a notice published in the Madrid organ of the Filipino junta, Mr. Heath asserts that the Philippine Assembly has resolved to surrender its arms the instant it hears of Mr. Bryan's election, in order to demonstrate that its forces are not fighting against the North American republic, but against the Imperialists. "However, if unfortunately Mr. McKinley should be reëlected," this manifesto goes on, "the war will be continued for four years . . . unless he should meanwhile recognize our independence." Naturally Mr. Heath sees the hand of Mr. Bryan and the Democrats in all this. "It most assuredly shows the alliance between the Filipinos and the Bryan leaders," he told the reporters, adding that his literary bureau would give this document a "very wide circulation." To the intelligent reader, the whole incident is an illuminating example of the extremities the Republicans have been driven to, in their vain efforts to cover up their complete and melancholy failure in the Philippines, and to suppress the truth as to the situation in the islands.

Still another competent foreigner has just given striking testimony as to the completeness of this failure. Mr. de Bérard, the French consul at Manila, has made an official report to his Government, in which he confirms the views of John Foreman and others that the situation of the Filipinos is worse than it was under the Spaniards. Not only has the splendid future predicted by the Americans in 1898 not come to pass, but agriculture is paralyzed, and such industries as have not been ruined cannot now be pursued. The great mercantile houses, M. de Bérard reports, have been unable to transact any business for a year, the tariff regulations weigh more heavily than ever, and the country is "overrun by a band of adventurers who have come to exploit the people." Europeans should not establish themselves except at Manila, Cebu, and Iloilo; other places are unsafe. But to console intending traders, M. de Bérard says that in eighteen months' rivalry for the commerce of the Philippines the Americans "have not yet succeeded in conquering the ground which they expected to capture almost entirely without difficulty." In sending this report to the editor of the Indianapolis *Sentinel*, M. Valary, a French publicist, writes that he sees no way out of the Philippine muddle for the United States except a treaty of peace on the basis of a protectorate, without any political obligations on the part of the Filipinos, who should, however, give special trade rights to the Americans. This, he thinks, would not detract in any way from American prestige and honor. In the light of these revelations, how pitiful are Mr. Heath's return of some few of the old and some few of the new is to many a surprise and disappointment, and little to the credit of the constituencies that selected and returned them. In one instance the selection so patently outraged all decency that the Central Election Committee insisted upon the substitution of another name. Mr. Redmond's own estimate is perhaps on the whole fair: "No doubt there may have been some mistakes. In the election of eighty-two members by democratic methods . . . it is perhaps inevitable that some mistakes should occur. My own belief, however, is there were very few—far fewer than occurred in the old days when candidates were sent down from headquarters." It none the less takes some robustness of political experience and some clearness of political insight to accept, as for the best upon the whole, many of the selections. The old puzzlement of choice between "measures" and "men" has often been present with us. Are unworthy instruments who will vote as we consider right upon great questions, to be preferred to instruments more worthy for the settlement of details, who will vote wrong on great questions? (Happily at Westminster there is little or no danger of injury accruing to public interests by monetary corruption.) If only unworthy instruments are in some electoral divisions available or selected, can those principles be right that repel men of a different character? And would it be safe to extend the circle of responsibilities in a community where a proportion of weak and, in a few cases, unworthy representatives are put forward? The answer to such questionings is to be found in the history and experiences of Ireland. Her social and political condition is abnormal. "Culture and respectability" have played too little part in forwarding and obtaining those great reforms which all now acknowledged to have been necessary and to redound to the stability of the state. "Culture and respectability" are in Ireland more than ever before taking their part in sympathetic efforts for the good of the people. Until their convictions of what is best politically are accepted by the people at large, until the people draw them to their side, or until there is an interfusion of sentiment. the position of affairs in these respects will continue out of joint. And then again, in Ireland outward appearance and manner and bearing count for too little, and in England for too much.

Upon the other hand, there has, within the last few months, been displayed upon our political stage much that is of best augury for the future. Seldom has there been shown greater individual self-abnegation. John Dillon, the undoubted choice as leader, if the wishes of the majority only were to be considered, has slaved to strengthen the prestige and position of John Redmond, his former opponent. Many a candidate rejected by a convention has turned to the support of more successful compeers. Many a widow's mite has been cast into the treasury.

As between Parnellite and anti-Parnellite, the fusion appears complete. The contest (and it has in a few constituencies been bitter) within the National ranks has been een those who desire unity of action Healy. The former policy; whatever may be his intentions, the carrying out of his plans could not end otherwise than in the disintegration of the Irish representation. Perhaps despairing of the accomplishment of Home Rule, he has sought the practical good of Ireland in the breakdown of agitation and the nationalizing of the Government as it stands by manning the executive of the country with Catholics and "Nationalists." He relied mainly on clerical influence. The monetary harvest the Church has garnered through these years of political stagnation little inclines many of its members to desire a return to days when funds would inevitably revert into political channels. The Irish are sincerely religious and intensely Catholic. They will not be otherwise, at least in our era. In these elections they have shown themselves as well inclined as any other people to draw a line between the degree of allegiance they owe to their clergy in regard to mundane affairs and those of the world to come.

In relation to the all but annihilation of the Healy party in Parliament, we are afforded singular proof of the incapacity of many English journalists to understand Irish affairs. Amazement is expressed why such men as Arthur O'Connor, Maurice Healy, and T. D. Sullivan, who all voted Home Rule, and who are all educated and refined gentlemen, ornaments to the House, useful members of committees, have been rejected, and men like —— and —— and —— returned. Simply and solely because Ireland has learned by bitter experience that the individual respectability of her representatives has availed her little in the past, that a united party is her only chance, and that such men as those above named were opposed to united action.

As premonitory of the United League movement and the return of a united party hardening into an agitation likely to be seriously embarrassing to the Government, nothing has struck me as more ominous than the speeches made by Mr. T. W. Russell, a prominent Unionist, Parliamentary Secretary to the English Local Government Board, in his election campaign in North Tyrone. Two or three years ago, when the last Land Act was passed, he came over to his constituents and told them openly they should consider it as final and should make the best of it. The British Government would never consent to further interference between the relations of landlord and tenant in Ireland. Now, to retain his seat by the votes of Presbyterian farmers, he has been compelled to proclaim that the present relations of landlord and tenant are intolerable, and that the compulsory expropriation of the landlords upon fair terms is essential to the prosperity of the country. Politicians of Mr. Russell's stamp and thousands besides believe that continued unrest in Ireland is attributable alone to the want of a radical settlement of the agrarian question. It must appear strange to outsiders that a people who can so lightly squander £100,000,000 on a war in South Africa should shrink from spending a like sum on eradicating the ever-festering thorn of Irish discontent.

How much is the regenerated Irish party likely to effect at Westminster? Mr. Redmond, its responsible head, believes "there is a great future" before it. D. B.

Correspondence.

A PARALLEL NEARER HOME.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Republicans and others who uphold President McKinley's policy in the Philippines, have frequently called all those who protest against it "traitors," "aiders and abettors of rebellion," and "unworthy the name of Americans." In response to these charges the case of Lord Chatham has been cited, who, in the House of Lords, justified and defended our forefathers in their rebellion against English rule, and has received nothing but honor for it ever since.

But there is another parallel which, while equally in point, seems to me to have been overlooked. I mean the denunciations of slavery by that very Republican party which would now, if it could, smother the voice of just indignation. A servile insurrection at the South was by no means an imaginary danger, and, had it been produced, would have been fraught with unspeakable horrors. But were the Republicans any the more quiet on that account? It is the chief glory of the party to-day that they would not be silenced. They hammered on the one string that slavery was wrong, wrong, wrong, until the whole nation resounded.

To look on this picture and then on that makes one wish he had died young. E. D.

Grand Rapids, Mich., November 1, 1900.

PAPYRUS OF ANOTHER GREEK WRITER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The explorers and translators of the Graeco-Roman Branch of our Egypt Exploration Fund have come upon an interesting papyrus, in their collection from the Fayum, which proves to be none other than the famous romance, by Chariton, entitled 'The Loves of Chæreas and Callirrhoë.' A facsimile of at least a portion of this Greek romance from an Egyptian tomb will appear in our coming volume. A Latin version was first published at Amsterdam, in 1750, from a manuscript preserved at Florence. The date of Chariton has been uncertain, and the dictionaries have assumed that he flourished not earlier than the fifth century A. D.

This papyrus, fragmentary as it is, was found together with documents dated in the reigns of Commodus and Caracalla; and the handwriting agrees with this, being not later than the second century A. D. Now, if Chariton was so famous as to be read in a village of the Fayum during the second century, it naturally follows that his book had been written at a much earlier period.

The text, too, tends to confirm the authority of the Florentine text of the thirteenth century; and the general result ma be said to prove that the copies of th classics made at Byzantium—perhaps a tho sand years after Greek literature had a pla in Western Europe—were of a remarkab uncorrupted text.

William Copley Winslo

525 Beacon St., Boston,
October 29, 1900.

VALES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Entirely do I concur in all th

Sir Robert Giffen brought out in a recent address some striking facts about civilized "expansion," past and to come, as against that expansion among savage peoples in which, we are told, lies our only future hope. A century ago the population of European countries and nations of European origin was not more than 170,000,000. To-day it is 500,000,000. If the forces which have brought about this great increase persist for a hundred years, our descendants will see a civilized population of 1,500,000,000 or more. In view of such an outlook, what becomes of the "Yellow Peril"? It will have vanished by mere force of numbers. And what a growing possibility of new markets we shall have at our own doors, as this peaceful expansion goes on! We are compassing sea and land and violating all our traditions and principles to find new customers among black and yellow races, when the doubling and quadrupling of demand from advanced races is going on before our eyes.

The most valuable part of the letters of Dr. Morrison, the Pekin correspondent of the London *Times*, is that in which he gives extracts from the official publications of the Chinese Government during the siege of the Embassy. About these there can be no mistake. Dr. Morrison may be prejudiced in his opinions; it would be strange if a man could be wholly without bias against people who had been shooting at him for forty days. Sir Robert Hart's extreme pessimism about the future of China may, similarly, be a result in part of having been under fire and on short rations for so long. But what appeared in the official *Gazette* of the Government is the *litera scripta* which remains beyond dispute, and it is indeed a terrible exhibition of the duplicity and treachery of the responsible authorities at Pekin. After reading them, no one can doubt that it was the deliberate purpose of the Dowager Empress, or whoever was in supreme control, to expel or kill all foreigners, and to give native Christians the alternative of recantation or death. Direct encouragement of the Boxers is shown. Baron von Ketteler was murdered on June 20, but no official cognizance of the crime was taken until July 18. On that day an imperial decree recited the killing, and said: "Suddenly meeting this affair caused us deep grief. We ought vigorously to seek the murderer and punish him." A very late repentance, and a tardy resolve which, it is needless to say, was never carried out. Perhaps the finest example of a Chinese state paper is the decree published on August 2 (the relieving forces in sight). It spoke of the "disturbances" in and about the capital, and proceeded: "It was a duty to protect the envoys of the foreign states residing at Pekin, and the Princes and Ministers of the Tsungli-Yamen addressed frequent letters to them, inquiring after their welfare." These letters may have been enclosed in the bombshells which the Princes and Ministers also frequently addressed to the envoys.

The reports of German brutalities in China, which continue to appear from day to day, are not surprising in view of the Emperor's bloodthirsty speeches and Germany's record as a colonizing Power. Only the other day Lieut. Prince Prosper von Arenberg was resentenced to fifteen years' imprisonment in a fortress for the peculiarly atrocious murder of a halfbreed in German South Africa on the suspicion that he was an English spy. Nor is this an exceptional case. One after another, Germany's officials in her oldest colony have come home to be punished more or less lightly for inconceivably cruel crimes committed upon native men and women. Reports from Kiao-Chou do not indicate a much more sympathetic treatment of the Chinese who have come under German rule against their will. The truth is, that the magnificent German army is a machine built up on blind obedience and brute force. It is practically impossible to punish a cruel officer unless he commits murder, and their complete power over their men leads to inevitable moral deterioration on the part of the officers. The whole spirit of the army—of militarism at its height—is a menace to the development of the people along lines of civilization and humanity, and its results alone are a fearful price to pay for the satisfaction of having a better army than some other nation. When officials trained in this school are placed in authority over the bodies and souls of dark-skinned peoples thousands of miles from the social, legal, and moral restraints of the Fatherland, there is only one outcome to be expected.

Aside from the need of shortening sail, which a man at Lord Salisbury's age must feel, there is an excellent reason, in the nature of the case, why he should no longer unite in his own person the two offices of Foreign Secretary and Premier. Too much power of too momentous a character is put thereby into the hands of a single man. A Foreign Secretary is bound to consult the Prime Minister; but this has been, with Salisbury, merely letting his left hand know what his right hand doeth. There remains, of course, the sovereign, without whose consent not even the Premier would venture on any far-reaching measure of foreign policy. Queen Victoria has always taken a keen interest in foreign affairs. When the inner history of her reign comes to be written, it will be found, we believe, that her opinion and influence in many a crisis have been decisive. Just what part she played in averting war between France and Germany in 1875 is not known, but it was a great one. The Queen, however, is now aged, and necessarily unable to follow the details of foreign complications with her former attention and judgment. Thus it has come about that the most important questions touching the relations of Great Britain to other countries have practically been left for one brain to decide. Salisbury may consult his Cabinet, or may not. His reference of affairs to the Queen is more and more perfunctory. It is his single hand which has held all the threads. This is a dangerous power for any man to wield under a Constitutional Government, and Lord Salisbury is wise in surrendering it. Of course, as Premier, he will really retain control of British foreign policy. The Marquis of Lansdowne, the new Foreign Secretary, will submit all major matters to the Prime Minister, who will thus rid himself of the dust and drudgery of the Foreign Office without, however, divesting himself of the right of ultimate decision.

Lord Salisbury's service at the Foreign Office has been long and varied. When he first took the position in 1878, resigning the office of Secretary of State for India, Lord Lytton wrote him from Calcutta, "I feel sure you are destined to be one of England's greatest Foreign Ministers." This might have passed at the time for the language of flattery. Lytton's style scarcely needed an Oriental touch to make it exuberant. But the prophecy does not seem so far wrong when we look back at it after twenty-two years. Salisbury's first period of Russophobe activity is, indeed, rather melancholy in the retrospect. He himself has frankly confessed that England "laid her money on the wrong horse" in all that business. But he was the man who told her how to lay it. In recent years, however, particularly during his latest term of office, he has some particularly brilliant and at the same time beneficent achievements to point to. His old friend the Turk thwarted him in the Armenian affair, and it will always be a blot upon his reputation that he gave Chamberlain so free and reckless a hand in the South African dispute; but, when all is said, Salisbury's agreement with France and Germany in all that respects the future of Africa, his better understanding with Russia in the Orient, crowned only now by the Anglo-German agreement concerning China, show diplomacy at its highest and best. In none of these far-sighted arrangements has Lord Salisbury been a Jingo, or a raw-head-and-bloody-bones Englishman. He has, in fact, repeatedly spoiled the plans of the Forwards and the Fighters of his own party. He has labored for peace and the future, and, in so far, has been of the number of statesmen whose work will abide and be their best memorial.

tinized none of these for the proof-reading, which, in the Temple Matthew Arnold, we remember to have left much to be desired. So, *caveat emptor*.

Last of the kind to be instanced to-day is the Century Co.'s 'Rab and his Friends' (plus 'Our Dogs'), by Dr. John Brown, with a portrait and an introduction by Andrew Lang, which for length was quite necessary to give thickness to the volume. Mr. Lang thinks Dr. Brown's popularity to have been probably greater in this country than in his own. For wear and simple elegance we give the palm to the buff embossed binding of this American series.

Why people will read Pierre Loti on the South Seas with that better book 'Typee' unread, while 'Moby Dick,' the best sea epic since the Odyssey, and, in spite of obvious defects of style, a book with genius enough in it to last out a lifetime of the average romancer, has never had but a handful of readers—is a mystery. Melville has always had the suffrages of the judicious; the publishers, Dana Estes & Co., now show a commendable courage in claiming for him the favor of the general public by reprinting his sea stories. The four volumes include, besides the two mentioned, 'Omoo' and 'White Jacket.' The publishers might perhaps have done better to rest the case for Melville on 'Moby Dick' and 'Typee,' for the other books show more of his defects and fewer of his qualities. The volumes, which, with no distinction of mechanical form, are convenient and legible enough, are, we judge, reprinted from the plates of an edition of 1892.

Charles Scribner's Sons send us the thirteenth revised edition of Baedeker's 'Northern Germany' and the twelfth of 'London and its Environs,' the latter with a detachable index of streets of London, exactly fitted for the pocket, with convenient sectional plans of the metropolis. It is enough to announce the latest renovation of these standard guides.

We cannot put Mr. Guy Wetmore Carryl's alliterative experiment with 'Mother Goose for Grown-Ups' (Harpers) quite on a par with his 'Fables for the Frivolous.' Coming first, it would abundantly have proved Mr. Carryl's title to be an original humorist, but in parts, to use his own expression, we "note that the quality's sometimes strained." The "moral," at least, is generally ingenious and mirth-provoking as heretofore. "Bow and hold your peace," he says in "The Mysterious Misapprehension concerning a Man in our Town"; "Like Omar, underneath the bow You'll find there's paradise enow!" This particular "melody," by the way, exhibits the carelessness in proof-reading which diminishes the book's attractiveness. Peter Newell and Gustave Verbeek furnish the illustrations to Mr. Carryl's nonsense.

With indefatigable ardor Mr. J. G. Kitton persists in presenting to the world and commenting upon every fragment that can reasonably be ascribed to the pen of Dickens. In 'The Minor Writings of Charles Dickens' (A. C. Armstrong) there is doubtless much information, especially with regard to rare editions, that will interest Dickens collectors. But the truth is, that Dickens wrote an amazing lot of worthless stuff by way of *working off* his superabundant energies. It

he prefers to leave unclaimed. To wade through the entire set of nineteen volumes of *Household Words* in order to identify "the Chief's" casual contributions, appears to us a very questionable labor of love. We have lately seen the same well-meaning attentions paid to the unsigned work of Thackeray. Even in his case, the results were not altogether happy, and Dickens is the last man to stand such a test. This is Mr. Kitton's fourth volume on what we may call the minor antiquities of Dickens. Yet the absurdly low prices quoted in his bibliographies for first editions of the fugitive writings of Dickens would seem to indicate that his interest in the subject is shared by few.

Under the title 'A Royal Rhetorician' (Brentano), Mr. R. S. Rait reprints, with an introduction and notes, some writings of James I. The Bishop of Winchester's edition of King James's works, published in 1616, contains 600 pages, but Mr. Rait has drawn very moderately upon this enormous supply. The pieces which he selects are the 'Treatise on Scottis Poesie,' the 'Counterblaste to Tobacco,' a number of sonnets, and a few psalms. Their intrinsic value is small, but they have a certain interest, as showing how James's singular mind worked, and how a man who was educated by George Buchanan used the Scottish and English tongues. Some readers may find a certain amount of amusement in glancing through the conclusion of the 'Counterblaste to Tobacco.' "Have you not reason, then, to bee ashamed, and to forbeare this filthie noveltie, so basely grounded, so foolishly received, and so grossely mistaken in the right use thereof? In your abuse thereof, sinning against God, harming yourselves, both in persons and goods, and raking also thereby the markes and notes of vanitie upon you: by the custome thereof making yourselves to be wondered at by all forraine civil Nations, and by all strangers that come among you, to be scorned and contemned. A custome lothsome to the eye, hatefull to the Nose, harmfull to the braine, dangerous to the Lungs, and in the black, stinking fume thereof, neerest resembling the horrible Stigian smoke of the pit that is bottomelesse."

Of Mr. J. Robertson-Scott's admirable dollar hand-book, 'The People of China: Their Country, History, Life, Ideas, and Relations to the Foreigner' (Methuen & Co.), we must speak with praise, despite its limitations. The author, a journalist, has never been in China, but has read well the literature of his subject. He has packed within 200 pages just that kind of information which an intelligent newspaper-reader would be likely to seek from a friend who had lived in the Far East. His view is wholly that of an Englishman, who, however, tries to be perfectly fair to the Chinese, strenuously endeavoring to give their point of view. He devotes three chapters to the history of China—From Confucius to Lord McCartney, Great Britain and China, and the General Scramble. To "The Chinaman" he gives four chapters, telling how he is governed and educated, and what are his characteristics and beliefs. Under the head of "The Foreign Devil," he discusses the Jesus religion, opium, and the British sphere of influence. Glancing at the future, shows China unconscious of decay, yet in the pangs of reform. An appendix gives some scanty biographical items concerning leading men in China, a short glossary, a note on the best books about China, and a good map. The latter is worth almost the price of the volume. It shows especially the invasion of the Far East by the railway engineers, and what in Japan, Korea, India, Siberia, and the Chinese Empire are the real and the proposed railways.

Mr. George T. Tobin's six illustrations of FitzGerald are the pretext for the "Omar Khayyám Calendar" issued by Frederick A. Stokes Co. on as many sheets fastened by a riband. They cannot be praised for imagination or art, but the thick-and-thin admirer of the verse will be content with them.

The principal contents of the *Geographical Journal* for October are Prof. A. C. Haddon's account of the geographical distribution in British New Guinea of the various forms of houses, canoes, weapons, pottery, and decorative art, with numerous illustrations and maps, and Mr. Borchgrevink's description of the *Southern Cross* expedition to the Antarctic. This is the story of an attempt to overcome the difficulties presented to exploration by the precipitous height of the land, the innumerable glaciers traversed by deep yawning crevasses, the cold, and the frequency and force of the gales. "Nothing more appalling than these frightful winds, accompanied by tons of drift-snow from the mountains above, can be imagined. On ninety-two days, or 26 per cent. of the time spent at Cape Adare, the wind blew from the east-southeast and southeast with a velocity above forty miles an hour, and on one or two occasions above ninety miles an hour." There is also a summary of the work of the geographical section of the British Association, and the Presidential address of Sir G. S. Robertson on the diminution of time-distance between the different parts of the world through electricity and steam, and its "bearing upon the British Empire."

An account of Mantchuria by E. Bretschneider, in *Petermann's Mitteilungen*, No. 9, gives the leading facts in its history and relations to Russia. The statement is made that the Mantchus are disappearing under the influx of the Chinese, and the time is probably not far distant when their language will cease to be spoken, as all the children are taught Chinese. A study of the various forms of culture in the islands of the Pacific, by L. Frobenius, is accompanied by a series of maps showing the distribution of the different kinds of weapons, dwellings, boats, and certain industries.

In Formosa, despite the bad politics that have disturbed and disgraced the Japanese administration, solid progress has been made in educational matters, especially with the savage Formosan. Several years ago Mr. Azawa Shuki and other pioneers attempted to train some of the native boys and girls, and there are now sixteen public schools established in various parts of the island. It is from the graduates from these schools that students have been selected fo a Normal School, so that the spread of edu cation may be fostered. At the prese time about 1,200 native pupils attend t Government schools, and gradually the F mosans are being induced to study Japanese language. The intellectual st of the mountain savage is very low. has the greatest difficulty in counting, cannot perform the simplest arithm calculation. When two persons ar there were not enough ships for the men. In 1900 there are not nearly enough crews for all the vessels built or building, despite the doubling of the navy's quota, and there is a loud demand for more, which is expected to make itself felt in Congress this winter. During this period the appropriations have grown in still greater proportion, as is shown by the following table:

1884	$15,980,437 80	1893	$23,013,752 56
1885	9,242,496 82	1894	20,779,407 08
1886	21,689,759 39	1895	24,679,914 41
1887	17,053,780 59	1896	28,236,956 02
1888	23,925,483 79	1897	29,836,066 46
1889	19,553,438 82	1898	32,574,082 43
1890	22,456,113 48	1899	107,816,468 06
1891	24,015,586 19	1900	41,892,707 43
1892	31,427,544 94	1901	55,623,422 30

In the same period there were added to the navy list seven battle-ships and forty-five monitors, cruisers, and gunboats, as well as nineteen torpedo-boats. Furthermore, the war with Spain led to the purchase and retention of about thirty vessels which were converted into cruisers and gunboats, and sixty or more colliers, supply ships, and tugs, while twenty-four more war-ships of all sizes, from the *Reina Mercedes* of 3,090 tons, to the little *Sandoval* of 100 tons, were captured or purchased from Spain. In addition to this great increase, there are at the present day under construction or authorized by Congress eleven battle-ships, six armored cruisers, nine protected cruisers, four monitors, and thirty-eight torpedo-boats and destroyers.

To the average citizen who has the fear of foreign invasion at heart, it might well seem that this force would suffice to prevent European armies from landing on our shores, and European navies from capturing our towns, particularly if the vast system of army coast defences be taken into consideration. Upon the construction of harbor forts and batteries many millions have been spent since 1889, and, while the end is certainly not yet in sight, Secretary Root has already asked for 18,000 men as the minimum force required in time of peace to man and care for the guns already in place.

But the Naval Board of Construction is by no means content with all this. On the ground, it is said, that the American navy must equal in size the fleet now planned by the German Emperor, the Board calls for the construction of three battle-ships, three armored cruisers, and perhaps twelve or more gunboats. This is merely a fraction of the increase to be authorized by Congress in 1901. It might have been greater, but we are informed that the construction of these ships will tax the capacity of our shipyards to the uttermost. For this reason the Navy Board may have been magnanimously moderate in contenting itself with rivalling Germany. Perhaps in the course of the next two or three years, if public sentiment is not aroused against further increase, we shall learn that we must surpass Japan or Russia. Nor must the fact be overlooked that our new insular possessions furnish a reason for lavish expenditure as being a great source of military weakness to us. Hawaii, the Philippines, and Porto Rico are now used as arguments for more ships, naval stations, and coast defences by some of the same men who, but the other day, declared that outlying points thousands of miles beyond our coasts were necessary for the protection of our harbors and cities and a source of strength.

It is plain that the time has come for the American people to discuss soberly and earnestly the question of our future naval policy, and to decide whether we are to assume the crushing burdens of a huge navy. Those who believe that the smallest possible fleet consistent with defence is the true American limit, will agree with the Philadelphia *Ledger* that the policy of running a race with Germany, France, or England is "sheer folly and dangerous folly," and "an excuse for saddling the country with war taxes." Those who believe that anything which makes for war is a step backward in civilization, should not fail to protest, in season and out of season, against any further expenditure for military or naval purposes. They can meet any charge of lack of patriotism by replying in the words spoken by William Everett in Congress in 1895, that "the United States is too great, too noble, too modern to sink herself to the level of the military nations of the ancient world." He spoke but the truth when he said that the true American enemy lies in our great cities, and that our first duty is to "train, to educate, to guard, to raise, to assimilate" their population.

THE FUTURE GOLD SUPPLY.

Although there has been much discussion of the Gold Standard in the present campaign, hardly anything has been said about the present or future supply of that metal. In the controversies of previous years, one of the arguments most stoutly insisted upon, and no doubt honestly maintained, was that the world's supply of gold was insufficient, and that the decline in the prices of commodities which had been continuous since 1873, was due to a shortage of metallic money consequent upon the demonetization of silver. Professor Suess of the University of Vienna affirmed, upon geological grounds, that the world was nearing the end of its gold resources, that the South African supply would soon be exhausted, and that then we should be in the presence of a financial and industrial crisis of great magnitude. When the German Government was considering the question of calling a new Monetary Conference, it invited Dr. Suess to Berlin to give the reasons for his opinion in detail, which he did.

This inquiry took place in 1894. Six years have passed since the learned professor gave his testimony, which, by the way, was eagerly welcomed on this side of the water and was put in active service in the campaign of 1896. And what have we witnessed since 1894? The world's gold production in that year was $181,175,600. Four years later (1898) it had risen to $287,428,600. The annual product had increased more than $100,000,000 in that short space of time, and nearly all the increase had come from veins in rock formation having the promise of more or less permanence—differing in that respect from the placer mines of California, Australia, and Siberia, which gave such a remarkable output about the middle of this century.

Prof. J. S. Newberry, a most competent authority, writing twenty years ago, said that fully nine-tenths of all the gold possessed by mankind had come from placer deposits. At the present time, much the larger share of gold produced comes from veins in which gold is held in a matrix of quartz, or in combination with other substances from which it is separated by chemical means. In other words, the production of gold has been revolutionized within comparatively few years. The means for its extraction from the earth have been improved in as great ratio as the means for making steel rails, building fast steamships, printing newspapers, propelling street cars, or doing any other thing by modern machinery. We not only have got a larger supply of material to work on than ever before, but have a vastly improved apparatus to work with. The results are correspondingly great. The highest rate of yearly production in the fifties, when the California and Australian placers were at their maximum, was $134,000,000, or less than half the annual output at present.

The largest gold-producing countries in 1898 were:

Africa	$80,428,000	Mexico	$8,500,000
Australia	64,860,800	India	7,781,500
United States	64,463,000	All other	22,093,200
Russia	25,463,400		
Canada	13,838,700	Total	$287,428,600

The production of the States and Territories of the United States for the same year was:

Colorado	$23,195,300	Arizona	$2,465,100
California	15,637,000	Utah	2,285,400
So. Dakota	5,699,700	All other	4,534,300
Montana	5,126,900		
Nevada	2,994,500	Total	$64,463,000
Alaska	2,524,800		

It is the opinion of the best judges that the statistics of gold production fall considerably short of the truth, because much gold is brought out of the ground that escapes any kind of record. The amount stolen in mills and sold clandestinely is estimated at 10 per cent. in the Transvaal. In Siberia, where a tax is imposed on gold mining and where there are abundant facilities for smuggling it across the Chinese frontier, the amount that escapes the statistician is estimated at 20 per cent. There is no means in the United nobility, and hated Suvaroff only less than she did the Russian Government. The Countess describes a visit to Paris in 1810 very fully; otherwise, the action centres in Poland. Prior to 1806, her family interests were paramount, but when the war of the Third Coalition brought the French to Warsaw, she came in contact with Napoleon and his staff. After the Grand Duchy of Warsaw had crumbled, she witnessed the return of the Russians. The last episode of the volume is the marriage of the Grand Duke Constantine. The rank of the Countess Potocka brought her the acquaintance of the French and Russian aristocracy, but did not altogether protect her from insult. She had the liveliness of the Polish nobles, and she knew how to communicate it to her memoirs. A passage describing her girlish views about marriage will show the general quality of her style: "My mind and heart were, I cannot say exactly how, swelled with a sort of juvenile exaltation, nourished by the perusal of the great poets whom it had been impossible to keep from me. I wanted heroes like Racine's, or knights like Tancred. Mighty passions were my need, instantaneous affections, great and sublime deeds! I waited! But as I finally perceived that neither Britannicus nor Gonzalvo of Cordova presented himself, and that not even a meeting with Grandison was likely, I made up my mind to descend from the clouds, and sorrowfully reflected that I should be obliged to end by marrying, like everybody else, under the guidance of reason and expediency."

—Hoepli of Milan has undertaken to produce, in a series of volumes, a history of Italy which shall be scientific in spirit while popular in form. The task is not an easy one, for nowhere else is to be found so complicated and multitudinous a series of events, resulting from so many diverse forces working through the evolution of antagonistic institutions. If the enterprise is carried to a successful issue, it will prove most serviceable, for as yet the reader may look in vain for a comprehensive and intelligible account of the vicissitudes through which Italy has passed since the fall of Rome, and of the influences which have made it what it is and have enabled it to impress itself so profoundly on the development of European civilization. Several volumes of the series have appeared, beginning with Count Ugo Balzani's work on the Italian Chronicles, noticed in these columns a few months since, and now we have to welcome one by the veteran Prof. Pasquale Villari—'Le Invasioni barbariche in Italia'—giving a condensed but clear account of the fall of the Western Empire, and bringing the story down to the coronation of Charlemagne in 800. The sources of the period are so well known and have been so often worked over that nothing of novelty is to be expected in the statement of facts, but the work is illuminated by the author's philosophic insight into causes and effects, while his sense of historic perspective relieves the narrative of unnecessary details, and enables the reader to grasp the sequence of events through the most tremendous revolution in the annals of civilization. It is a story which can never lose its interest, for that revolution has made us what we are, and its consequences are still operative our daily lives.

LIFE OF FRANCIS PARKMAN.

A Life of Francis Parkman. By Charles Haight Farnham. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

There is perhaps no American author whose character and career so test the skill of a biographer as do Francis Parkman's, and it is a satisfaction to say at the outset that Mr. Farnham has accomplished, in his mode of meeting this test, a rather remarkable piece of literary work. There is something unique about the whole personality and fame of the author whom he commemorates. Surrounded by a group of historians to whom reputation had come easily, though not undeservedly, he long preserved an isolation alike of theme and fame—or want of fame. At a time when Prescott, Bancroft, Motley were as well known in England as in America, one might speak of Parkman among London literary men and find no one who had even heard of him. This was due in part to the fact that he was a specialist, and this in a direction little cultivated in English circles, and partly to the proud, shy, reticent nature of the man; these qualities being farther intensified by a career of heroic stoicism under enormous physical drawbacks. In his own country, while his books were better known than in England, the man was not. Living in a singularly cultivated circle, in the Augustan age of Boston, he always kept himself aloof, and never seemed less appropriately placed than when he consented to be for a time the president of a semi-literary, semi-social club; not that he did not do his official duties faithfully, but that he had not that spirit of constitutional and miscellaneous fellowship which is quite essential in a club leader. His later years, moreover, even after his fame was established, were saddened by those clouds so apt to gather around the temperament of a conservative growing old amid a community whose instinctive movements are in an opposite direction from his. When we add that, in his biographer's discriminating words, "he often wished to free himself from some of the most fundamental inherited forces of his character" (p. 8), we have a combination troublesome in youth and peculiarly exasperating in age. Parkman said of himself that he had "no natural inclinations" for historical research, and found it "abundantly irksome and laborious" (p. 153). He would hardly, perhaps, have enjoyed life even had he possessed health. As it was, he lived one of the most absolutely heroic and self-denying lives of our generation.

Even in his literary opinions he was almost reactionary, and always held Pope and Byron to be superior to Wordsworth, whom he disliked, his biographer tells us, both "as poet and man" (p. 347). Emerson is not mentioned in the book, and Parkman seems to have been scarcely influenced by Parker, with whom he had travelled and whose admirable letter criticising 'Pontiac' is appended to this book. Parkman "felt repelled" by what he considered Thoreau's "affectation of being natural" (p. 196). His personal preferences beyond the circle of authors were equally decided and perhaps limited. He thought Lincoln "generally overrated," and indebted more to circumstances than to inherent ability; had little admiration for Garrison or Phillips, and considered Sumner "deficient in courage and manliness" (p. 278)—Sumner, whose triumphant conquest over physical obstacles approached nearer than any other to Parkman's own. He wholly and even vehemently disapproved of universal suffrage, including woman suffrage, was "an undoubted aristocrat in politics" (p. 270), called the working classes "the barbarians of civilization" (p. 267), but never succeeded in developing any plan for restricted suffrage that would satisfy even himself.

All these qualities are admirably analyzed by Mr. Farnham, and those who worked side by side with Parkman for many years will be surprised to find how well he is now delineated by one who knew him comparatively little. The book abounds in sentences as trenchant as Parkman's own, and far more judicial. "He opposed himself so bluntly and broadly to all philanthropic reforms and their advocates as almost to appear indifferent to the welfare of the race." "Few men of equal eminence ever had so little personal or intellectual contact with the liberal leaders of their time." "His own asperity was hateful to him, but he could not cut loose from that side of his nature." "Helped by the warmth of personal contact and friendship, we find him judging men charitably and generously; but, in the absence of this humane influence, he was neither charitable nor generous" (p. 295). It is interesting to learn from this biography that Parkman's sister described him as a "reverent Agnostic" (p. 312), and his daughter, Mrs. J. T. Coolidge, as "a passionate Puritan."

In speaking of literary work, Mr. Farnham shows much the same judicial quality. Parkman, as he points out, had a distinct aversion for the professed *littérateur* (p. 201), and yet he himself, although trained under the most judicious critic of his time, Prof. Edward T. Channing, began with an extremely florid style in his 'Pontiac.' His illustrations at this period were not merely florid, but tamely so; his descriptions and observations were fresh and vigorous, while his images and illustrations were apt to be commonplace. Theodore Parker makes this criticism yet more strongly in comparing the style to that of J. T. Headley (p. 376). Parkman was as much a votary of strong characters as Carlyle, but suffered throughout from want of all imaginative sympathy with the nature of the American Indian. The whole world unrolled by the closer researches of such later explorers as Alice Fletcher and Lucien Carr was veiled from Parkman during his period of constructive work, although the Pueblo Indians latterly interested him; and it is perfectly true, as his biographer points out, that he did more than any one to enlarge the merely classical themes which at first absorbed and came near to monopolizing the American Archæological Institute. It was the opinion of the late Justin Winsor that this limitation, if there were no other, would impair the permanence of Parkman's fame, and he deprecated those comparisons with Gibbon into which Mr. Fiske and others have been too rashly tempted. But no one will ever question Mr. Farnham's conclusion: "In his patient fortitude under suffering, in his persistent industry despite the greatest obstacles, and in his fidelity to his ideals, Parkman was certainly one of the most heroic figures in the history of letters."

The arrangement of this book is an original one, and is perhaps open to some que if possible, is to impress upon the American world two or three reflections suggested by the general election, which, in so far as they are well founded, have a permanent interest.

Nothing, in the first place, is more curious, or may turn out to be of greater political importance, than the fact, which the election makes patent, that the strength of the Government lies in London and the boroughs, and the strength of the Opposition in the country districts. Anything in the world, as we all know, may be proved by figures, but no man who has not a mad passion for paradox can deny that, in England at least, the towns on the whole support Unionism and Imperialism, while such strength as the Opposition derive from England is to be found in the country, and especially among the country laborers. What makes this the more noteworthy is that it is the sign of a singular revolution in opinion. Some forty, even some fifty, years ago the towns were the stronghold of Liberals, the Conservatives derived their strength from the voters in the counties. It would take a far longer letter than the *Nation* would wish to print to explain, even hypothetically, the causes of this singular change in opinion. It is worth while, however, to note a result which the existing state of things is likely to produce. It will, in the long run, make Conservatives far less hostile than they have hitherto been to certain democratic changes. The formation of equal electoral districts would, we may be pretty sure, increase the power of the towns and therefore of the artisans; but if the towns and the workmen who live there are inclined to support the sort of policy which approves itself to modern Conservatives, there is no reason why Conservative statesmen or their followers should oppose a reform or an innovation which is at once democratic and likely to increase the power of the Conservatives, and (what is pretty much the same thing) the political predominance of England in the Parliament of the United Kingdom.

The general election, in the second place, is said, and I presume with truth, to have interested in a very unusual degree the inhabitants of our English colonies. That this should be so is perfectly natural. For the first time within the memory of any man now living, a general election in England has turned upon a colonial question. The prominence, not to say the predominance, of Mr. Chamberlain is due in great part, no doubt, to personal qualities, but it arises also from his position as Colonial Secretary. The war in South Africa was carried on with the aid, and was supported by the sympathy, of the leading English colonies, and it was natural, not to say inevitable, that the Minister specially concerned with colonial policy should attract an amount of attention which has never before been aroused by any Colonial Secretary. What may be the outcome of the new interest felt by Englishmen in the colonies, and by our colonists in the policy of England, it were extremely rash to prophesy. Relations sometimes get on the better for seeing very little of one another, and to meddle actively in a man's affairs is by no means always the way either to gain or to retain his affection; and though one may fully believe, as the present writer certainly does believe, that in the long run the policy which insures the welfare of England must also be the policy which insures the welfare of England's colonies, to assert and believe this is a very different thing from asserting, what no reasonable man can believe, that at no time and under no circumstances can there be at any rate an apparent collision between the interests of an English colony and the interests of the mother country.

However this may be, it is, in the third place, absolutely certain that at the present moment the majority of Englishmen and Scotchmen are, in the political slang of the day, "Imperialists." To estimate the force, at any rate for the moment, of Imperialist sentiment, a candid critic must do something more than count up the relative numbers of the Ministerial majority and of the Opposition. He must note the potent fact that Imperialism has invaded, some Liberals would say has infected, the Opposition itself. For my present purpose it is absolutely unnecessary to decide how far the Imperialism of the so-called Liberal Imperialists is genuine, or to a certain extent factitious. If it be, as is probably the case, to a great extent genuine, then we cannot escape from the conviction that Imperialism—by which I mean the deliberate desire to increase, or at any rate maintain, the unity of the empire and to increase its power—is shared by the vast majority of the men, whether Conservative or Liberal, who are sent to Parliament by British constituencies. Nor, in spite of the violence of Irish rhetoric, is it easy to believe that the Irishmen who crowd into the British army and supply some of the best-known of our generals and the bravest of our troops, are indifferent to the glories of the empire. If, on the other hand, it is to be assumed that many members of Parliament, whose Imperialism has insured their election, are at bottom very indifferent to a policy which it is very difficult to harmonize with the tone of the Liberalism that was predominant forty or fifty years ago, then we must assume that the politicians who avowed opinions which they hardly shared, were thoroughly convinced that the electors, at any rate, were thoroughgoing and ardent Imperialists.

And this brings us to the root of the whole matter. A most singular change has gradually come over the whole tone of English politics. Men who have not long passed middle age can well recollect the time when even Tories thought the colonies a burden which England was bound in honor to bear, but which she might with advantage get rid of whenever she could do so without discredit. We all of us know now that a Minister who proposed to curtail the limits of the empire would not long remain in office, and that the belief of the day is, that the maintenance and the extension of the empire constitute both the glory and the strength of England. This belief, like many other opinions which have had immense influence in their time, may be erroneous. All I insist upon is its existence. Let me add further that the growth of Imperialism is merely part of a much larger change in the current of public opinion. It is simply one aspect of the renewed faith in the benefits to be conferred upon the world by the intervention of the state. But here I must stop. On some future occasion I hope to point out some, at least, of the conditions which have caused or favored a revolution in opinion as remarkable as any change which has taken place during the nineteenth century.

AN OBSERVER.

AN IRISH VIEW.

DUBLIN, October 20, 1900.

Nationalist Ireland has pulled itself together in a wonderful and, to most, an unexpected manner. Gradually, through difficulties and complications, order has, at least for the present, been evolved out of chaos. Two or three years ago, William O'Brien, from his cottage on the shores of Clew Bay, founded a "United Irish League." Its objects appeared to be mainly agrarian—the lowering of rents, the bringing back of the people upon the expanses of grazing land which they or their fathers once tilled. This organization at first made but slow way; it was confined to western counties, and stood a safe butt for those who believed the era of effectual agitation was at an end in Ireland. The Irish parties in Parliament, through their divisions, weakness, and incapacity, had become a by-word, even in Ireland, where the cry of "no politics" was beginning to be more and more heard—the youth of the country turning to national ideals, literary and religious, rather than political. Such was the position when, at the beginning of last session, the Irish parties in Parliament, to the astonishment of all, reunited under the chairmanship of Mr. Redmond. Mr. Healy, largely responsible for the confusion that prevailed, gave nominal adhesion to the arrangement. Subsequent events have gone far to prove that he can scarcely have been sincere—that his policy continued to be to paralyze the proceedings and hopes of the united party as he had those of that to which he had nominally belonged. A convention met in June under the presidency of Mr. Redmond. The Parliamentary party coalesced with the United Irish League, whose branches began to spread rapidly over the country. Funds came in but slowly, and the ascendancy party still confidently hoped at the anticipated elections considerably to lessen, if not to extinguish, the majority of Home-Rule representatives from Ireland. We Irish politically are a strange people: our alternations of lassitude and frivolity, buoyancy and grim earnestness, are enough to wear out the most enthusiastic leaders and alienate the best of friends of a cooler and steadier temperament. The general election was sprung upon the country. Ireland awoke, and in the course of a fortnight ample funds were placed at the disposal of Mr. Redmond and a Central Election Committee. The old plan was abandoned of sending down candidates from headquarters, who, "without inquiry or murmur, were accepted by the constituencies." Popularly constituted conventions met in most of the electoral districts, and moneys to support the candidates there chosen were supplied from the common fund. Where conventions did not meet, or where they came to no decision, and where Nationalist opposed Nationalist, the candidates were left to fight it out between themselves. Some districts such as Wexford held aloof, had their own conventions, and fought their own fight.

The Irish Home-Rulers return to Parliament in their old strength—82 out of the 103 representatives from Ireland. Two seats were lost—Derry and Galway; two won, in Dublin and its county. Many of the old stagers disappear, some of them, indeed, no loss. Thirty new faces will show themselves on the Irish benches. Time only can tell what Mr. Redmond will be able to make of the material placed at his disposal. The tinized none of these for the proof-reading, which, in the Temple Matthew Arnold, we remember to have left much to be desired. So, *caveat emptor*.

Last of the kind to be instanced to-day is the Century Co.'s 'Rab and his Friends' (plus 'Our Dogs'), by Dr. John Brown, with a portrait and an introduction by Andrew Lang, which for length was quite necessary to give thickness to the volume. Mr. Lang thinks Dr. Brown's popularity to have been probably greater in this country than in his own. For wear and simple elegance we give the palm to the buff embossed binding of this American series.

Why people will read Pierre Loti on the South Seas with that better book 'Typee' unread, while 'Moby Dick,' the best sea epic since the Odyssey, and, in spite of obvious defects of style, a book with genius enough in it to last out a lifetime of the average romancer, has never had but a handful of readers—is a mystery. Melville has always had the suffrages of the judicious; the publishers, Dana Estes & Co., now show a commendable courage in claiming for him the favor of the general public by reprinting his sea stories. The four volumes include, besides the two mentioned, 'Omoo' and 'White Jacket.' The publishers might perhaps have done better to rest the case for Melville on 'Moby Dick' and 'Typee,' for the other books show more of his defects and fewer of his qualities. The volumes, which, with no distinction of mechanical form, are convenient and legible enough, are, we judge, reprinted from the plates of an edition of 1892.

Charles Scribner's Sons send us the thirteenth revised edition of Baedeker's 'Northern Germany' and the twelfth of 'London and its Environs,' the latter with a detachable index of streets of London, exactly fitted for the pocket, with convenient sectional plans of the metropolis. It is enough to announce the latest renovation of these standard guides.

We cannot put Mr. Guy Wetmore Carryl's alliterative experiment with 'Mother Goose for Grown-Ups' (Harpers) quite on a par with his 'Fables for the Frivolous.' Coming first, it would abundantly have proved Mr. Carryl's title to be an original humorist, but in parts, to use his own expression, we "note that the quality's sometimes strained." The "moral," at least, is generally ingenious and mirth-provoking as heretofore. "Bow and hold your peace," he says in "The Mysterious Misapprehension concerning a Man in our Town"; "Like Omar, underneath the bow You'll find there's paradise enow!" This particular "melody," by the way, exhibits the carelessness in proof-reading which diminishes the book's attractiveness. Peter Newell and Gustave Verbeek furnish the illustrations to Mr. Carryl's nonsense.

With indefatigable ardor Mr. J. G. Kitton persists in presenting to the world and commenting upon every fragment that can reasonably be ascribed to the pen of Dickens. In 'The Minor Writings of Charles Dickens' (A. C. Armstrong) there is doubtless much information, especially with regard to rare editions, that will interest Dickens collectors. But the truth is, that Dickens wrote an amazing lot of worthless stuff by way of working off his superabundant energies. It was the sawdust of his workshop. Every magazine or newspaper editor (and Dickens was both) has occasion to write much that he prefers to leave unclaimed. To wade through the entire set of nineteen volumes of *Household Words* in order to identify "the Chief's" casual contributions, appears to us a very questionable labor of love. We have lately seen the same well-meaning attentions paid to the unsigned work of Thackeray. Even in his case, the results were not altogether happy, and Dickens is the last man to stand such a test. This is Mr. Kitton's fourth volume on what we may call the minor antiquities of Dickens. Yet the absurdly low prices quoted in his bibliographies for first editions of the fugitive writings of Dickens would seem to indicate that his interest in the subject is shared by few.

Under the title 'A Royal Rhetorician' (Brentano), Mr. R. S. Rait reprints, with an introduction and notes, some writings of James I. The Bishop of Winchester's edition of King James's works, published in 1616, contains 600 pages, but Mr. Rait has drawn very moderately upon this enormous supply. The pieces which he selects are the 'Treatise on Scottis Poesie,' the 'Counterblaste to Tobacco,' a number of sonnets, and a few psalms. Their intrinsic value is small, but they have a certain interest, as showing how James's singular mind worked, and how a man who was educated by George Buchanan used the Scottish and English tongues. Some readers may find a certain amount of amusement in glancing through the conclusion of the 'Counterblaste to Tobacco.' "Have you not reason, then, to bee ashamed, and to forbeare this filthie noveltie, so basely grounded, so foolishly received, and so grossely mistaken in the right use thereof? In your abuse thereof, sinning against God, harming yourselves, both in persons and goods, and raking also thereby the markes and notes of vanitie upon you: by the custome thereof making yourselves to be wondered at by all forraine civil Nations, and by all strangers that come among you, to be scorned and contemned. A custome lothsome to the eye, hatefull to the Nose, harmfull to the braine, dangerous to the Lungs, and in the black, stinking fume thereof, neerest resembling the horrible Stigian smoke of the pit that is bottomelesse."

Of Mr. J. Robertson-Scott's admirable dollar hand-book, 'The People of China: Their Country, History, Life, Ideas, and Relations to the Foreigner' (Methuen & Co.), we must speak with praise, despite its limitations. The author, a journalist, has never been in China, but has read well the literature of his subject. He has packed within 200 pages just that kind of information which an intelligent newspaper-reader would be likely to seek from a friend who had lived in the Far East. His view is wholly that of an Englishman, who, however, tries to be perfectly fair to the Chinese, strenuously endeavoring to give their point of view. He devotes three chapters to the history of China—From Confucius to Lord McCartney, Great Britain and China, and the General Scramble. To "The Chinaman" he gives four chapters, telling how he is governed and educated, and what are his characteristics and beliefs. Under the head of "The Foreign Devil," he discusses the Jesus religion, opium, and the British sphere of influence. Glancing at the future, he shows China unconscious of decay, yet in the pangs of reform. An appendix gives some scanty biographical items concerning leading men in China, a short glossary, a note on the best books about China, and a good map. The latter is worth almost the price of the volume. It shows especially the invasion of the Far East by the railway engineers, and what in Japan, Korea, India, Siberia, and the Chinese Empire are the real and the proposed railways.

Mr. George T. Tobin's six illustrations of FitzGerald are the pretext for the "Omar Khayyám Calendar" issued by Frederick A. Stokes Co. on as many sheets fastened by a riband. They cannot be praised for imagination or art, but the thick-and-thin admirer of the verse will be content with them.

The principal contents of the *Geographical Journal* for October are Prof. A. C. Haddon's account of the geographical distribution in British New Guinea of the various forms of houses, canoes, weapons, pottery, and decorative art, with numerous illustrations and maps, and Mr. Borchgrevink's description of the *Southern Cross* expedition to the Antarctic. This is the story of an attempt to overcome the difficulties presented to exploration by the precipitous height of the land, the innumerable glaciers traversed by deep yawning crevasses, the cold, and the frequency and force of the gales. "Nothing more appalling than these frightful winds, accompanied by tons of drift-snow from the mountains above, can be imagined. On ninety-two days, or 26 per cent. of the time spent at Cape Adare, the wind blew from the east-southeast and southeast with a velocity above forty miles an hour, and on one or two occasions above ninety miles an hour." There is also a summary of the work of the geographical section of the British Association, and the Presidential address of Sir G. S. Robertson on the diminution of time-distance between the different parts of the world through electricity and steam, and its "bearing upon the British Empire."

An account of Mantchuria by E. Bretschneider, in *Petermann's Mitteilungen*, No. 9, gives the leading facts in its history and relations to Russia. The statement is made that the Mantchus are disappearing under the influx of the Chinese, and the time is probably not far distant when their language will cease to be spoken, as all the children are taught Chinese. A study of the various forms of culture in the islands of the Pacific, by L. Frobenius, is accompanied by a series of maps showing the distribution of the different kinds of weapons, dwellings, boats, and certain industries.

In Formosa, despite the bad politics that have disturbed and disgraced the Japanese administration, solid progress has been made in educational matters, especially, with the savage Formosan. Several years ago Mr. Azawa Shuki and other pioneers attempted to train some of the native boys and girls, and there are now sixteen public schools established in various parts of the island. It is from the graduates from these schools that students have been selected for a Normal School, so that the spread of education may be fostered. At the present time about 1,200 native pupils attend the Government schools, and gradually the Formosans are being induced to study the Japanese language. The intellectual status of the mountain savage is very low. He has the greatest difficulty in counting, and cannot perform the simplest arithmetical calculation. When two persons are gether and five rations or articles of food are given them, they take two apiece and throw the fifth away. It has been found by a Japanese teacher that when the Formosan savages, even of the worst sort, are treated kindly, they are not difficult to manage, and, despite discouraging instances of non-success here and there, the Japanese with their new weapons, railways, commerce, and schools, seem to be making an encouraging advance.

The Consular Reports for October contains mention of the fiftieth annual convention of German sugar manufacturers at Magdeburg, at which Dr. Paasche presented a report upon the conditions of the sugar industry in this country and Cuba, the result of his observations during a recent visit made "solely for the purpose of ascertaining if dangers threaten the German sugar industry there." He said, in substance, that "if Cuba regains its former productiveness, or, still worse, if it doubles its production, as some fear, the magnitude of the disaster which will result in the world's markets cannot be overestimated." Among the numerous indications of the unprecedented commercial and industrial activity in Germany is the fact, noted in another report, that manual training is given in 2,375 schools and institute workshops. Of these the greater part are devoted to wood-carving, to working in cardboard, and carpentry. More than 2,200 teachers have been taught to become instructors in this branch of education. There is further noted the discovery of extensive diamond diggings in the interior of British Guiana. Large numbers of gems have been taken to London, where they have been pronounced superior to the South African and equal in quality to the Brazilian stones.

The Geological Survey of New South Wales has published, as No. 8 of the "Mineral Resources" series, a report on the Hillgrove gold-field, by E. C. Andrews. It treats of one of the most important gold-fields discovered in recent years in that colony, and is of special interest on account of the occurrence there of lodes containing ores of antimony and tungsten associated with gold. The scheelite deposits are also of considerable importance. The pamphlet is fully illustrated, and contains a map of the region described.

The tenth volume of reports and papers of the Iowa Geological Survey fills 666 pages and is illustrated by more than 100 cuts and ten folded maps. It includes the eighth annual report of the State Geologist, from which it appears that during 1899 special attention was directed to the mapping of previously unsurveyed counties and to the preparation of reports on their physiography, geology, and resources. In all, nearly 24,000 square miles have been surveyed—an area which embraces nearly one-half of the State.

Madame Curie has succeeded in determining the atomic weight of radium, or at least in finding a limit, 174, below which it cannot fall. The atomic weight of barium is 137.5; hence the evidence is very strong that this intensely interesting substance, which M. and Mme. Curie have done so much to bring to light, is actually an element, and not, as has been thought possible, merely a peculiar form of barium.

Whether Rhetoric is a proper subject for graduate study leading to a degree, and, if so, how it should be taught, are questions now under *investigation by the Pedagogical* Section of the Modern Language Association of America. A circular of inquiry which has been prepared and is now being distributed, will be sent to any interested person upon application to the Secretary, Prof. W. E. Mead, Wesleyan University, Middletown, Conn.

—The letter I is nearly finished in the October issue of the greatest of all quarterlies, the Oxford English Dictionary (New York: H. Frowde). This part closes with "invalid" (substantive), of which the common English stress is upon the last syllable, whereas the American is upon the first; yet our practice obtains occasionally in England in the corresponding adjective use (*e. g.*, "an invalid sister"). American and New England is "intervale," with a single example from Lithgow antedating the earliest citation on this side of the water. Here began "interview" and "interviewer" in the newspaper sense, for which Dr. Murray has procured no earlier citation than those from the *Nation* in 1869. We may add that as late as May 16, 1878, the word "interview" was still accompanied by inverted commas in this journal, as if it had not obtained a respectable footing. The *thing* has never obtained that, so far as Dr. Murray's extracts can be taken as proof. The once respectable (if "peculiar") "institution" of slavery has its landmark here in a passage from Thackeray (1860), who professed himself no advocate of it. From the French we have adapted "intransigent'" (1883), "intern" and "interned" (1866); from the Dutch of Cape Colony "inspan" (1852), to 'yoke' or 'harness up.' "Interlope" has a curious history, and somewhat obscure. It turns up at the end of the sixteenth century, and fully a hundred years elapse before any cognate appears in neighboring tongues. It captivated the French for its convenience, and the Dutch almost took their own as they refound it. "Interloper," on the other hand, arose as an independent formation with a special meaning of 'vagabond.' *Inter-* is one of the great prefixes of this section of the Dictionary, and its original French form of *entre* is preserved only in "entertain" and "enterprise." "Interest" grew out of "interess" after the French, in a manner not clear; and "interesting," in the modern sense, is no older than 1768, and so falls in the lifetime of the grandfather of many a man now witnessing the expiration of the century. How we got along without the latter word before that date, passes comprehension, since it has no close synonym and has become a perplexing banality. We observe that Dr. Murray gives no example of the coupling of "interesting and instructive," another odious commonplace hard to avoid. The phrase "for instance" emerges in 1657. While "insight" has taken solid hold of the vocabulary, "insee" is obsolete and rare. "Insense," to "inform," can be neatly rendered by the Sea Islands locution, 'to make *sensibble* of.' Coleridge's apology for his invention of "intensify" is given under that word; and this author's "insupportably advancing," in his Ode to France, would, if appended to Milton's "insupportably his foot advanc't," have shown the echoer. We close these desultory comments with the remark that our football slang of "interference" has not been apprehended—perhaps not apprehensible—for the Oxford Dictionary.

—It is a pity that the passion for book-making seems to have seized upon Mr. Archibald Colquhoun. But for some weakness of that kind, all that is new and essential in his 'Russia against India; The Struggle for Asia' (Harpers) might easily have been put in a magazine article. Three chapters (pp. 55-125), descriptive of central Asia and its peoples, are absolute padding; two chapters (pp. 1-54), descriptive of the Russian advance in Asia, are practically stolen by Mr. Colquhoun from himself elsewhere; it is only with page 126 and a consideration of the loyalty of the people of India that the book really begins. But when it does, it is excellent. The dangers that lie in bureaucratic rule—over-taxation, and the tyranny of money-lenders—generally the problem of the government of an Oriental people on Western methods, however just and well intended they may be—are well brought out. Then comes the thesis that Russia's objective is India; that India cannot be defended *in* India, but that the frontier must run from Herat to Faizabad, the fighting line being from Kabul to Kandahar, which is coming to be recognized; that the Persian Gulf must be held absolutely, and a railway constructed as quickly as possible through Baluchistan and southern Persia to join the German line at Bagdad, and run across northern Arabia to Egypt, which will certainly come in time. But all this means practically the occupation and garrisoning of Afghanistan, an expense which India cannot possibly bear. So it must be reckoned as imperial expenditure and borne by the Empire. The converse of Mr. Arthur Balfour's famous dictum, when he sought to justify saddling India with the expense of Indian troops used for imperial purposes, holds here. If the fate of India may be decided by a fight in the English Channel, the fate of England may lie in a battle on the Helmund or Indus. Mr. Colquhoun's book is timely, then. Perhaps in this may be found an excuse for its existence: one book weighs much more in rousing and forming public sentiment than many magazine articles. The map, it may be noticed, is hardly up to even recent history. In it Chitral, Yasin, and Nagar still fall outside British territory.

—The 'Memoirs of the Countess Potocka' (Doubleday & McClure) is an autobiography which remained unpublished for thirty years after the death of its author in 1867, and was then edited by another Pole, Casimir Stryienski. Editors take such liberties that one always likes to know upon what plan a given editor has proceeded. No explanation is offered by translator or publisher of how M. Stryienski "arranged the 'Memoirs' for publication," and a page in facsimile of the original manuscript, while it lends an air of authenticity, conveys little idea of the editor's methods. Still, the text raises no inevitable doubts. Whatever may have been kept back, the published part seems to come directly from the Countess. The memoirs are not a complete record, for they break off at 1820, and the author lived on at Paris until the closing years of the Second Empire. This Countess Potocka, who should not be confounded with the more celebrated Hélène Massalski Potocka, belonged to the family Tyszkiewicz, and was closely allied with that of Poniatowski. The writer of the present book was a great-granddaughter of Stanislaus Poniatowski, the companion of Charles XII. of Sweden, and the grandniece of Stanislaus Augustus, the last King of Poland. Accordingly, she belonged to the highest ranks of the Polish nobility, and hated Suvaroff only less than she did the Russian Government. The Countess describes a visit to Paris in 1810 very fully; otherwise, the action centres in Poland. Prior to 1806, her family interests were paramount, but when the war of the Third Coalition brought the French to Warsaw, she came in contact with Napoleon and his staff. After the Grand Duchy of Warsaw had crumbled, she witnessed the return of the Russians. The last episode of the volume is the marriage of the Grand Duke Constantine. The rank of the Countess Potocka brought her the acquaintance of the French and Russian aristocracy, but did not altogether protect her from insult. She had the liveliness of the Polish nobles, and she knew how to communicate it to her memoirs. A passage describing her girlish views about marriage will show the general quality of her style: "My mind and heart were, I cannot say exactly how, swelled with a sort of juvenile exaltation, nourished by the perusal of the great poets whom it had been impossible to keep from me. I wanted heroes like Racine's, or knights like Tancred. Mighty passions were my need, instantaneous affections, great and sublime deeds! I waited! But as I finally perceived that neither Britannicus nor Gonzalvo of Cordova presented himself, and that not even a meeting with Grandison was likely, I made up my mind to descend from the clouds, and sorrowfully reflected that I should be obliged to end by marrying, like everybody else, under the guidance of reason and expediency."

—Hoepli of Milan has undertaken to produce, in a series of volumes, a history of Italy which shall be scientific in spirit while popular in form. The task is not an easy one, for nowhere else is to be found so complicated and multitudinous a series of events, resulting from so many diverse forces working through the evolution of antagonistic institutions. If the enterprise is carried to a successful issue, it will prove most serviceable, for as yet the reader may look in vain for a comprehensive and intelligible account of the vicissitudes through which Italy has passed since the fall of Rome, and of the influences which have made it what it is and have enabled it to impress itself so profoundly on the development of European civilization. Several volumes of the series have appeared, beginning with Count Ugo Balzani's work on the Italian Chronicles, noticed in these columns a few months since, and now we have to welcome one by the veteran Prof. Pasquale Villari—'Le Invasioni barbariche in Italia'—giving a condensed but clear account of the fall of the Western Empire, and bringing the story down to the coronation of Charlemagne in 800. The sources of the period are so well known and have been so often worked over that nothing of novelty is to be expected in the statement of facts, but the work is illuminated by the author's philosophic insight into causes and effects, while his sense of historic perspective relieves the narrative of unnecessary details, and enables the reader to grasp the sequence of events through the most tremendous revolution in the annals of civilization. It is a story which can never lose its interest, for that revolution has made us what we are, and its consequences are still operative *in our daily lives.*

LIFE OF FRANCIS PARKMAN.

A Life of Francis Parkman. By Charles Haight Farnham. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

There is perhaps no American author whose character and career so test the skill of a biographer as do Francis Parkman's, and it is a satisfaction to say at the outset that Mr. Farnham has accomplished, in his mode of meeting this test, a rather remarkable piece of literary work. There is something unique about the whole personality and fame of the author whom he commemorates. Surrounded by a group of historians to whom reputation had come easily, though not undeservedly, he long preserved an isolation alike of theme and fame—or want of fame. At a time when Prescott, Bancroft, Motley were as well known in England as in America, one might speak of Parkman among London literary men and find no one who had even heard of him. This was due in part to the fact that he was a specialist, and this in a direction little cultivated in English circles, and partly to the proud, shy, reticent nature of the man; these qualities being farther intensified by a career of heroic stoicism under enormous physical drawbacks. In his own country, while his books were better known than in England, the man was not. Living in a singularly cultivated circle, in the Augustan age of Boston, he always kept himself aloof, and never seemed less appropriately placed than when he consented to be for a time the president of a semi-literary, semi-social club; not that he did not do his official duties faithfully, but that he had not that spirit of constitutional and miscellaneous fellowship which is quite essential in a club leader. His later years, moreover, even after his fame was established, were saddened by those clouds so apt to gather around the temperament of a conservative growing old amid a community whose instinctive movements are in an opposite direction from his. When we add that, in his biographer's discriminating words, "he often wished to free himself from some of the most fundamental inherited forces of his character" (p. 8), we have a combination troublesome in youth and peculiarly exasperating in age. Parkman said of himself that he had "no natural inclinations" for historical research, and found it "abundantly irksome and laborious" (p. 153). He would hardly, perhaps, have enjoyed life even had he possessed health. As it was, he lived one of the most absolutely heroic and self-denying lives of our generation.

Even in his literary opinions he was almost reactionary, and always held Pope and Byron to be superior to Wordsworth, whom he disliked, his biographer tells us, both "as poet and man" (p. 347). Emerson is not mentioned in the book, and Parkman seems to have been scarcely influenced by Parker, with whom he had travelled and whose admirable letter criticising 'Pontiac' is appended to this book. Parkman "felt repelled" by what he considered Thoreau's "affectation of being natural" (p. 196). His personal preferences beyond the circle of authors were equally decided and perhaps limited. He thought Lincoln "generally overrated," and indebted more to circumstances than to inherent ability; had little admiration for Garrison or Phillips, and considered Sumner "deficient in courage and manliness" (p. 278)—Sumner, whose triumphant conquest over physical obstacles approached nearer than any other to Parkman's own. He wholly and even vehemently disapproved of universal suffrage, including woman suffrage, was "an undoubted aristocrat in politics" (p. 270), called the working classes "the barbarians of civilization" (p. 267), but never succeeded in developing any plan for restricted suffrage that would satisfy even himself.

All these qualities are admirably analyzed by Mr. Farnham, and those who worked side by side with Parkman for many years will be surprised to find how well he is now delineated by one who knew him comparatively little. The book abounds in sentences as trenchant as Parkman's own, and far more judicial. "He opposed himself so bluntly and broadly to all philanthropic reforms and their advocates as almost to appear indifferent to the welfare of the race." "Few men of equal eminence ever had so little personal or intellectual contact with the liberal leaders of their time." "His own asperity was hateful to him, but he could not cut loose from that side of his nature." "Helped by the warmth of personal contact and friendship, we find him judging men charitably and generously; but, in the absence of this humane influence, he was neither charitable nor generous" (p. 295). It is interesting to learn from this biography that Parkman's sister described him as a "reverent Agnostic" (p. 312), and his daughter, Mrs. J. T. Coolidge, as "a passionate Puritan."

In speaking of literary work, Mr. Farnham shows much the same judicial quality. Parkman, as he points out, had a distinct aversion for the professed *littérateur* (p. 201), and yet he himself, although trained under the most judicious critic of his time, Prof. Edward T. Channing, began with an extremely florid style in his 'Pontiac.' His illustrations at this period were not merely florid, but tamely so; his descriptions and observations were fresh and vigorous, while his images and illustrations were apt to be commonplace. Theodore Parker makes this criticism yet more strongly in comparing the style to that of J. T. Headley (p. 376). Parkman was as much a votary of strong characters as Carlyle, but suffered throughout from want of all imaginative sympathy with the nature of the American Indian. The whole world unrolled by the closer researches of such later explorers as Alice Fletcher and Lucien Carr was veiled from Parkman during his period of constructive work, although the Pueblo Indians latterly interested him; and it is perfectly true, as his biographer points out, that he did more than any one to enlarge the merely classical themes which at first absorbed and came near to monopolizing the American Archæological Institute. It was the opinion of the late Justin Winsor that this limitation, if there were no other, would impair the permanence of Parkman's fame, and he deprecated those comparisons with Gibbon into which Mr. Fiske and others have been too rashly tempted. But no one will ever question Mr. Farnham's conclusion: "In his patient fortitude under suffering, in his persistent industry despite the greatest obstacles, and in his fidelity to his ideals, Parkman was certainly one of the most heroic figures in the history of letters."

The arrangement of this book is an original one, and is perhaps open to some question. The chronology is confined mainly to one chapter, and the other chapters are chiefly in the form of essays; and this, in dealing with such a really detached figure as Parkman, was perhaps the best method. The letters describing Parkman's college escapades may be the subject of criticism, but are really essential to understanding the development of his peculiar temperament. We have little else to add. In the list (p. 16) of the clubs to which he belonged in college, the Davy Club should probably have been included, since chemistry was one of his earliest tastes. The author's statement that Parkman's letters to Frenchmen were written in excellent French, is hardly justified by the example quoted (p. 157), which shows accuracy rather than facility, and is not improved by Mr. Farnham in his translation, when he substitutes "You have given it to me heavy" for the far more graceful French expression. We sometimes see in the author some of the inevitable limitations of a younger man, as where he does not recognize that the "F. Lee" of p. 105 is identical with the Francis L. Lee of p. 31. With these trifling criticisms, we part reluctantly from a book which is without question one of the most honest and admirable of American literary biographies.

RADAU'S EARLY BABYLONIAN HISTORY.

Early Babylonian History down to the End of the Fourth Dynasty of Ur. By Rev. Hugo Radau, A.M., B.D., Ph.D. 1900. Large 8vo, pp. xix, 452.

This book, a development of Dr. Radau's dissertation for the doctor's degree in Columbia University in the year 1898, is a striking evidence of the remarkable expansion of university facilities in this country in the last few years. A quarter of a century ago it would have been impossible to pursue here the studies requisite for a doctor's degree, with Semitic languages as the major theme. There was no university in which those languages were taught. Now, all the larger universities in the East, and some of those in the West, have one or more professors in the field of Semitic languages, while several possess or have access to valuable collections of Assyrian and Babylonian antiquities, either originals or casts.

The writer of the present volume, who is Mayo Fellow in the General Theological Seminary of the Episcopal Church in New York, has been able to utilize for this work a valuable collection of Babylonian tablets (some 262 tablets and fragments of tablets in all) recently purchased by the Dean of that institution, the Rev. E. A. Hoffman, D.D. An appendix of 123 pages is devoted to a description and discussion of these tablets, the larger part of which date from the old Babylonian period, and, according to the best information obtainable, were plundered by the Arabs from the ruins of Shirpurla (Telloh), Borsippa, Erech, and Nippur. It is to be regretted that no way has yet been found to stop this plundering of ancient ruins by the Arabs. Much is always destroyed through the ignorance or carelessness of the diggers, and what is secured is, for the most part, without certain provenance; or, where the place of finding is known, there is no information regarding the position and surroundings in which the objects were found. This ignorance as to source and situation deprives such material of a great part of its value. Nor is this the worst evil resulting from the illicit traffic in antiquities: in digging for objects, the Arabs destroy the structures in which those objects are found, thus rendering it impossible ever certainly to reconstruct the history of the place.

It would be ultimately better for science that the inscriptions should remain buried until they can be excavated in a careful and intelligent manner. Unfortunately, there seems no likelihood that the great museums will unite in taking action to secure this result. Most, if not all of them are *participes criminis*, owing their collections of original Babylonian material, in part or altogether, to this system of purchase from dealers, who in their turn derive their supplies from these Arabian destroyers of antiquities. It must be admitted that the ignorance and corruption of the Turkish Government and officials have offered a serious obstacle to action on the part of the museums, and encouraged the illicit traffic in antiquities; but, on the other hand, the Turk may well say that he has found the archæologists, as a whole, fully as unreliable and tricky as himself, and that, if he is corrupt, they are corrupters. In reality, the rivalries and jealousies of the museums have been the main reason why no steps have been taken to prevent the wholesale destruction of Babylonian ruins by the antiquity-dealers.

So long as those ruins are to be exploited in the manner indicated, it is cause of congratulation when the results of such exploitation fall into such good hands and are so speedily made accessible to the public. The old Babylonian tablets in this collection belong, for the most part, to the third millennium B. C., and are dated in the years of various kings and *patesis* of Ur (many of these tablets come from Borsippa) and Shirpurla, with one tablet from an unknown city, Ash-nun-na-ki, and one, published before, bearing the name of a king of Larsa. There are also twenty tablets of Kassite kings, of the second millennium B. C., apparently from Nippur. These tablets are temple records, receipts for grain, wool, oil, and the like, paid to the temples, or lists of expenses of date-wine, flour, food, and oil, or reports from the overseers of the flocks and herds, either with regard to live cattle or with regard to skins and wool. Dr. Radau publishes a number of these last-named reports, with the cuneiform text on one page and the transcription and transliteration on the opposite. They are dated in this fashion: "One year after Bur-Sin became King," "the year King Bur-Sin devastated Urbillum," "the year of the throne of Bel," "the year Huhunuri was devastated," "the year Karhar was devastated a second time," etc., and hence possess a certain value for the reconstruction of political history. On the other hand, such a system of dating makes the determination of an accurate chronology difficult and complicated. Some of the tablets of this collection give the items received from various persons for the different gods of the temple. A certain number are the so-called "case tablets," all of which are sealed with seals, giving the name of the scribe who wrote the tablet and of his father, together with the latter's title. The collection exhibits admirably the general method of financial management of the old Babylonian temples, and the careful system in use for recording all receipts and expenditures.

The new Babylonian tablets, none of which are translated in full, cover a much broader field, and deal with the affairs of the people rather than with the concerns of the temples. Two of them are astronomical texts, four lists of gods; the remainder are contract tablets, covering a period of 500 years or more, from the seventh to the second century B. C., and dealing, in Dr. Radau's words, with

> "almost everything which may happen in the daily intercourse of men—bequests, . . . selling . . . of shares, lands, property of various kinds, etc., etc.; statements that one person owes another . . . dates, figs, wine, or money, which latter had to be paid back either with or without interest. Sometimes it is also stated that if the debtor fails to pay by a certain date, then the money shall bear interest . . . Rents for houses or gardens, law-suits, and many other interesting contracts, are also to be found among the tablets of this collection" (p. 332).

It is this minute and unconscious picture of the daily affairs of life which gives Babylonian contract-tablets their value. When a sufficient number of them shall have been published in intelligible translations, they will furnish the material for a history of Babylonia surpassing, in the accuracy of its descriptions of the every-day life of the people, any history of past ages yet written. It is to be hoped that means may shortly be found to publish this and other similar collections in full, for the benefit of the historian and the student of mankind.

The bulk of the book is devoted to a discussion of early Babylonian history, for which Dr. Radau depends principally upon the French discoveries at Telloh, supplemented by the hitherto published results of the American explorations at Nippur. (Unfortunately, very few of the "finds" from the last-named site have yet been made accessible to scholars.) For the translation of these ancient texts he acknowledges especially his indebtedness to Jensen, Hilprecht, and Thureau-Dangin, and the last-named he quotes with especial frequency. In his treatment of the earliest period he follows neither Hilprecht nor Thureau-Dangin. He mocks at the former's identification of Gishban with Harran because Gishban means "city of the bow," and because the ruins of Harran, as depicted in Sachan's 'Reise,' resemble a half-moon, which also looks like a bow. He holds that the Semites came from the south, presumably from Arabia, as early, certainly, as the close of the fifth millennium B. C. He believes that they found a civilized people, the Sumerians, in possession of southern Babylonia; that this people had invented the cuneiform writing, and that the earliest inscriptions which have come down to us are in the Sumerian tongue. The early rulers of Shirpurla were Semites, who, although writing in the Sumerian language, betray themselves at times by Semitic words and idioms. At that period the Semites were becoming politically dominant, although as yet under the influence of the superior civilization of the Sumerians. In northern Babylonia on the other hand, in Akkad, the earliest inscriptions, from the commencement of the fourth millennium, are Semitic—evidence that the Semites found this country unoccupied, or relatively so, at the time of their invasion.

In details of succession of dynasties, location of places, interpretation of names, and the like, Radau constantly disagrees with throughout the country, and are industrious and prosperous, for while the natives shirk hard manual labor, the Chinaman is only too glad of the job. He marries usually a Siamese woman, and their children make excellent subjects, as they possess both the natural brightness of the mother and the industry of the father. The half-breed must become naturalized or else pay a tax of about a quarter of a dollar a year. The native policeman mightily enjoys leading Chinamen up to the tax office to settle. The Japanese jin-riki-sha has become the chief vehicle. Until of late, the only roads through the country were those of nature's providing, rivers and streams, but the necessities of commerce have compelled ways of communication by land. Rice is the chief food of the country, and irrigation is common, but agricultural implements are yet of the rudest sort. The water buffalo is the chief of the most valued animals, except, of course, the white elephants or the apology in dirty red for such, which are kept at the public expense. In the northern part of the country the teakwood forests are being rapidly cut down, and the gravest results are apprehended on account of this deforestation.

Mr. Young gives what must be considered something like a fair account of Siamese religion, which in form is that of orthodox, Southern, pure, or undeveloped Buddhism, in contrast to the florid and highly developed form of northern Asia. It seems to be in a very passive and stagnant state. He tells us, not in a very connected but rather desultory way, about the various reforms introduced of late years, which show how an intelligent sovereign, backed by earnest men, is trying to raise up an Oriental nation out of the conservatism of ages into the better life of men who have thoughts and interests higher than the mere routine of daily life, and akin to those not of one nation but of the whole race.

Dido: An Epic Tragedy. By F. J. Miller and J. R. Nelson. Silver, Burdett & Co.

Old schoolboys (and others, too) will be interested in Virgil dramatized under the above title. To make up the dialogue, the appropriate lines from the 'Æneid' are selected and translated or paraphrased. There are abundant stage directions in the highest style of the art, with diagrams and indications of costume and scenery. The following, for example, ought to be enough to tempt Burne-Jones or Sir Henry Irving:

"A fragrant nook on Mount Ida. Across the stage at the first wing a low, broad marble wall, forming one end of a colonnade which leads back to an arch through which the distant sea is visible. The columns at the first wing and the wall between them are over-clambered by a flowering vine, which has strewn its delicate yellow petals over the wall and the marble floor before it. Behind the wall a garden of brilliant blossoms, with a path leading through it to the arch in the background. There is the pleasant sound of falling water."

Then there are drawings from ancient vases, besides a number of incidental lyrics set to music, with the score in extenso. The material is skilfully disposed, and the version is an interesting one. If only the matter of scenery and setting could be managed, some college might find it feasible and profitable to attempt its dramatic presentation. The measure chosen is a verse rare in English, the unrhymed Alexandrine. Although the author manages well his pauses and the rhetoric of his line, it is not a type of verse which can be said to succeed well in English. There are various reasons for this, but the test, of course, is in the effect. By exception, such cadences as these may satisfy the ear:

"Time, only time, I ask, a little space of rest
From this mad grief, till Fortune give me fortitude,
And teach me how to bear my woe."

But how is it when run-on effects attack the norm of the verse, and we have such lines as these?

"How like Diana when she leads her bands by swift
Eurotas, or on Cynthus green, while round her press
A thousand graceful creatures of the wood; but she,
With shoulder quiver-girt, a very goddess moves
With stately tread among the lesser beings of
Her train. To such an one I liken yonder queen."

It can hardly be said that the Alexandrine is a satisfactory modern analogue of the classical hexameter.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adderley, James. Francis; The Little Poor Man of Assisi. London: Edward Arnold. 3s. 6d.
Baker, J. H. Education and Life. Longmans, Green & Co.
Barbour, A. M. That Mainwaring Affair. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.50.
Bellamy, Edward. The Duke of Stockbridge. Silver, Burdett & Co. $1.50.
Benson, B. K. Who Goes There? Macmillan. $1.50.
Blanchard, Amy E. Her Very Best. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
Bridgeman, L. J. Mother Wild Goose and her Wild Beast Show. Boston: H. M. Caldwell Co.
Casaubon, Meric. Marcus Aurelius Antoninus, the Roman Emperor: His Meditations. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $3.
Charles, R. H. The Ascension of Isaiah. Londan: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan. $2.60.
Cobb, Thomas. Scruples. John Lane. $1.25.
Conrad, Joseph. Lord Jim. Doubleday & McClure Co. $1.50.
Crane, Stephen. Great Battles of the World. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.50.
Crawford, F. Marion. In the Palace of the King. Macmillan. $1.50.
Creswick, Paul. In Alfred's Days. London: Ernest Nister; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.
Crockett, S. R. The Stickit Minister's Wooing. New ed. Doubleday & McClure Co. $1.50.
De Maulde la Clavière, R. The Women of the Renaissance: A Study of Feminism. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $3.50.
Detmold, M. and E. Pictures from Birdland. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.
Eissler, M. The Metallurgy of Gold. London: Crosby Lockwood & Son; New York: D. Van Nostrand Co. $7.50.
Elizabeth and her German Garden, and The Solitary Summer. New ill. ed. 2 vols. $2.50 each.
Emerson, Ralph Waldo. Friendship and Love. H. M. Caldwell Co.
Everett-Green, Evelyn. Bruno and Bimba. London: Ernest Nister; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.25.
Farmiloe, Edith. Piccalilli. London: Grant Richards; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.
Fitz-Gerald, S. J. A. Stories of Famous Songs. 2 vols. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $3.
Forman, L. L. Selections from Plato. Macmillan. $1.90.
Foster, R. F. Foster's Bridge Manual. Brentano.
Fox, A. W. A Book of Bachelors. London: Archibald, Constable & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $5.
Geddie, John. Romantic Edinburgh. London: Sands & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.50.
Gomme, G. L. The Princess's Story-Book. London: Archibald, Constable & Co.; New York: Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Gordon, Samuel. Sons of the Covenant. Philadelphia: The Jewish Publication Society of America.
Harvard Studies in Classical Philology. Vol. VI. Harvard University.
Hewlett, Maurice. The Life and Death of Richard Yea-and-Nay. Macmillan. $1.50.
Hillier, Alfred. Tuberculosis. Cassell & Co. $1.25.
Hurll, E. M. Sir Joshua Reynolds. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 75 cents.
King, Charles. Ray's Daughter: A Story of Manila. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
Lang, Andrew. The Grey Fairy Book. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Le Queux, William. The Sign of the Seven Sins. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
Litchfield, Grace Denio. The Moving Finger Writes. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
Lockhart, J. G. Memoirs of Sir Walter Scott. Vols. III., IV., and V. Macmillan.
Matheson, Annie. Snowflakes and Snowdrops. London: R. Brimley Johnson. 4s. 6d.
Matteson, Estelle L. Phryne. Stiletto Pub. Co.
Melville, Herman. (1) Typee: A Real Romance of the South Sea; (2) Moby Dick, or the White Whale; (3) White-Jacket, or the World in a Man-of-War; (4) Omoo: A Narrative of Adventures in the South Sea. Boston: Dana Estes & Co.
Miller, J. R. The Golden Gate of Prayer. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. 75 cents.
Münsterberg, Hugo. Grundzüge der Psychologie. Leipzig: Johann Ambrosius Barth. 12 marks.
Neilson, Frances. Madame Bohemia. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.50.
"Ouida." Critical Studies. Cassell & Co. $2.
Painter, F. V. N. Lyrical Vignettes. Boston: Sibley & Ducker.
Peters, M. C. Wit and Wisdom of the Talmud. Baker & Taylor Co $1.
Pidgin, C. F. Quincy Adams Sawyer. Boston: C. M. Clark Pub. Co. $1.50.
Porter, Jane. The Scottish Chiefs. New ed. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.50.
Presbrey, Frank. Memories of Vacation Days. Redfield Bros. 50 cents.
Putnam's Library of Standard Literature: (1) La Commedia di Dante Alighieri; (2) The History of the Life of Thomas Ellwood; (3) The Memoirs of the Life of Edward Gibbon; (4) The Early Poems of Alfred Lord Tennyson. London: Methuen & Co.; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.75 each.
Rayner, Emma. Visiting the Sin. Boston: Smal[illegible] Maynard & Co. $1.50.
Selous, F. C. Sport and Travel: East and We[illegible] Longmans, Green & Co. $4.
Ward, Mrs. Humphry. Eleanor. 2 vols. Harpers.
Wolfe, T. F. Literary Rambles. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
Women of the Bible. Harpers.

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The 'Ellen Terry' of Clement Scott (Frederick A. Stokes Co.) is a prettily illustrated and charmingly printed little volume, and little else. Like other productions of the same author, it consists largely of rhapsody and miscellaneous reminiscence, in which Mr. Scott is concerned quite as much as his professed subject. The main incidents in the career of this charming actress are duly set down, with note of time and place, but the book is full of irrelevant padding of all kinds, and has a minimum of literary or critical value.

The 'John Drew' of Edward A. Dithmar, in the same series as the 'Ellen Terry,' is a work of a very different character. Mr. Dithmar, for many years the dramatic critic of the New York *Times*, has a wide and intimate knowledge of the theatre generally, and has been familiar with every phase of Mr. Drew's career from its outset. As might have been expected, he furnishes a thoroughly satisfactory bit of biography, in which the gradual artistic development of his subject is traced with accuracy, skill, and appreciation. Incidentally, the little volume is a tribute to the brilliant management of the late Augustin Daly. The reading matter is interspersed plentifully with portraits of Mr. Drew in many of his most popular parts.

'The Theatre and its People,' by Franklin Fyles (Doubleday, Page & Co.), is written for the great mass of the public which knows nothing about the theatre except what can be seen in front of the curtain. Necessarily, therefore, it contains a vast amount of what to more experienced persons is exceedingly elementary information. It expounds in detail all the mysteries of "behind the scenes," the construction of the stage, the various contrivances employed, and the various processes through which a new play is put between the first rehearsal and the first public performance. It furnishes, too, some interesting and instructive figures concerning the salaries of players and the profits of authors and managers. Mr. Fyles has done his work pretty thoroughly, although he might have written another chapter upon the elaborate machinery now used in the production of sensational melodrama. He touches the theatrical Trust business in somewhat gingerly fashion—being a playwright himself—and seems to think that on the whole it is rather beneficial than otherwise. What he says about its financial responsibility, its regular payment of salaries, etc., is doubtless true, but he overlooks the positive evils directly attributable to it—the destruction of healthy competition, the discouragement of native authors, and the abolition of the stock companies which were the schools of acting.

The Distribution of Wealth. A Theory of Wages, Interest, and Profits. By John Bates Clark. Macmillan Co. 1899.

The Economics of Distribution. By John A. Hobson. Macmillan Co. 1900.

Professor Clark's essay is one of the results of the ferment caused by Henry George's 'Progress and Poverty.' That vigorous writer fluttered the dove-cotes of the professors who regard Political Economy as a department of ethics. Some he converted; others he stimulated to search for some escape from his conclusions. Among the latter Professor Clark is to be included, and his studies have been so fruitful as to enable him to announce that the distribution of the income of society is in accordance with justice. Due allowance must be made for friction; but, theoretically at least, the distribution is controlled by a natural law which gives to every agent of production the amount of wealth which that agent produces. Wages equal that part of the product of industry which is traceable to the labor itself; and interest equals what is traceable to capital. Of course, these propositions are abstract; wages and interest are much affected by temporary influences and by bargaining. We must constantly remember that actual society is "dynamic," or changing, while the economist postulates a "static" or natural state; but this is true in every applied science.

Henry George's theorem was that so long as land is practically unlimited in supply, a laborer employed in manufacturing will command as much in the shape of wages as he could make by agriculture. When the land has passed into private ownership, the product of labor is measured by what it makes out of land which commands no rent; and wages are determined in this manner. If manufactures offer less in wages than men can earn by agriculture, laborers will go to the land. If they offer more, laborers will leave the land. This, Professor Clark calls "a theory of 'squatter sovereignty' over the labor market." He declares that it "puts the man in the shanty into a position that is so strategic as to enable him to dominate workmen of every class, to fix the amount of their wages, and so to control the level on which they live."

Such criticism as this is not very profound; nor is it judicious, in view of the fact that Professor Clark admits that this absurd theory embodies the same principle as his own. According to both theories, wages tend to equal what labor itself can produce; and the notion that the people who try to keep body and soul together by tilling worthless land "dominate workmen of every class," is no more absurd when given out by Henry George than when amplified by a professor of economics in good and regular standing. For Professor Clark considers that Henry George would have been nearly right had he furnished the laborers on worthless land with worthless implements to till the soil withal. It is only necessary to extend the field somewhat in order to obtain the true law of "marginal" labor. There is an "intensive margin" elsewhere than in agriculture; "it may be traced throughout the industrial system. Everywhere there is a line that it does not pay to pass in adding to the number of workers who are utilizing the really productive appliances of industry. Though a hundred men can sail a steamship, a hundred and five may sail it better. In that case, the five extra men are on the intensive margin of utilization of the steamship, and are virtually rent-free. Whatever the ship itself must pay to its owners, was paid when it was run by the original crew."

In order to apply this theory, it is necessary to assume that employers are influenced by other than pecuniary motives in hiring laborers. In actual life this assumption is correct enough, but it is hardly admissible when we are reasoning of the "static" condition of society. The hypothetical employer of the economists is a being who uses men and capital for the purpose of making a profit, and if he makes no profit from them he should dispense with them. On the other hand, the theory assumes a degree of equality, or "interchangeability," among laborers, which we do not find in practical life. However this may be, the theory requires this "zone of indifference," in order to give us the laws that "wages tend to equal the product of marginal labor," and that "the effective product of any workman must be equal to the absolute product of a man who is within the marginal zone." The corollaries are obvious that products on the zones of indifference of different employments tend toward uniformity; that a general zone of indifference exists in each industry; and that there is a similar zone in industry as a whole. The theory is very carefully elaborated, and is an interesting development of the "final" or "marginal" utility hypothesis. Whether to regard it as a *reductio ad absurdum* of that method of solving economic problems, or as a splendid illustration of its power, depends on the point of view of the reader.

Mr. Hobson accepts the same hypothesis, although with some modifications; but he comes to an entirely different conclusion from Professor Clark's. He applies to labor and capital the terminology and modes of measurement hitherto confined to land, and thus demonstrates that landlords are not sinners, economically, above other men; rather there is none that doeth good. Every one, practically, is in possession of some differential advantage, in receipt of some gain beyond what his services really produce. In all the bargaining and competition by which prices are established and the distribution of wealth effected, there are elements of compulsion which assign "forced gains" and other elements of "economic rent" to the buyers or the sellers. Hence there is a large fund, of the nature of monopoly and differential rents, which furnishes no stimulus to voluntary industrial energy. This fund, according to Mr. Hobson, can be taken for public service by taxation without injury to industry.

In this country, we must protest, the taking of property by taxation is by no means the same thing as taking it for the public service. Indeed, property so taken is distributed among the office-holders and politicians in accordance with the very principles which Mr. Hobson regards as producing injustice. In the city of Brooklyn there are several functionaries who enjoy emoluments computed to be from $30,000 to $80,000 a year; while nearly all their work is done by clerks, and our whole public service is full of such instances. The differences in the pay of public officers in England are enormous, and they do not tend to decrease. Probably Mr. Hobson would insist that when property is taken away from those who have friends against any man selected by Platt, and to bring about the same result that followed when Tracy was nominated to defeat Seth Low, and put Croker and his gang in power once more. The reason why "Coler is out of the question," says Platt, is that "he has sinned away his days of grace by going about the State preaching the doctrines of Bryan and Bryanism, and he has, therefore, lost all chance of Republican support. Had he remained quietly at home, instead of following these strange gods, I suppose by the advice of Gov. Hill, he would have been in favor with Republicans. But now it cannot be. I would not vote for him."

"Conspuez Croker" is the only watchword needed at the present stage of our municipal campaign. In exactly what hand is to be placed the sword which is to pierce the dragon, it is premature to discuss. Our St. George will appear in due time. Gen. Greene, Chairman of the Republican County Committee, is quite right in saying that a precipitate choice of candidate, or even a hurried decision as to the form of union for crushing Crokerism, would be foolish, and might easily be fatal. First let us give indignation a chance to swell and strengthen. Let us foster and direct popular and righteous wrath before we endeavor to say just who shall be the instrument of its expression. A single objective steadily pursued is the surest way to bring about union. When the honest citizens of New York get angry enough, and ashamed enough, and alarmed enough, they will find a way to draw Croker's teeth. A good beginning would be to invoke the power of public opinion and social ostracism against every man with any pretensions to respectability who has, and does not openly repudiate, friendly relations with the brutal boss. The touch of his band ought to be held to carry contagion; to be seen with him should be thought ignominy; to accept favors from him ought to be equivalent to a brand of shame on the forehead. A judge, a lawyer, a banker, a contractor, a head of a corporation, who would, openly or secretly, curry favor with Croker for political or business advantages, should be made to know that he is looked upon by his fellows with an abhorrence that could not be greater if he had poisoned the Croton water, or sown germs of the plague broadcast throughout the city.

Washington dispatches say that Great Britain is to be asked by our Government to suppress the Filipino Junta at Hong Kong—in other words, to do in respect of Aguinaldo and his friends what she refused to do in respect of Mazzini, Ledru-Rollin, and other refugees from the Continent. No doubt they were revolutionary committees, yet when in the early fifties the demand was made for their expulsion, England replied proudly that these men and all others had the right of asylum in British territory, and that so long as they violated no British law, they should not be disturbed. To the charge that they were conspiring against their own Government, it was replied that for any overt act in violation of neutrality they could be indicted and tried, and that British courts were open for this purpose. To assume that a conspiracy existed without an overt act, and to punish it without trial, would be tyranny. Such was in substance the answer sent by the Government of Great Britain, half a century ago, to Louis Napoleon and King Bomba. It can hardly be doubted that the same answer would be sent to us in response to a similar demand, if we should be contemptible enough to make it. What should we have said if Spain had asked us to suppress or expel the Cuban Junta from the United States in 1897, when Mr. Estrada Palma was at the head of it, and was carrying on his campaign of education, through the press and otherwise, here in New York?

In the non-fanciful part of Gen. MacArthur's report, the outstanding features are the tacit acknowledgment that American civil rule in the Philippines is a failure, and that a rigorous military régime must be continued indefinitely. He officially confirms the assertion, so often made in press dispatches, that the natives who apparently accept American sovereignty and take office under American rule, "act secretly in behalf of the insurgents." He does not say, what a responsible newspaper correspondent declares under his own name in the *Independent*, that the government of Manila is offensive to the inhabitants, not only because it is imposed from without, but also because it is reeking with corruption in nearly all its branches. On the strictly military side of the problem, Gen. MacArthur brushes away a vast number of campaign lies by saying tersely, "At present and for many years to come the necessity of a large American military and naval force is too apparent to admit of discussion." Thus we see that the election has come and gone, yet the Philippine misery and shame are with us just as before. We were told that the reëlection of McKinley would instantly result in the Filipinos crawling to his feet with halters round their necks. The fact is, according to a Manila dispatch to the paper which was loudest and most abundant in this preëlection prophecy, the news of Republican victory has produced in the Philippines "no visible effect" upon the insurgents. We were to have the army reduced and the volunteers called home. Now all the Washington talk is only of just how much it will be necessary to increase the army and navy in order to reduce the Philippines. A bill of more than $100,000,000 a year is to be presented indefinitely to American taxpayers for these "gems and glories of the tropic seas," as Mr. McKinley called them two years ago. Just now they look, instead, uncommonly like a gold brick.

Mr. Hanna's statement that "there are no Trusts" in the country, has provoked a deal of comment, first and last. In its preliminary report on Trusts and Industrial Combinations, the Industrial Commission appointed by Congress to investigate this question has described the various forms of Trust organization. The original "Trust" was a combination of companies, which placed their stock irrevocably in the hands of trustees who "voted it," the stockholders receiving certificates upon which they drew their dividends. The Standard Oil Trust, the Sugar Trust, and the Whiskey Trust were originally of this sort. A pseudo-Trust organization is formed where, instead of trusteeing stock or buying independent plants outright, one corporation buys a majority of the stock in such companies, and so controls their management. To-day, however, as the report of the Industrial Commission points out, the common form of organization for combinations known as "Trusts" is that of a simple corporation. The development of the Standard Oil Company is typical. The original Trust, under which certificates of stock were issued, dissolved itself back into the original companies, nominally independent, but virtually associated and controlled through the highly concentrated holding of stock. The formation later on of the Standard Oil Company of New Jersey reorganized these independent companies into one big corporation. In such cases it is technically true that there is no longer any "Trust." In fact, however, the same industrial problems remain to be solved under the corporate form of organization as under the old-fashioned "Trust."

Lord Salisbury's reference in his Guildhall speech to the internal politics of the United States was one which he felt compelled to apologize for in the act. So the indiscretion stands confessed. He thought it excusable on the ground that he was about to retire from the Foreign Office. But he remains Premier, and as such should not make a public utterance in disparagement of a great political party in another country. It is one thing to offer personal congratulations to Mr. McKinley, as President Loubet of France did, but quite another to say hard things of a political organization with the leaders of which it may hereafter be important for the British Government to be on

THE NEXT FINANCIAL STEP.

One of the important features of the recent campaign was the discussion of the peculiar working of the Financial Act of March 14, 1900. The first section of this measure makes the gold dollar the standard unit of value, and provides that all forms of money issued or coined by the United States shall be maintained at parity of value with that standard, and declares it to be the duty of the Secretary of the Treasury to maintain such parity. Other sections make provision for the redemption of all legal-tender notes in gold coin on demand, and create a special fund of $150,000,000 which cannot be used for any other purpose, but must be replenished by the sale of bonds whenever it is reduced below a certain amount. In pursuance of previous laws, as well as of the one under consideration, the coinage of the silver bullion purchased under the Sherman Act is going on, and the silver dollars so produced are gradually taking the place of the Treasury notes issued under that act. Eventually there will be 578,000,000 of silver dollars outstanding, which the law says shall be maintained at a parity with gold dollars; but the act makes no provision for redeeming them in gold, and provides no special fund for that purpose.

This incongruity in the measure led to the question, which assumed some importance in the progress of the campaign, What would Mr. Bryan do if he were elected President? Would he "pay out silver" for interest and principal of the bonded debt? Mr. Bryan at first declined to answer the question, but near the end of the campaign he said that the Republicans were asking him to construe the law when they could not agree upon the construction of it among themselves. He would execute the law, whatever it was; but since it was inconsistent with itself, he would not undertake to construe it beforehand. There was force in this answer. The law is inconsistent. It is self-contradictory in the sense that it requires the Secretary to do a certain thing without supplying him with the means to do it.

The particular thing is the requirement to maintain the parity of the silver dollar with the gold dollar—the thing of most importance in the financial world now and hereafter. The incongruity in the law was made more glaring by the fact that the bill, as passed by the House, actually contained a provision requiring the redemption of silver dollars with gold, on demand of any holder of the former, and gave the Secretary as ample powers for this purpose as for the redemption of greenbacks. This feature was stricken out by the Senate. It may have been stricken out for political effect—that is, to bring about the very controversy in the campaign to which reference has been made. Senator Allison, however, said that it was dropped because the Senate would not have passed the bill if the silver redemption clause had been retained.

Leaving that question aside with the burnt powder of the campaign, it is the plain duty of Congress to go on and finish the bill as it was begun, and not leave open such a wide door for future disaster as might occur if business conditions should recur like those of 1884-5 and 1892-3. In the former case the Treasury was saved from the necessity of "paying out silver" by the public-spirited action of the banks of New York, which advanced to the Secretary sufficient gold to tide him over the crisis. In the second case the Secretary was saved from a silver cataclysm by resorting to the sale of bonds under old and forgotten laws, which many persons deemed obsolete. Although the Government escaped bankruptcy, the crisis in the business world was terrific, and the ruins have not wholly passed from view yet. Nobody entitled to be classed as an economist will deny that business conditions which should seriously lessen the demand for money for retail trade would embarrass the Treasury and compel it to "pay out silver," that is, to do the very thing which Mr. Bryan was asked if he would do in case of his election.

Is there any political reason why Congress should not now complete its unfinished Gold Standard Act at the coming session? We can see none. It is not probable that the Democrats would offer any serious resistance to it. They have been so beaten and humiliated on the Sound Money issue that they will cast it to the winds on the first opportunity, if they are wise. They can properly say that as the country has decided the case against them twice—the second time more decisively than the first—they will abandon that issue. This, in our opinion, they will do in any event. The recent election was not merely an eye-opener: it was a head-opener. The party, if it is to live at all, must follow new lines and new leadership. But if the Democratic Senators should plant themselves against an amendment of the Gold Standard Act, whose object is to make it effectual for its declared purpose and shield the country from perils of which it has had direful experience in the past, then so much the worse for them. If the Republicans ever had a "mandate" in an election, it is this one—to go forward and complete the work they began when they passed the act of March 14, 1900.

LEADERS OF A DEMOCRACY.

Before Mr. Bryan passes into that retirement which, for a time at least, must be grateful even to himself, his candidacy and its second failure may well be used to point afresh an old moral respecting the kind of men a democracy delights to honor. His extraordinary canvass undoubtedly called out some extraordinary tributes to his personality. It was not merely that the crowd ran agape after him, as it did after his rough-riding opponent. He often seemed to elicit, in addition, a sentiment of almost idolatrous devotion. Some of it was feigned or misleading, but much of it was genuine; and there was enough of it to turn a solider head than his. It needs a grim and clear-sighted man like Cromwell to say, in the face of acclaiming thousands, "They would come out even more gladly to see me hanged." Yet it is clear now that Mr. Bryan did not win the whole-hearted confidence of the very masses to whom he made his most direct appeals. They flocked to see and hear him; they shouted approval of his words; but they did not vote for him as he expected. It was the old story over again of a demagogue not really knowing the nature of the people he was trying to lead. If Mr. Bryan had had a better cause, his character would have pulled it down; the parts of his cause that were good could not overcome the distrust of his person.

The truth is, that Mr. Bryan sinned against what Lowell calls the "finer instincts" of a democracy. Among them is a vague and often confused and misdirected, but always unmistakable, impulse to admire what is better than itself. Again and again has it been shown in this country and in England that the public man who makes himself common will fail to win the hearts of even ordinary, workaday citizens, who, in their secret souls, wish to be represented by some one decidedly uncommon. There is an ideal strain, an instinct of reverence for distinction and greatness, in the make-up of the American commonalty, and woe to the aspiring politician who permanently ignores it. Mr. Bryan went steadily from bad to worse in this respect, throughout his campaign. Rough-and-tumble ways will go some distance with a democracy, but they will never reach the goal. A mere agitator has never yet received the highest rewards within the gift of the American people, nor has a mere jester. It is just as impossible for Mr. Depew to become President as it is for Mr. Bryan. A high seriousness is required in the man who is permanently to satisfy the latent hero-worship of all great democracies. Mr. Bryan too often erred by displays of jocoseness in public.

Besides his posturing too openly as a demagogue, besides his being far too "lavish of his presence," and jesting with too much ease in public, Mr. Bryan failed on account of the impression he gave of being an unstable man of too little ballast. He was a fertile, audacious, masterful, tireless campaigner, but, when all was said, was he the man good terms. For the rest, Salisbury's speech was that of a statesman less jubilant over his new lease of power than depressed by the crushing load of responsibility laid upon his shoulders. He was pessimistic about China, pessimistic about South Africa; threw cold water on the question of army reform, though he admitted that the defences of the country must be carefully looked to, and that domestic legislation must take a very subordinate place; and, in general, "thought aloud" in his characteristic way, with the effect of producing gloom and despondency in his hearers. If the British Empire is really "a weary Titan," Lord Salisbury is the very one to be its spokesman.

Sir Wilfrid Laurier's victory, like Lord Salisbury's and President McKinley's, was essentially a triumph for Opportunism. Feeling that party principles were made to win elections, not to embarrass parties in power, the Canadian Liberals have generally appropriated the Conservative policy of paternalism, including a protective tariff, subsidies to railroads and steamship lines, and the providing of terminal facilities at seaports; while so far as loyalty to the Empire is concerned, the English papers feel that Sir Wilfrid is the peer of Sir Charles Tupper, whose professed stock-in-trade was patriotism. The Conservative opposition to Minister Tarte and the over emphasis of anti-French prejudices only served to increase the Liberal representation in Quebec from 51 to 57 out of 65 seats. This was to have been expected, and it is doubtful if the Conservatives gained any votes in English Canada from their exploitation of race feeling. It is more difficult to account for the Conservatives' ignominious defeat in their old stronghold, the Maritime Provinces. One must suppose that the argument from prosperity worked with especial force in this comparatively poor part of the Dominion.

Only the prosperous province of Ontario was deaf to the prosperity argument. There the Conservative campaign had been waged with much energy, not to say bitterness, on the issue of Liberal corruption, and in the election of 53 out of 92 members of Parliament, practically turning the tables on the Liberals, the defeated party should find a crumb of comfort. In the West and Northwest, too, the Conservatives and the Independents gained against the Liberals, though falling far short of the promised clean sweep. What is of especial interest in the election is the redistribution of territory between the parties. They divide now on the Ottawa. To the east is Liberal land; to the west, Conservative. It should be said, finally, that the rout of the Conservatives is even more complete than is indicated by Sir Wilfrid's majority of something more than 50 out of 213 seats; for the Liberals played havoc with the Conservative leaders in important constituencies. Sir Charles Tupper himself, and his lieutenant, ex-Minister Foster, fell in the East. Hardest blow of all, Hugh John Macdonald, the rising hope of the Canadian Tories, yielded to Minister Sifton in Manitoba. This leaves the Conservatives sorely crippled, and, unless some readjustment of seats be made, virtually leaderless in Parliament. It is a bad year for Opposition parties.

"Consider, I pray you, and see how he seeketh a quarrel against me." The Chinese Emperor might well make these words of the King of Israel his own, as he reads the extraordinary demands which the Powers are now making upon China. It certainly looks as if the policy agreed upon were intended to drive the Chinese to despair or armed protest, or else to press them to the point of exhaustion and practical destruction of their nationality. This huge indemnity of $600,000,000—why, it would tax the resources of a great industrial nation to pay it. For China it would mean simply the starvation of millions. This is no exaggeration. Increase taxation in China by any considerable percentage (as would, of course, be necessary), and so narrow is the margin between food and lack of it, in the case of the masses of the swarming Chinese population, that graves would be filled faster than the Treasury. It is said, to be sure, that the Powers will find the money for China, taking land or customs duties for security; but this is only a roundabout way of exercising oppression. Very fittingly with this demand goes the prohibition of Chinese armaments, and a veto on the importation of guns and ammunition. First drive a people to desperation; then deny them the right or means of self-defence. There could not well be a more deliberate attack on Chinese sovereignty by Powers which are professing the strongest desire to cherish and strengthen it.

What is the United States doing in this Chinese galley? Our Minister is consulting and voting with the other diplomats in Pekin. By so much we are in the concert. But it is evident, if the best Washington dispatches are trustworthy, that Mr. Conger is being outvoted, and the more moderate proposals of this country set aside for the extreme measures adopted. Secretary Hay is reported to be very much annoyed at the severity of the demands presented at Pekin. He considers them to smack too much of bloodthirstiness and greed. Well, how long are we going to identify ourselves with a policy which we disapprove? It seems to us high time for the United States to dissociate itself from the concert of the Powers in this matter, just as it did in the question of retaining an army in China. Our independent and honorable lead in the withdrawal of troops undoubtedly had an immense moral effect at the time, and practically forced the hand of the other nations. But for our prompt and resolute action, military operations on an enormous scale might at this moment be going on in China. Has not the hour struck for the Administration again to blaze a path in this Chinese business, by openly protesting against a policy of cruelty and extortion, and proceeding, if necessary, to settle our differences with China independently? We think that the State Department has before it a golden opportunity to assert a moral leadership, and to win a victory for peace no less renowned than one of war. Already the European press is in a flutter over the mere rumor that the United States will refuse to have part or lot in the diplomatic spoliation of China. This is an indication of the moral uncertainty which marks the attitude of the Powers.

Sir Robert Hart, the British manager of the Chinese customs service, who was in Pekin during the dark days of June and July, has written an article for the *Fortnightly Review* on the cause of the attack upon the legations. The Boxers, he says, could have done no harm to the legations had not the allied forces bombarded the Taku forts. This assault was construed by the Chinese Government as an act of war—naturally so. In accordance with the usual custom in such cases, the Government which was attacked sent notice to the ambassadors of the attacking forces to quit Pekin within twenty-four hours, but the latter would not do so. They supposed, of course, that the attack on the forts would not be made without an immediate advance to Pekin to relieve the legations. They waited for it, but it did not come. Weeks passed. The Chinese regulars in Pekin could have demolished the legation buildings and killed the occupants any day they chose, had they not been restrained by some person or persons of influence. It appears, therefore, that the Chinese trouble was mainly, if not wholly, caused by an act of unauthorized and senseless violence, committed by the representatives of the civilized nations—an act which put in peril all the Europeans in Pekin and sacrificed the lives of many throughout the country, and brought on the crisis which is still pending. And the civilized folks, forsooth, are now asking themselves how much indemnity they shall require the heathen Chinese to pay on account of the war they made upon them when they attacked the Taku forts!

held back pending the election, have been given out. The ship-building trade is in full tide of prosperity, and new yards are in course of construction. The exportation of steel and iron products to foreign countries has been actively resumed from both Northern and Southern mills. The exportation of coal in large amounts will begin as soon as the necessary freight room can be obtained. Even more significant is the demand for money: call loans, which ruled at 2 per cent. or less during the summer, are now at 4 per cent., and the demand is so active that importations of gold would take place but for the heavy sales of our securities in London and Berlin to American buyers. While these indications of returning prosperity are to be welcomed, it is easy to "overdo the business" both on the Stock Exchange and elsewhere.

AN EXAMPLE FOR NEW YORK.

The Republican boss insists upon two lines of policy regarding the government of the city which are directly calculated to continue Tammany in control of the administration. Platt declares that the Legislature must pass his State Constabulary scheme, by which the control of the police here is to be taken from the city and given to an official appointed by the Republican Governor, who will represent the Republican machine. He asserts that "the Republicans will never accept [for Mayor] a man who voted for free silver and went about making speeches for Bryan"; that the only sort of a Democrat whom he will consider for the place is a Sound-Money Democrat.

A more ingenious scheme for keeping Tammany in power could not be devised. Intelligent sentiment, without regard to party, is strongly against the State Constabulary scheme. Platt himself admits that the newspapers oppose it, although, of course, he does not think that the attitude of the press should count for anything. It would be the most flagrant violation of the principle of home rule which has been committed since the old days when the police force was ruled from Albany, with no end of scandals; and it would give Tammany the tremendous advantage in next year's campaign of standing for the maintenance of a sound principle.

As for ruling out of consideration for the Mayoralty all men who supported Bryan, both the spirit of the Constitution and the principle of fair play are affronted by the idea. The reason for changing the time for electing the Mayor from the even-numbered to the odd years was that there might be no excuse left for connecting national politics with municipal affairs. It will make no difference to either party as a national organization whether the metropolis, in a year when no State or Federal officials are chosen, shall elect for Mayor an Imperialist or an Anti-Imperialist, a man who supported McKinley or Bryan or Woolley. On the other hand, to rule out of consideration for the Mayoralty any one of the majority of voters who voted on November 6 for Bryan on the Presidential issue, is to drive off at the start in droves men whose ballots will be essential to the defeat of Tammany.

An example for New York city was set by Providence, R. I., which deserves careful attention. Brayton has long been as much the Republican boss in Rhode Island as Platt in New York, and he tries to run the politics of the chief city as well as of the State. Providence is a large manufacturing centre, and contains a mass of voters not at all above the average. The city is normally Republican, so that the conditions for Brayton have been favorable. Nevertheless, the principle of non-partisanship in municipal government has steadily gained ground. Since 1890 Mr. D. L. D. Granger, a Democrat, has been chosen City Treasurer at every election, solely on the ground that he was honest and efficient. The same thing has been true, during the decade, of Mr. Cumings, the Overseer of the Poor. Indeed, of late years the Republicans have often regarded it as useless to nominate candidates against them. In 1896 the city went strongly for McKinley, and at the same time for a Democratic Mayor.

This year the Good Government party undertook to promote Mr. Granger to the office of Mayor. At first, people generally felt that opposition to him would be merely nominal. The Republican machine men, however, thought the chance to come in with the McKinley landslide was too good to throw away. Accordingly they put up a respectable business man, spent money freely, and made a sharp fight. Mr. Granger himself, who is not ashamed of his opinions, contributed to his rival's strength by frankly admitting that he should vote for Bryan. At once the cry arose, like Platt's wail over Coler, that Mr. Granger had sinned away his day of grace by advocating free silver. Reputable and solid citizens, who knew better, signed a paper urging voters to declare against financial heresy by defeating Mr. Granger. Partisan shouts became so loud that, just before the election, friends of Mr. Granger said that, had he held his tongue, no serious argument could have been raised against him, but that now the outcome was in grave doubt.

Fortunately the voters were not disturbed by the noise, but kept their attention on the real issue. They declared against financial heresy by giving McKinley a plurality of more than 5,000, and they declared for a clean local government by giving Mr. Granger a plurality of nearly 1,800. The independent voter showed unusual discrimination by marking his ballot, first for Republican electors and a Republican Congressman, then for a Democratic Mayor, then for a Republican Treasurer who for twenty-five years had been an acceptable Assistant Treasurer, then for a Democratic Overseer of the Poor, and finally for a Republican Harbormaster.

If in the heat of the Presidential battle the independent movement can reach such headway in Providence, we need not despair of New York in an election which is purely municipal. Tammany can be overthrown if our voters will show the same spirit and intelligence.

HENRY VILLARD.

Henry Villard was born Heinrich Hilgard in Speyer, Rhenish Bavaria, on April 11, 1835. The family surname, variously spelled—in one form, Hiliard—occurs somewhat widely in German village nomenclature. His was the Nassau stock settled upon the middle course of the River Lahn, with Wetzlar for its early focus. His first known ancestor, Johann Hilgard, a landowner, who died before 1626, was a member of the Reformed Church; and the fourth, fifth, and sixth generations were represented by pastors. Of these, Gerhard Samuel wrote in 1792, at seventy-five, 'A Defence of the Revealed Christian Religion,' against the deism and natural religion of the French Revolution. His son Jacob, on the other hand, also a clergyman, and allied by marriage with the French Protestant and clerical line of Engelmann (Angeaume), forfeited his place at Bacharach, on the Rhine, in consequence of his sympathy with the Revolution, was expelled, and his family dispersed. Republican sentiments at a later period cost Jacob's son Fritz his office of Oberbürgermeister in Speyer, through royal disfavor. Two of Fritz's sons joined their freedom-loving uncle Theodor (father of Julius Hilgard, who became Superintendent of the United States Coast Survey) in the notable migration of the connection to Belleville, Illinois, in 1835. The eldest son, Gustav (1807-1867), remained at home in the judicial service of the Bavarian Government, moving from place to place, according to promotion, and ending Judge of the Supreme Court at Munich. He was the father of Heinrich, the subject of the present notice.

In 1849 the boy was attending the gymnasium in Zweibrücken, the family home for ten years, when the outbreak of the Revolution caused the father to put him to school at the then fortified town of Phalsbourg, in Lorraine, where the future novelist Chatrian grounded him in the French language. A year later he passed to the gymnasium at Speyer; but in October, 1853, he broke off his university studies, and, in a spirit of adventure, set out for the United States, intending to join the colony of his cultivated relatives at Belleville. Interchange of letters with them had always been kept up, and Heinrich's curiosity about this country had been greatly excited. He was an only son, but in any case the step could hardly have been approved by his father, whose opposition was, in fact, such that the boy resolved, if he could not make a name for himself, not to unmake his own—borrowed the kindred appellation of a French schollard involved in unexpected outlays, beyond the engineers' estimates, for the most difficult portions of the Northern Pacific extension. In vain he strove to maintain them—not more for himself and his prestige than from sympathy for his friends embarked with him—by pouring in his private fortune till it was almost exhausted. They could not escape the general collapse, and he remained the heaviest loser as he was the largest individual owner of the properties. This fact did not save him from bitter reproaches and opprobrium on the part of those who classed him among the vulgar faithless magnates of Wall Street; and this caused him a thousand times more pain than his pecuniary losses. That his mind did not give way in the terrible stress, is proof of the soundness of his moral fibre. He was depressed, his health forbade his continuing at the helm, he sought rest with his family abroad; but he kept to his faith in the future of the road and the coast, and abated nothing of his interest in the building up of the Far Western empire.

During his sojourn in Germany, he formed new financial relations which enabled him to repair his fortune, and to return to the United States with much of his old prestige as a capitalist. His ever keen interest in inventions of great public utility early attracted him to the commercial development of electricity, and made him an ardent believer in the profitableness of it. He was one of the first to encourage Edison with pecuniary aid in those experiments which resulted in the incandescent lamp now in universal use. In 1890 he purchased from this inventor his electrical manufacturing interests, including the Edison Lamp Co. at Newark, N. J., and the Edison Machine Works at Schenectady, N. Y., and from these organized the Edison General Electric Co., of which he became President, serving in that capacity for about two years. This company has become one of the largest electrical manufacturing establishments in the world.

It had been Mr. Villard's intention to bid good-by to railroad management altogether, and it was against his better judgment that, in October, 1889, he yielded to the entreaties of his old associates and assumed the chairmanship of the Northern Pacific Board of Directors. The commercial panic of 1893, and the consequent hard times and falling off in immigrants, on the transportation of whom the road largely depended for its profits, again dragged down the Northern Pacific, and led to Mr. Villard's regaining the quiet life for which he longed. He made many journeys to Europe, and, in the summer of 1899, ten years after he had beheld Seattle in flames, he paid a farewell visit to the Pacific Coast, where he was received with genuine manifestations of affection and respect that touched him profoundly. He also made for the first time the Alaskan tour, penetrating to the Klondike, and summed up his impressions of the total excursion in a series of letters to the *Evening Post*, afterwards printed in pamphlet form. His summer home continued to be at "Thorwood," Dobb's Ferry on the Hudson, amid spacious grounds in which he delighted to wander with his dogs; and here, on November 12, he passed away. His wife and daughter and two sons survive him.

Nature cast Mr. Villard in a generous mould. He was a man of commanding stature with a large and striking head, finely cut features, and a truly noble countenance. His manners were simple and unaffected, his associations and hospitality singularly democratic, his living temperate. His friendships were strong and lasting, and wholly uninfluenced by his rise to wealth and power. To his kindred, near and remote, he was beneficence itself. His conversation, owing to his extraordinary experience and marvellous memory (or "eventuality," in phrenological parlance), was always most interesting. As a speaker, on business or ceremonial occasions, he was lucid, felicitous, and impressive. In both speaking and writing the English language, there were traces of the foreigner, in accent and in idiom, but these were insignificant. His mind, which teemed with large ideas and projects, had also a rare capacity for details, and his observation was as minutely critical as it was swift and comprehensive. This made him a capital traveller and reporter. The grand scale suited his contemplation best—the sublime in nature or in architecture, the unlimited scope of human invention. He never visited London without spending some hours in Westminster Abbey. To a marked self-confidence he united a childlike and magnanimous disposition; to a sense of the ludicrous, a certain deficiency in humor. He retained the German punctiliousness as to birthdays, and shared the delight of the youngest in the Christmas-tree. Towards children he was extremely fond and tender, and the severest blow of his life was when he lost his late-born namesake, who, as an infant in arms, had participated in driving the last spike on the Northern Pacific Railroad.

As was said of the late John M. Forbes, Mr. Villard "never seemed a man of acquisitiveness, but very distinctly one of constructiveness." Money for its own sake he never sought or coveted. He was no speculator, nor had he any proper place in Wall Street in the conventional sense. He held his gains strictly in trust, and his thoughts were ever occupied with giving. He paid the penalty of conspicuous fortune in being beset with absurd and impudent claims upon his bounty, and in the ingratitude of beneficiaries. But he did not wait to be asked, and his range was catholic, on both sides of the Atlantic. To the Oregon and Washington State Universities, to Harvard, to Columbia, to the Metropolitan Museum of Art and the Natural History Museum in Central Park, he was a munificent donor. While Washington was yet a Territory, the Legislature having failed to provide for its budding University, he bore all its expenses for two years, without ever being reimbursed. In Germany, his monuments are the buildings of the hospital and training-school at Speyer, the orphan asylum at Zweibrücken; endowments of the industrial museum at Kaiserslautern, of the great Red Cross Hospital at Munich, and of the Children's Hospital in Berlin; foundations for scholarships in art schools, gymnasia, and universities. On the one hand, he remembered his birthplace with a volume, edited under the auspices of the Pfalz Historical Society, containing the earliest historical documents relating to Speyer; on the other, he supported Bandelier in his invaluable researches in South American history and archæology. This list is by no means exhaustive, and to trace the minor streams of his incessant benevolence were impossible.

Politically, Mr. Villard, who reached the land of his adoption in the midst of the anti-slavery excitement attendant upon the operation of the Fugitive Slave Law, soon to be reinforced by the passage of the Nebraska Bill, was from the first a Republican. He was never, however, a mere partisan, and he early strengthened the hands of Mr. Jenckes, the father of civil-service reform in this country, inviting him, on behalf of the Social Science Association, to make a memorable address in New York, which enlisted George William Curtis in the cause, and was productive of other far-reaching effects. Mr. Villard shared, on this side and on the side of free trade, in the hopes of the reformers of 1872, but refused to go with those who accepted Greeley as their standard-bearer. He was in general sympathy with the views and policy of the *Nation*, for whose editor, Mr. E. L. Godkin, he cherished a high admiration. In the spring of 1881, a conjunction arose which enabled him to serve three friends while lending a powerful support to independent journalism. Mr. Carl Schurz, after having been a member of Hayes's Cabinet, was practically removed from politics; Mr. Godkin was feeling the strain of the editorial conduct of the *Nation*, a struggling concern; Mr. Horace White, withdrawn from the Chicago *Tribune* and connected in New York with Mr. Villard's business enterprises, was ready to reënter journalism. Mr. Villard accordingly effected, with a controlling interest, the purchase of the *Evening Post* and the *Nation*, and placed at the head the triumvirate just named, with explicit guarantees of absolute editorial independence of himself. Regarded in the light of a repayment of his American citizenship, or of devotion to his friends, or of pure public spirit aiming at the elevation of political standards and national ideas, perhaps nothing in Mr. Villard's whole career was more disinterested, or more creditable and worthy to be remembered to his honor. This can be said irrespective of any judgment that may be passed upon the course of the *Evening Post* since July, 1881.

For better or worse, this journalistic experiment has been a positive force in the political contention of the past two decades, and must be reckoned with in summing up Mr. Villard's title to distinction and gratitude. It fairly places him among the small number of German-Americans who have made a marked impress on our public life and policy—beside Lieber, the publicist, and Schurz, the journalist, orator, and statesman. His services in linking the east and west coasts together are also to be estimated in terms of national character-building as well as of national unity and material expansion. In this particular achievement he fulfilled the fur-trader Astor's aspiration, but in how different a spirit—with personal gain subordinated to zeal in the subduing of a wilderness to civilization. He resembled Astor again in rearing spiritual and charitable monuments alike in the fatherland and in the fosterland, but on a more liberal scale, both absolutely and relatively to his means, and with broader sympathies and a superior enlightenment. It is not, however, as a German that Mr. Villard deserves to be, or will be, remembered. He was an American patriot, an American idealist, an American philanthropist. His place of birth, like his accumulated wealth, was accidental. While he must have a high place in any history of German immigration, such as that essayed by his friend Friedrich Kapp, the moral of his career lies not in adventure, but in character. To heredity its due; to environment its due. We mourn to-day a man of the New World.

UP THE IRTISH RIVER.

SEMIPALATINSK, September 5, 1900.

From Krasnoyarsk on the Yenisei to Omsk on the Irtish River is 738 miles, but nearly the whole of this distance is within and directly across the drainage basin of the Obi River. The Tchulim River, one of the principal eastern tributaries of the Obi, is crossed at Atchensk, only forty miles west of Krasnoyarsk. Indeed, in one place where the streams are still navigable, they are within six miles of each other. It is a singular fact of physical geography that all the long branches of the Yenisei are on the east side, while most of those of the Obi are on the western side. But really the proper continuation of the Obi is its middle branch, the Irtish, which is in itself a river 1,800 miles in length, whose source is far up on the Mongolian plateau.

The garden of western Siberia lies in the valley of the Obi for a distance of three hundred miles south of the fifty-sixth degree of latitude. Here there are 100,000 square miles of well-watered, fertile prairie land, with a climate permitting the ripening of the most important cereals, and in every way as well adapted to cultivation as are the plains of Minnesota. Already there is in this belt a population of nearly 3,000,000. Much of the territory is also underlaid by coal-bearing deposits. Although these are mostly of Jurassic age, and carry a coal that is light—almost lignite—still it promises to supply the want of fuel fairly well, and is being mined extensively. Throughout most of Siberia, wood is still so plentiful that the locomotives ordinarily use it for fuel; but here they use domestic coal.

At all the important places in Siberia touched by the railroad, new cities are growing up about the stations. The old cities are built almost entirely of wood. Even most of the best houses are of logs. But the new cities are growing up like magic out of brick. In due time all will have to follow suit and build of brick, for the wood is rapidly disappearing. Logs are, however, the easiest material from which to construct a house suited to withstand the severe winters of Siberia. Brick houses here have to be of double walls with air spaces enclosed. But the making of brick is already serving a good purpose in diversifying the home industries. It is now one of the most prominent of the manufacturing interests.

The name of the station where the railroad crosses the Obi River is Ob, which until lately has not appeared on the maps. The old city on the river was called Krivostchekova, and was an important place of 10,000 inhabitants. Connected with this place by steamer up the river are the flourishing cities of Barnaul and Bisk, with populations respectively of 29,000 and 18,000; while a short distance below is Tomsk, with a population of 55,000, and a university of wide renown. One finds, therefore, that in coming to this part of Siberia, he is not out of the world. The mass of the people look and appear much as they do in any European city. The teachers in the schools are highly educated men. More than once, when my Russian and French were insufficient for conversation, I have been asked if I could converse in Latin.

But Omsk, on the Irtish, is 333 miles west of Ob. Here we find a city, 184 years old, of 42,000 inhabitants, which reminds us more of America than anything else we have seen. Not that the architecture is like ours, for it is not. The houses are nearly all of logs, and the schools and other public buildings of brick in plain style, painted white. The churches, too, are typically Russian, with lofty domes and cupolas. But there is a brisk commercial air about the place, which reminds one of the towns on the Ohio River. Steamboats are coming and going, and the barges they have brought in are busy unloading their cargoes. Numerous rafts have also come down the river loaded with watermelons. In the stores the display of fruit is remarkable. But it is all imported.

Our plan led us here to leave the railway and go up the river about 600 miles to Semipalatinsk, and thence by tarantass 1,100 miles to Tashkend, where we shall find steam connection the rest of the way home. But we found, when already on the steamer, that the water in the Irtish was so low that they would ticket us only to Pavlodar, about half way. We should then have to take our risk about finding boats the rest of the distance. But as we could get a tarantass there as well as anywhere we did not change our plans. The ride for the first 300 miles up the Irtish is in most respects monotonous. The banks are low. There is not a mountain or hill in sight, and there are no forests. But there are other things of great interest. We are in a region inhabited by Kirghiz Tartars, and both they and their houses and habits are strange. Their houses are circular, dome-shaped tents, covered with skins of animals or felt. They raise thousands of cattle, sheep, and horses, which we frequently encounter as they are brought down to the river to drink. The men ride not only horses, but steers and camels as well. We had been surprised, in the market in Omsk, to see a camel hitched to a wagon and driven like a horse. We did not expect to see camels in latitude 55 degrees. Here, only two degrees further south, we saw many. In one case two were hitched to a familiar American mowing-machine, and walking along with it through the grass at a rapid rate.

At Pavlodar we were compelled to abandon the boat, and go the remaining 200 miles by land. This brought us still nearer to the people, and did not delay us any, for the windings of the river are so many, and the Russians drive so fast, that we did not lose any time. We found ourselves, also, to be but one of several parties which were going nearly to our destination—*i. e.*, several hundred miles—in tarantasses. One thing makes it easy to drive up the banks of the Irtish, namely, the fact that for several hundred miles the river has no tributaries. There were no streams to ford or gullies to cross. Saline lakes were drying up within a half-mile of the bank. There are no trees except along the river bank. Cattle and horses are herded by the Tartars back from the river, and hay is gathered in common meadow-land on the wide river bottoms. At this season of the year the trees were rapidly putting on their autumn colors; the first frosts were wilting the weeds; and hundreds of parties of quaint natives were stacking the hay, or hauling small loads of it near their houses. The entire distance was a scene of rare pastoral beauty and animation.

The Irtish valley has played an important part in history from the fact that it is one of the two or three natural gateways to Central Asia, rising by imperceptible gradients to the plains of Mongolia. Lake Zeizan, about half way up the plateau, is an enlargement of the river well nigh as large as Lake Erie. More than once the hordes of Central Asia, goaded on by the failing crops of that rapidly desiccating region, have poured down this valley and overwhelmed the settlements below.

Semipalatinsk was reached in two days and a half. This is a city of 35,000 inhabitants, at the head of navigation of the Irtish. But an immense amount of timber and of other coarse products is brought down from the upper portion of the river basin on rafts. Indeed, all the logs for the Russian houses are rafted down from far up the stream. The city is situated in a vast plain, with only a few mountains in the west in sight. About 150 miles to the southeast are the lofty peaks of the Altai Mountains, some of them rising 11,000 feet and supporting large glaciers. These mountains are also full of profitable gold-mines, and contain many fertile valleys watered by mountain streams.

The city was founded in 1718, when a fort was built here by the Russians as a defence against the lawless and disaffected Kirghiz Tartars. But these have long since become good and loyal subjects of the Tsar, and mosques and churches now stand side by side, as if they were products of the same civilization. The territory tributary to the city has a population of several hundred thousand, and is so full of resources as to insure the permanence and, indeed, continued growth of the place. It has several large mills and manufacturing establishments, a museum and library, and numerous schools, both public and private. Of the private schools, nine are Mohammedan. The view of the city from a distance was enchanting. Some of the enchantment, but none of the interest, was dissipated upon close acquaintance. With its predominant population of native but thoroughly Russified Mohammedans, it was an appetizing foretaste of the long ride we were to take through the Steppes of Tartary, in front of the border of the great plateau of Central Asia to the historic city of Tashkend. G. FREDERICK WRIGHT.

Correspondence.

FARM-BURNING IN SOUTH AFRICA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: If Mr. Allison or any one else doubts the possibility of Boer women and children being turned out to starve when their houses are burned over their heads, let him read the paper of Col. H. B. Hanna in the London *Speaker* of October 27. Col. Hanna says that Lord Roberts "has descended to barbarities more worthy of a Tilly in the seventeenth century than of a British general in the nineteenth." "He has indeed abstained from burning down cities and menacing their inhabitants; but he has destroyed the homes of thousands, and left women and children to perish of hunger and cold; not because he desired their death, but because he was at his wits' end to feed and protect his own men, and because he still believes in pacification by terror, though his Afghan experience ought to have taught him better."

In a South African newspaper before me is a proclamation by Lord Roberts, ordering that if injury is done to any railways or other public works, all those resident on the spot shall be presumed guilty of connivance and their farms shall be burned. Twenty-three farms are condemned by the names of the owners, and others by local description. It seems likely that in some cases the only inhabitants would be women and children, the men being in the field or having been killed.

We read the other day a letter from a kind-hearted soldier of Lord Roberts's army who spoke with pity of the homesteads burning along the line of march, and of the women and children who were seen trying to pick some little things out of the ashes of their homes. EQUITY.

November 10, 1900.

SLIPS OF THE PEN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: How does so good a scholar and so excellent a writer as Prof. Mark H. Liddell come to assign the 'Anabasis' of Xenophon to the sixth century B. C. and the Georgics of Virgil to the first century A. D., as he does in his very thoughtful article in the opening number of the *World's Work?* I hope it is not a sign that one's culture rests on a wrong basis to look for a little more accuracy in regard to the leading dates of classical literature from writers who undertake to discuss the proper place of that literature in education.—Yours very truly, BACK NUMBER.

OTTAWA, CANADA, October 29, 1900.

[We have, to save time, submitted this criticism to Professor Liddell, whose comment we append.—ED. NATION.]

SIR: I am very sorry that I overlooked the two blunders in chronology which your correspondent points out. He is quite right in expecting accuracy in such elementary matters from writers who undertake to discuss the proper place of classical literature in education. But it was rather the proper place of English literature in education that I undertook to discuss in my paper. My unfamiliarity with classical scholarship, if your correspondent will argue it from these slips, is not so vital to my contention, therefore, as would be the evidence of an ignorance of English.

But I feel sure that he will give me the benefit of the doubt and accept a plea,

> "Culpam in facto non scelus esse meo."

I am especially prone to agraphia, and have bitter cause to deplore the fact every time proof-sheets come home to me from the printers. In the present instance it was the dread of being victimized by it that led me to have the dates verified, and in the process of verification the century of Cyrus the Great slipped in for that of Cyrus the Younger, while the original offender "A. D." for "B. C." was allowed to remain with the added countenance of a *particeps criminis.* The readers, trusting to my accuracy, overlooked the errors; *hinc illæ lachrimæ.*

This not by way of excuse or palliation, but in explanation, as I have frequently had school-boys urge on me in like circumstances.

"Back Number" is not such an out-of-date reader of the *Nation* as he would have you suppose, for he has seen, I think, the drift of my paper, which is not a reckless attack upon classical training, but an attempt to bring educated men to see the necessity of better English teaching as a preliminary step to gaining an appreciation of the value of English study as a means of culture, and to giving English Literature its rightful place in our educational system. Nor (if I may be allowed one word more) have I failed to recognize the fact that neither a series of brief and faulty magazine articles, nor a few years' campaign of spasmodic enthusiasms, can bring about this end. It will come slowly if it comes at all—and I hope and pray that it may—after the careful and sober consideration of many intelligent men who not only know the proved benefit of classical culture, but have enough knowledge of our own language and literature, and sufficient confidence in the intellectual life of the English mind, to appreciate the true values of English culture. And that is the work of time—perhaps of a longer time than I myself should like to admit.

Yours contritely, MARK H. LIDDELL.

EAST ORANGE, N. J., November 3, 1900.

PHI BETA KAPPA CATALOGUE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I wish to call attention to the shortcomings of the Hand-book and General-Address Catalogue of the United Chapters of Phi Beta Kappa, just issued by the Secretary of the United Chapters. I have examined carefully the list of one of the chapters with which I am familiar. Out of 491 living members of the Chapter, not including the class of 1900, the names of only 375 appear in the list. There appear here also the names of two men who are not members of the Chapter. I think it no exaggeration to say that in 30 per cent. of the names published for this chapter there is an error of some kind, either in the name itself, the degree, the title, the profession assigned, or the address. The book, moreover, presents a poor appearance typographically. There is no running title, no indication as to the order in which the chapters appear, and, worse than all, no general index.

It seems to me something of a disgrace that a fraternity which comprises the best-educated men and women of the country should be represented before the public by such a slipshod publication. N.

HISTORY AND LITERATURE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your discussion of the relation between History and Literature (No. 1843, p. 325) presents an interesting phase of the large question of erudition and education in their mutual relations.

In order to redeem the cause of education, our universities must be organized as for erudition. The chief obstacle in the way of the humanities is offered by perverted and unsound methods of early instruction, especially the clouding and contaminating of the liberal arts by pseudo-scientific procedure. The intellectual inertia that ever tends to such abuse is protected and fostered through the popular pressure for a preferred academic distinction; prescriptive regulations, presumably designed to promote liberal culture, aggravate a malady which ought rather to be repressed by some sort of negative interference. The only way to a cure lies through academic freedom. The evil becomes graver as the higher education takes on more and more of a popular character. Every year there is a larger proportion of university students who can be further *instructed,* but have practically reached their limit of culture before entering college. Nevertheless, real instruction always carries somewhat of education with it. The former is the indispensable prerequisite of the latter; and the organization must be adapted to this principle.

Where subjects are arbitrarily tied together in so-called "general courses," along with a departmental system in which the members of the teaching force are not all strictly coördinate and independent, there will regularly be found not only a monstrous numerical misadjustment (in itself a formidable source of difficulty), but also, on the artistic or liberal side at any rate, all the unrealities bred by gratuitous prescription—cram examinations instead of tests of power, the qualitative replaced by a quantitative standard, formal instead of organic grammar, everything bouffe.

Pericles, while attributing to Athens an educating force for all Hellas, and presenting the typical Athenian as an example of the highest versatility and grace, points out that a true democracy enables individuals to obtain preferment through a free public recognition of their special abilities, ὡς ἕκαστος ἐν τῷ εὐδοκιμεῖ. Preferred *degrees* are undemocratic as well as visionary, creating as they do a hierarchy of studies, and at the same time assuming, within certain lines, a factitious equality of capacities—a sort of oligarchical equality, a levelling down to the mediocre.

But few teachers, and only a small minority of students, will impart or grasp the *idea* of any subject; the majority must deal mainly with facts, or, at the best, with scientific generalizations. Both classes, however, stand equally in need of academic freedom—if the facts are to be real, as far as they go, or if lovers of ideas are to have their opportunity. There is no room under any scheme of paternalism for the *Wahlverwandtschaften,* upward and downward, without which true learning can never thrive. ISAAC FLAGG.

BERKELEY, CALIFORNIA, November 1, 1900.

FORGED TERRACOTTAS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you allow me to warn your readers that a dangerous class of forgeries of Greek terracottas is now being extensively circulated in this country, and that the vendors—of whom there seem to be a number—have apparently found many victims? It is difficult to point out in words the differences which distinguish these from genuine Greek statuettes, and I shall not attempt to do so, for fear of making myself misunderstood. A family resemblance runs through all that I have seen, showing them to be probably the product of one workshop; and I am inclined to think that this is in Greece itself, so that the figures may be honestly called Greek, if not ancient. The favorite subjects seem to be girls seated either on rocks or chairs, in sentimental poses, sometimes with a Cupid clinging to them; and flying Cupids, frequently bearing objects such as musical instruments and the like; but these by no means exhaust the range. The girls have what may be called "Empire" figures, that is, high and rather narrow breasts, and long, slim waists; their heads are frequently more Japanese than Greek, with puffy cheeks and over-elaborated coiffures. The statuettes are baked, and the colors on them are as firm as they would be on genuine terracottas, so that the usual tests for unbaked or "made-up" figures give no results, and even the incrustation of earth or lime upon them is sometimes as hard as could be desired (harder, in fact). Those that I have seen are in an excellent state of "preservation," and, when broken, the breaks are always new and sharp. I have come across none yet in which an important piece is missing. Faces and forms alike are without blemish, though the colors are not so brilliant as to excite suspicion.

Having been deceived myself by the first of these I saw, I should be glad to have others profit by my experience. The ready sale they have had in America during the last five or six months has already brought others in their train, and in the interest of all collectors, public and private, it is important that a stop should be put to this traffic as soon as may be. Let me therefore urge amateurs not to buy any Greek terracottas, however pretty and attractive they may appear, without the advice of a competent expert in such matters. There is no class of forgeries more successful, and I do not know of a museum containing antiquities of this kind which has not been victimized by them. EDWARD ROBINSON.

MUSEUM OF FINE ARTS,
BOSTON, November 9, 1900.

SACK SHIP.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A correspondent, A. M. M., in the *Nation* of October 25, asks the meaning of the term "sack ships." Any one acquainted with Elizabethan literature will recognize the word "sack" from the French "sec" as applied to Sherry wine, sometimes written "sherri-sacke." Prince Hal's "O monstrous! but one half-penny worth of bread to this intolerable deal of sack" will readily occur to your readers. Spain has always been a great consumer of dried codfish—"bacallao." At the very beginning of the great Newfoundland fish trade the little West of England vessels caught so much cod that larger vessels had to be employed to carry the fish to the Spanish market; on their return these ships brought home sherry or "sack." In the records of the Tudor age they are spoken of as the "sack" ships to distinguish them from the ordinary fishing-vessels which came back with their crews each season to England. Any one interested in the subject will find further information in my 'History of Newfoundland from the Records.' D. W. PROWSE.

ST. JOHNS, NEWFOUNDLAND, November 8, 1900.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I would venture to suggest that this means a "ship" fitted out for the fisheries only, especially those of Nova Scotia and Newfoundland. See Littré: "Embarqué en *sac*, se dit des marins qui font un voyage à Terre-Neuve, et qui sont engagés seulement pour travailler à la pêche." T. S.

PHILADELPHIA, November 8, 1900.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: One of the meanings of the Spanish word *saca* is export. It has the same meaning in Portuguese, too; which explains, I think, such an expression as "sack ship."

Yours very respectfully, D. P.

Notes.

Dodd, Mead & Co. have in press Mr. Luther S. Livingston's new volume of 'American Book-Prices Current,' for 1900, the sixth in a series of which the back volumes are already difficult to procure.

E. P. Dutton & Co. will soon issue 'The Adventures of Odysseus,' retold in English by F. S. Marvin, R. J. C. Mayor, and F. M. Stawoll, and fully illustrated by Charles Robinson. Also, the 'Essays' of Francis Bacon, uniform with their recent handsome edition of Marcus Aurelius.

Further announcements from Macmillan Co. are 'Memories of the Tennysons,' by Canon Rawnsley; and 'Cameos,' by Cyril Davenport, in the *Portfolio* monograph series.

Almost ready is Houghton, Mifflin & Co.'s illustrated edition of the late James T. Fields's 'Yesterdays with Authors.' Portraits will be combined with facsimiles of letters not before published.

Marlier, Callanan & Co., Boston, will bring out during the present month 'The Drama of Gotama the Buddha and the Gospel of Jesus the Christ,' by the Rev. Charles F. Aiken, S.T.D.

The second part of the 'List of Private Libraries' compiled by Mr. G. Hedeler of Leipzig, soon to be ready, will take account of more than six hundred important collections of the United Kingdom. It will also include a supplement to Part I. (United States and Canada). Mr. Hedeler is still desirous to insure completeness by volunteer reports to him of the size and special character of private libraries in the domain indicated above.

We receive from Charles Delagrave, No. 15 rue Soufflot, Paris, a specimen of his latest dictionary enterprise, viz., 'Nouveau Dictionnaire des Sciences et de leurs Applications,' edited by the late Paul Poiré, Edmond Perrier, and Alexandre Joannis, with a large collaboration of specialists. It is appearing in fortnightly parts at a franc each, and is in octavo form, set in double columns, condensed but legible. It is very copiously illustrated. Baths having a medicinal value are entered alphabetically among rubrics pertaining to botany, zoölogy, chemistry, mineralogy, technology, anatomy, surgery, physics, rural economy, industrial mechanics, etc., etc.

Four years ago we had an opportunity to pronounce a favorable judgment on Prof. J. P. Gordy's 'History of Political Parties in the United States,' or at least upon the first of three contemplated volumes. The remainder do not appear to have reached us subsequently. Meanwhile the work, from being published in Ohio, has been taken over by Henry Holt & Co., of this city, and we again have the first volume, but this time one of four, for there is so much extension in addition to a thorough revision. We shall say no more for the present, therefore, except that the opening sentences (no mean criterion often) are of a nature to whet the appetite for what is to come.

Enlargement from three to four volumes has also been the portion of President Charles Kendall Adams's 'Representative British Orations' (Putnams), a work which originally appeared in 1884. The supplementary volume has been supplied by Mr. John Alden. One-third of it is occupied by Daniel O'Connell in defence of Magee, with the characteristic peroration to the jury: "If you be slaves and hypocrites, he [Magee] will await your verdict, and despise it." Palmerston on the case of Don Pacifico requires nearly as much space, and what is left is divided between Robert Lowe, Chamberlain, and Lord Rosebery. Mr. Alden's brief introductions are scarcely firm or independent delineations of character, but as they are not indispensable in the case of so eminent personages, they answer well enough.

The first instalment of Lockhart's 'Walter Scott' in the admirable "Library of English Classics," edited modestly but effectively by A. W. Pollard (Macmillan), consisted of two volumes. Three more now bring it to a conclusion. We note again that the abridged edition of 1848 has been sifted for additions and alterations never made in the text as here printed from the ten-volume edition of 1839. There is an index of fifty-seven pages.

The Century Company's newly begun "Century Classics" are likely to be with us for some time, and their outward appearance may be described once for all. They are tastefully bound in grass-green cloth with embossed pattern, and one remarks how the stamp on the side cover boldly makes a ligature of the double *s* in "Classics" in order that eight letters may line under the seven of "Century." The form of the printed page is rather narrow for a duodecimo, in the interest of a broad margin, and on this proportion opinions will differ. In the typography Mr. De Vinne has his way in a black and legible letter, and all eyes may be thankful for that. There is delicate rubrication on the title-page, and each volume has its frontispiece portrait of the author. Each has also its editor—Mr. Aldrich for Herrick's Poems; Henry James for Goldsmith's 'Vicar of Wakefield'; Professor Woodberry for Bacon's Essays; Sir Walter Besant for Defoe's 'Journal of the Plague Year'; Mr. Bryce for Kinglake's 'Eothen'; and Bishop Potter for Bunyan's 'Pilgrim's Progress.' Mr. Aldrich, of all these, has taken his task most seriously, judged by space; the introductions, as a whole, are both brief and meant for nothing more than manners. It is safe to predict a large demand for these handsome reprints.

Mr. Henry James's 'Little Tour in France' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) makes a fresh start after sixteen years with the illustrations which it had been planned should accompany the first edition. Not the same illustrations, however; these are from Mr. Joseph Pennell's pencil. The result is a better realization of the superior guide-book originally intended, and a pleasant preparation for the tourist in the fairly wide territory traversed by Mr. James and touched off in short chapters. Mr.

Pennell's drawings are numerous, in his well-known style, and the printed pages very attractive to the eye.

A more recent impressionist abroad, Mrs. Kate Douglas Wiggin, presents anew (through the same publishers) her two vivacious volumes of 'Penelope's English Experiences' and 'Penelope's Progress,' with upwards of 100 illustrations, all told, by Charles E. Brock. In marked contrast to Mr. Pennell's series, these are either decorative or in depiction of manners and customs; scenery is quite neglected. In both cases we have the right treatment in the right place, in very pretty books.

The author of 'Elizabeth and her German Garden' seems to play with her incognito in the photogravure illustrations from nature which lend a real distinction to the latest issue of this popular work and of 'The Solitary Summer' (Macmillan). We have her surroundings frankly disclosed, but the inmate of house and grounds still eludes us. The get-up is altogether attractive, for gift or ownership.

The attention of the civilized world has been suddenly diverted from South Africa to China, and 'The Rise and Fall of Krugerism,' by John Scoble and H. R. Abercrombie (Frederick A. Stokes Co.), will now have but one reader for a hundred that it would have interested a year ago. In this case, we apprehend, even that faithful one will lose heart before he has made much progress. The authors are entirely without judgment of perspective, and appear to suppose that the outside world can spare time to master the details of the petty bickerings of the inhabitants of South Africa. Their style is tedious and commonplace, and their race prejudice so overpowering as to make it impossible to trust their statements. The book is dedicated to Chamberlain, Milner, and Rhodes, "the triumvirate in whose hands is placed the future of the British Empire in South Africa." Its animus is shown by the demand that the members of the Boer Government shall be punished if they have not "assumed the responsibilities towards private property imposed by modern warfare," while as regards the operations of the English forces, satisfaction is expressed that, "notwithstanding the yelping of the Africander press, when captures of live-stock or wagons have been made, no prayer for restitution has been listened to by the military authorities as in the past." Possibly the future historian may be able to sift some grains of fact from this mass; but his task will be difficult.

It were an easy guess, for those familiar with his previous writings, to name the author of 'The Brass Bottle' (D. Appleton & Co.), after the perusal of a few chapters, for Mr. Anstey has reopened the vein from which he drew the material for plot, humor, and ludicrous situations in his earlier successes, 'Vice-Versa' and 'The Tinted Venus.' In this instance, it is a jinn, bottled in the time of Solomon, who endeavors in an Arabian Nights way to reward his liberator, a young and struggling London architect, but instead, of course, manages to muddle thoroughly the young man's love affairs till once more sealed up in his original abiding-place. There are casual traces of humor in this tale, but as a whole the fun seems forced and hardly up to Mr. Anstey's standard.

To bring home to the careless or erring golfer the rules and etiquette of the game, and to chasten his spirit with much good advice, is Mr. H. L. Fitz Patrick's aim in 'Golf Don'ts' (Doubleday, Page & Co.). He has been at pains to compile a long list of injunctions against what would seem to be all possible golf sins of omission and commission, and, at the same time, to emphasize them with a little mild and humorous sarcasm.

A book 4 inches by 3 by 1 is truly a little room in which to store even the finite riches of a bilingual dictionary. Such are the dimensions of the 'English-Spanish and Spanish-English Dictionary' compiled by G. F. Barwick and published by Eyre and Spottiswoode, London. Compared with the abridged and presumably "pocket" Velazquez, it contains an appreciable percentage more of words, rather more judiciously selected, in a little more than half the cubic space. Score one more for Oxford paper! In addition to mere vocabulary, this tiny friend for pocket or travelling-bag has lists of Spanish irregular verbs and proper names, tables of weights and measures and money, together with a gleaning from the rich field of Spanish proverbs—all legibly and tastefully printed. The whole is a little marvel of book-making and convenience.

Another volume has appeared of Dr. Rodkinson's translation of the Babylonian Talmud (New York: New Talmud Publishing Company). It embraces the first eight chapters of *Baba Qamma*, the first tractate in the Seder called *Neziqin*, leaving the last two chapters to appear with *Baba Metsi'a*, the second tractate. Like the rest of this Seder, *Baba Qamma* is of the highest interest for the student of comparative jurisprudence, and presents problems of relationship and development which are still far from being worked out. It is curious that while Indian law and the legal systems of other still more primitive peoples have been studied and analyzed by professional students of the history of law, the Jewish codes and the codes of Islam have met with little attention. Yet the harvest for a widely and thoroughly trained investigator would undoubtedly be rich, and the field has the great advantage that results in it can be tolerably tested. Thus, it is possible to trace the development of the Talmudic code from Mosaic legislation through accretion from the Roman codes, through the necessities of the Jewish communities in exile which were practically ruled by their own Princes of the Captivity, and through that strange abhorrence of a vacuum which belongs to the Semitic mind, expressing itself in endless distinctions and hypothetical cases. Yet, though the foundation may be Biblical, the guiding conception for the investigator must be that the plan of the structure itself is dominated from Rome. Similarly, the codes of Islam have met with scant attention; the few Arabists who have considered them could rarely boast of any legal training. And these codes, too, stand as daughters to Roman law, both directly and through the Talmud. Dr. Rodkinson's work may therefore be commended not only to students of things Jewish, but also to students of comparative law.

The Neapolitan scholar, Benedetto Croce, well known for his researches upon the Spanish influence in Italy, as well as for his contributions to critical theory, has performed a pious task in reprinting Baumgarten's 'Meditationes Philosophicæ de nonnullis ad poema pertinentibus' (Naples, 1900), which has never been republished since its first appearance in 1735. Baumgarten was a pioneer in the field of æsthetic theory, and the term *æsthetics*, first employed in this book, gave the science its name; his large treatise, 'Æsthetica,' still awaits a modern editor. In this connection, attention may be called to Croce's latest contribution to the same field; his 'Tesi Fondamentali di un' Estetica' (Naples, 1900) is a fragment of a prospective history of æsthetics with special reference to Italy. This work is another illustration of the modern tendency to seek the assistance of analytical psychology in the explanation of æsthetic phenomena, and may accordingly be compared with such a work as Santayana's 'Sense of Beauty.'

J. Baumann of Regensburg contributed an article some time ago to the *Frankfurter Zeitung* on "Postage Stamps, their Beginning and their End," in which he predicts that stamps, as now used all the world over, will soon be a thing of the past, because of divers drawbacks attaching to their use. He recalls the fact that the postage stamp was conceived in the mind of James Chalmers of Dundee in 1834, and that on May 6, 1840, the first stamps were issued to the English public. To-day about 25,000,000,000 stamps are issued annually, and the time of about 800,000 persons is consumed in making and cancelling them. Herr Baumann thinks that most of this time is wasted; he draws a picture of the inconveniences to which the public is put by the present arrangement, and then unfolds a plan which he conceived two years ago, and which, he says, is now under favorable consideration by the British postal authorities. The main feature of this plan is that the present letter-boxes are to be converted into a kind of penny-in-the-slot machines, which will refuse to admit a letter unless the proper amount of coin for the postage has been dropped into the slot. By this arrangement, he thinks, every letter-box would practically represent an automatic post-office, and the postal departments of civilized countries would, by no longer printing stamps, effect a saving of $9,000,000 or more a year. For business firms that mail a large number of letters, he would have a kind of stamp made (similar to the present cancelling stamps), capable of making only a certain number of impressions, and purchasable at the post-office.

Two of Germany's leading men of letters, Paul Heyse and Julius Rodenberg, were recently brought before a Berlin court on the charge of maliciously misrepresenting the character of Franz von Dingelstedt. Rodenberg had printed in his periodical, the *Rundschau*, an article by Heyse, in which Dingelstedt was referred to as having been "frivolous" and "cynical," and as having gone so far in his eager desire to be taken for a dandy as well as a poet, that he made his barber address him as "Herr Baron." His wife was credited with "Bohemian" tendencies, and Heyse related that one day, after she had delighted a number of guests by her singing, she faced about and put out her tongue at them. The plaintiff's attorneys found these details wilfully libellous, but the court did not sustain them, and the two men of letters were acquitted.

The Annual Report of the State Geologist of New Jersey for 1899 is accompanied by a Report on Forests, copiously illustrated, both by views and maps in the text, and by a series of admirable large-scale sheets, showing in color the forested areas of the entire State. It is encouraging to learn that, "taking the State as a whole, there is nearly as much forest to-day as there was in 1860," while "the deciduous timber . . . has generally increased in size and improved in quality since the period of the topographic survey, from 1880 to 1886." There has been a marked reforestation since 1850, owing to the displacement of charcoal in the use of forges and furnaces, and this means the saving of the cutting of six square miles annually for the iron industry alone. More than a hundred sawmill sites have been abandoned altogether or devoted to manufacturing purposes. The section on the effect of forests on rainfall is particularly interesting. Incidentally it is shown that the rainfall at New York from 1836 to 1868 was steadily increasing, when it suddenly fell off and remained below the average till 1883, since which date it has been fluctuating. The same is true of Newark, yet deforestation was actively going on in northern New Jersey during the period of increase, and reforestation had set in before the period of drought. As forests retard the melting of snow, they may induce later and cooler springs.

Archæology of the Thompson River Region, British Columbia, by Harlan I. Smith, forms the concluding part of the second volume of 'Memoirs of the American Museum of Natural History.' It contains an account of researches among the burial-places and village-sites at Spences Bridge, Kamloops, and in Nicola Valley, and includes descriptions, with illustrations, of the various stone implements, tools, and weapons found with the skeletal remains. The conclusions drawn from these investigations are that the ancient culture of the whole of the southern interior of British Columbia was uniform, and closely resembled that of the present inhabitants of this region. This culture shows affinities to that of the interior of Oregon and of California, and its affiliations are with the tribes of the plains rather than with those of the North Pacific Coast. Nevertheless, the presence of shells and the bones of the whale, from which utensils and implements were made, show that there were importations from the coast, while some of the carvings indicate a familiarity with the art of the Coast Indians. The examination of the skeletons of the prehistoric people does not suggest that any change of physical type has taken place. There is a fundamental difference between the types of the coast and those of the interior, the former being characterized by broad faces and large heads, while the latter have narrow faces and small heads.

The Fine Arts Division of next year's Pan-American Exposition at Buffalo promises to be a noticeable feature of that exceptional enterprise. Its exhibition will be held in the Albright Art Gallery, a permanent marble fire-proof building, within the grounds, and well isolated. All classes will consist of original work, and it is hoped to realize "an American Salon" from the loans which are sought. Information as to plan, insurance, transportation, etc., may be had by addressing the very competent and experienced Director, Mr. William A. Coffin.

—*Scribner's* for November contains the last chapter of "Tommy and Grizel." This gives Mr. Barrie the needed opportunity for killing Tommy, republishing the obituary notices of him, and telling us what his own intentions were in giving the world this true account of his life. "You may wonder," he says, "that I had the heart to write it." Sometimes the biographer "pretended to himself" that he did it in order that we might all laugh "at the stripping of a rogue," but that was never his true reason. "Have I been too cunning, or have you seen through me all the time? Have you discovered that I was really standing up for Tommy, telling nothing about him that was not true, but doing it with unnecessary scorn, in the hope that I might goad you into crying, 'Come, come, you are too hard on him?' " If he had died a hero, instead of being strangled in a most humiliating manner—if he had perished in flames in an attempt to save the life of his enemy, the author thinks we might have felt a liking for him. "Yet he would have been precisely the same person. I don't blame you, but you are a Tommy." And the female reader, presumably, is a Grizel. Every man is a rogue, and every woman is an angel. Curiously enough, the patient Griseldas will not admit this. After all, we see through a glass, darkly. "A Little Gossip," by Rebecca Harding Davis, contains reminiscences of a Virginian's glimpse at New England in the Transcendental period. She hits off Emerson, Hawthorne, Alcott, Dr. Holmes, and one or two others very neatly, and accounts for the Transcendental movement, objectively, by insisting that New England at that time swarmed with over-educated and underfed persons, who had outgrown Puritanism, and needed some substitute for religion to take its place. This leaves unexplained, however, why, subjectively, Transcendentalism was the necessary substitute. There is a good anecdote of Emerson's characterizing Thoreau as an "animal in human form." He had "the eye of a bird, the scent of a dog," etc. "No," repeated the sage, with decision, "Henry could not have had a human soul." "The Cross Streets of New York," by Jesse Lynch Williams, is the leading illustrated article of the number.

—Everett T. Tomlinson has, in the *Atlantic*, an article on "Reading for Boys and Girls," in which he calls attention to "the disappearance of the distinction between books for boys and those for girls." In a list of sixty-eight "favorite books" of a girl of twelve, made recently by a librarian, twenty-seven were books written specially for boys, only eight were books for girls, and all the rest were books adapted to either class. The cause, Mr. Tomlinson insists, is plain. Formerly girls remained indoors, worked samplers, and guarded their complexions; now they play golf and tennis with boys, and consequently read the same books. H. C. Whittlesey contributes an article on Sir Robert Hart, giving a good deal of curious information about the Chinese customs service and the Inspectorate-General. The mere fact that a trained Englishman has been able, in the last forty years, not merely to reform completely a branch of the Chinese service, but to create one where none existed before, and make it a main reliance of the Chinese Government, is a striking proof that the Chinaman is at bottom an ordinary human being, governed by the same motives and desires and manageable by the same means. What we read of China makes us hopeful even of ultimate pure government in Pennsylvania. William Garrott Brown's paper, "A Defence of American Parties," is based on an idea, now very common, that the Republicans are the heirs of the Federalists and are the party of action; while the Democrats are still Jeffersonian at heart and the party of ideas. Even Bryanism, so far as it "reflects character," is not essentially different "from any confessedly Democratic uprising of the past." This is certainly not the accepted view of Bryanism among "Jeffersonian Democrats." The whole matter is very much obscured nowadays by the confusion which exists between the party considered as a nominating "machine," and the party as a body of men held together by a common political object and faith. This confusion did not exist in the days of the Federalists and Jefferson. Such political contingencies as we have to face were not thought of, much less discussed, by Hamilton, Madison, or Jay. Mr. Bradford Torrey has a good article on Edward FitzGerald. It will console many an honest man who fails to be able to like and dislike according to established canons, to find that FitzGerald, certainly a man of most comprehensive intellectual sympathies, confessed that Goethe was a sealed book to him, never cared for Hawthorne, and found 'Gil Blas' uninteresting.

—In the *Century*, among the illustrated articles, is one on "Our Schools for the Stage," by Bronson Howard. It seems that we have no less than three such schools, the National Dramatic Conservatory, the Stanhope-Wheatcroft Dramatic School, and the American Academy of the Dramatic Arts. With what Mr. Howard says of the dramatic art, and the necessity of teaching it, and its connection with and relation to nature, no one can quarrel; but we must warn the reader against the idea, which he seems to encourage, that this country is already established as the headquarters of the dramatic art. He speaks with considerable contempt of the Conservatoire, but there is pretty good acting at the Français, and Bernhardt and Coquelin compare favorably even with the graduates of the American Academy of the Dramatic Arts. Bishop Potter's article on "The Problem of the Philippines" seems to be an answer to his own question, "What will the Philippines do to us?" They seem to have converted him into an Imperialist, and also to have quite upset his moral ideas. Some hold us responsible for the war in the Philippines because we began it; others because we betrayed the Filipinos; Bishop Potter traces it entirely to "the blunder of the naval commander" who, after destroying the Spanish fleet in the harbor of Manila, failed to sail away. This is a new burden on the shoulders of poor Admiral Dewey, who was at least supposed to have obeyed orders, and it opens up a wide field for speculation. It seems that, "through" this blunder, we are fixed with a responsibility for what takes place in the Philippines for all time. We can assure the good Bishop that this is not the view of the Administration. Our responsibility for the Philippines rests solely on the Treaty of Paris, by which we bought them from Spain, and will terminate as soon as we have made another treaty selling them to somebody else. No writer on international law or publicist, from

Grotius to Hanna, ever made the duty to subjugate a distant people depend on the blunder of an Admiral. The article confounds two entirely distinct things, our international responsibility—which arises from the Treaty of Paris and assertion of sovereignty under it, and, *e. g.*, makes us responsible to England, France, or Germany for the safety of the lives and property of their citizens—and the moral responsibility of certain individuals for the war of subjugation now going on in the Philippines. We might with entire consistency have impeached McKinley for his acts in connection with the war, and yet at the same time have acknowledged our international responsibility for order in Manila.

—*Harper's* contains W.D. Howells's "Some Literary Memories of Cambridge" and a first instalment of "Love Letters of Victor Hugo," with a reproduction of an original drawing by Hugo and a portrait. The love letters are introduced to the reader by Paul Meurice as the "letters of early manhood, virtue, love" of the 'Feuilles d'Automne'; but as Victor was but seventeen years old when the affair began, they are rather the letters of romantic precocious boyhood. It is a disadvantage that they are all on one side (Adèle Foucher's have been destroyed), and they arouse the reader's curiosity as to what her share in the correspondence was. Every one will find something in them that will strike his attention, and the diligent student of French novels will not fail to note that the inevitable suggestion of suicide, so dear to Gallic romance, is not wanting. "Suppose we were married to-morrow, and I were to kill myself the next day, I should have been happy for one day, and no one would have any reason to reproach you. You would be my widow. Would it not be possible, my Adèle, under certain circumstances, to arrange matters thus?" Mr. Howells gives a charming sketch of Professor Child, and has a good deal to say about Agassiz, Henry James the elder, Dana, author of 'Two Years before the Mast,' and John Holmes, the "Autocrat's" brother, of whom there is an excellent likeness. Indeed, the portraits, as a whole, are unusually life-like. The Cambridge which Mr. Howells describes is the Cambridge of thirty years or so ago, when he went there to win his spurs as editor of the *Atlantic*, before Harvard College was transformed into a university, and when the New England tradition was more vigorous than it is now. "Most Americans," he says, "have no standards of their own," but in Cambridge there still were standards, by means of which the Cantabrigians "rated the merit of new-comers." "Elect spirits," he calls them, and who shall say that they were not? Prof. W. O. Atwater has a second article on the temperance question ("Alcohol, Physiology, and Temperance Reform"), in the course of which he calls attention to the fact that the laws of all our States but two now require that physiology, with special reference to the effects of alcohol, shall be taught in the public schools, and criticises some of the instruction commonly given as contrary to science. He quotes an authorized text-book, for instance, as maintaining that alcohol, "in whatever quantity," is "not only a poison, but a narcotic poison," which, he says, is not true. He insists that what ought to be taught is temperance, not falsehoods about alcohol; but the "trend" of the hour is evidently the other way.

—'The Venetian Republic,' by W. Carew Hazlitt (Macmillan), is not simply a reprint of the work which appeared in 1860. It represents the author's third attempt to write a history of Venice. In 1858 he published a sketch in two volumes which, while it showed signs of promise, had been prepared too hurriedly and was filled with mistakes. Dissatisfied with the quality of this early effort, Mr. Hazlitt, after two more years of study, issued four volumes upon the same subject. The second book proved to be much better than the first, and, though somewhat uncritical, contained the fruit of wide reading. Like its predecessor, it was attacked on the score of inaccuracy, and it certainly bore the marks of inexperience. For instance, it did not distinguish with sufficient clearness between the value of one chronicle and that of another. Now, after forty years, a period during which he has produced a good many other books, Mr. Hazlitt returns to the Venetian Republic and presents a final edition in two volumes. "The text has profited by the result of mature experience so far as to be to a considerable extent re-written." Moreover, says Mr. Hazlitt: "The present edition is the first complete one of the work, for it not only profits by the gradual and large accumulation of valuable particulars relative to Venetian history and institutions, but brings down the career of the republic to the abrupt close in 1797." Quite apart from the continuation of the narrative to 1797 and the improvement of special features in the work of 1860, Mr. Hazlitt finds good reason for reshaping his history in the vast volume of material relating to Venice which has been made accessible since the expulsion of the Austrians in 1866. To give two examples only: the 'Storia Documentata' of Romanin, and Rawdon Brown's 'Calendars of Venetian State Papers,' have placed new and grave responsibilities upon the historian of Venice. Assuming that it was within his power, Mr. Hazlitt should have rewritten his book completely. But this may seem like an ungracious remark, for, even as it stands, the present edition marks a long advance beyond the point reached in 1860. It contains an immense amount of information, and it sums up the thought and reading which an ardent lover of Venice has been able to devote to her during nearly half a century. We may add that it is printed in very handsome style.

—In reply to the recent clamors of victory on both sides of the Atlantic, M. Paul Lacombe utters a vehement protest against all warfare, which he entitles 'La Guerre et l'Homme' (Paris: Georges Bellais). He takes especial delight in stirring up his readers with paradox, in playing at ninepins with the most prescriptively respectable opinions concerning the ennobling effects of war and the courage of men therein, and in flouting the cheap self-deception of nations passionately eager to justify their iniquitous victories. The whole volume is a commentary, humorous but stinging, on Jingoism that hands the sword to others, as well as an arraignment of leaders, whether civil or military, who involve nations in the alternative calamities of triumph or defeat. Viewed in this light, war cannot obtain sanction from morality or religion; the holiness of a cause is treated as a mockery. Much of what the author advances is superfluous, because abundantly familiar. On the philosophical side, most of his arguments were long since definitively formulated by Mill. The merit of his book consists, therefore, in the interesting originality of its tactics, and in the supporting of every position with facts of recent occurrence. Of this method the reader may judge in the chapter on military courage, which M. Lacombe's discussion reduces to an almost non-existent, negligible quantity. The chapter entitled "Les Martyrs" should be hailed with enthusiasm in Cuba, the Philippines, and the late South African Republic.

COUES'S 'DIARIO' OF GARCÉS.

On the Trail of a Spanish Pioneer: The Diary and Itinerary of Francisco Garcés (Missionary Priest) in his Travels through Sonora, Arizona, and California, 1775-1776. Translated from an official contemporaneous copy of the original Spanish manuscript, and edited, with copious critical notes, by Elliot Coues, editor of Lewis and Clark, of Pike, of Henry and Thompson, Fowler Journal, Larpenteur, etc., etc. Eighteen maps, views, and facsimiles. Two vols., pp. xxx+608. New York: Francis P. Harper. 1900.

Dr. Coues's swan-song, this: the chosen labor upon which he entered in full vigor in 1898, but completed in his last months of conscious doom and unremitting torments. He pursued it almost to his last hour, under a burden that would have crushed a lesser man out of all semblance of scientific endeavor. We owe much, it is true, to the almost comparable devotion and skill of his younger collaborator—*por mas señas* now next in line of succession; but this definitive edition of the valuable Diario of Fray Francisco must have fallen far short had its editor been of less than heroic mould. It is an *obra maestra* finished and polished at the very stake. There is a fine congruity to be noted. Irreconcilable as were their tongues, their times, their creeds, vocations, horizons, there was a certain strict bond between the footsore, narrow, commonplace-spoken martyr-missionary, Apostle of the Yumas and Papagos, and our broad, scholarly, heretic, fiery and eloquent Apostle of Truth-Documentary. "My only genius is the genius of hard work," said Dr. Coues sincerely. That genius was Garcés's, too. But each had a higher and nowadays a rarer talent—the genius of believing in something hard enough to work for it even unto death. It is by this crusader impulse, on lines apparently so divergent, in fact so parallel, that they wrought, each in his circumstance, such labors as to other men in their selfsame activities seem not Herculean but rather impossible. Each toiled and died at least for the *santa fé* as he saw it. If one's version was ecclesiastic, the other's scientific, they were equal in devotion to their ideals and their campaign for the "conversion of the Gentiles." Of his own faith, perhaps, Dr. Coues has never made more characteristic confession than in his introduction to this work (p. xxi):

"Bearing acutely in mind the Italian saying that the translator is the traducer, I have tried my best to prove an exception to that rule. Where I have wished to abuse my gentle and most lovable author for hi

> fanaticism, his bigotry, his ecclesiasticism (as they seem to me), I have done it in my notes; in my text always holding his words themselves in a sort of superstitious awe of my own, just as he did his holy religion. My aim has been to translate Garcés literally, punctually, even with scrupulosity"—

which well might serve as the gospel of all translators.

Fray Francisco Garcés was a typical Franciscan missionary of the last century. Aragonés by birth, he came to the New World a young priest, and entered, in 1763, the historic college at Querétaro, which mothered the evangelization (and largely the exploration) of so enormous a share of the North American wilderness. In 1768 he became resident priest at San Xavier del Bac, Sonora (now Arizona), that splendid temple amid the desert before which the most sated traveller stands astonished. In that same year (being 30) he began those *entradas* which are translatable only in terms of his time, for we have no synonyms nowadays. They were apostolic invasions of a heathen wilderness; on foot, generally alone, unless for a half-strange Indian or so, among savage tribes and across trackless and mortal wastes which, even in these railroad days, claim annually their victims by thirst. The first *entrada* (1768) was only sixty leagues—a mere bagatelle for a clergyman to tramp. The second (1770) was ninety leagues; the third (1771), 300 leagues; the fourth (1774) over 500 leagues; the fifth and last, with which Dr. Coues's exegesis is principally concerned, a matter of 900 leagues. Nothing could be more modest than the fraile's record of these tremendous achievements. His lonely tramps were far longer and far harder than Doniphan's justly famous march, or that of Stevenson's Regiment; longer even than the path-findings of Lewis and Clark or Frémont, and as perilous. To such as really know the dangers and hardships of his itinerary, even in this mitigated day, nothing in his pithy chronicle is more impressive than his silence about the inevitable sufferings. We might fancy, so far as he complains, that his walks abroad were over such landscapes as we commonly know—wherever you will, a grateful tree to ward the infernal sun; wherever you must, a cool brook to relieve swollen lips. As a matter of fact, to follow his precise trail, even now, would mean such hardship as few men face. How little self-pity invades his record we are somewhat reminded by his editor, who prints under Garcés's simple line "a difficult road . . . and another worse one," our sturdy Lieut. Ives's two pages of graphic but unexaggerated account of *his* entry to Cataract Cañon, eighty-two years later (p. 336). And the cañon is not a circumstance to the grisly desert through which Garcés trudged lonely and uncharted.

Nor does his editor "make much" of this heroism (and that "heroism" is none too strong a word, those know who have nearest measured). Dr. Coues does not even employ the flying-wedge of summary. It is rather impressive for us to add up the 5,000 miles of Sahara that Garcés covered in his five *entradas;* and no less so to remember his category. His was no unprecedented trail, for a Franciscan pioneer. Fray Marcos de Niza (1539), Fray Juan de Padilla (1540-42), Fray Sylvestre Velez de Escalante (about whose *entradas* Dr. Coues had planned his next editing), Fray Junípero Serra (1769), and many other sons of St. Francis, besides such Jesuits as Kino, had equalled his mileage, and several outstripped his sufferings. Very many of them were, like him, martyred by the savage flocks to whom they had vowed their lives. Garcés was slaughtered in the Yuma massacre of 1781. Like his fellows, too, he was as useful to the record as to our standards of heroism. All kept their chronicles. That to this day the documents of Southwestern history are so inaccessible to our average students is because we have not found Coueses enough to keep up with the old Garcéses. No more and no less than many others whose names are still caviare to the general, Garcés is an inseparable "source" for any large comprehension of the early history and ethnography of our first-settled domain.

Though Kino had long preceded him, he was one of the first Caucasians to come overland to the mouth of the Colorado, or to cross from mid-Arizona to mid-California. He twice trudged across that hideous reach (now rather disconcerting in a Pullman) between Tucson and the California Missions. He was the first white man to visit the Grand Cañon of Arizona from the west; to make that ghastly trip from about Ft. Mojave to the Moqui villages; to describe that strange human-rabbited hole-in-the-ground of Cataract Cañon (though, as Dr. Coues well points out, it is highly probable that Cárdenas, Coronado's captain who discovered the Grand Cañon in 1540, came also even here from the other direction). Garcés was also discoverer, so far as we know, of the Mojave River, that most striking type of the desert stream; born amid pines and trout, but never "getting anywhere"—for it dies by inches in its bed, amid drifts of sand and alkali. He was also probably the first Caucasian to see many points since historic in our own winning of the West—including that providential crossing of the sixth greatest stream on the Continent (and largest of its many "Red Rivers"), where now more travellers pass every year than there were Caucasians within two thousand miles of Garcés at any time in the last thirteen years of his career. Here was the "strenuous life" on a finer key—muscled not by prancing but by enduring (and alone) such hardships as none of our armies of conquest ever dreamed of; kept alert not by shooting down but by lifting up; and crowned with a proportionate mortality no modern battle ever paralleled.

Into so congenial a theme Dr. Coues has plunged with his inalienable scholarship and fervor, and from it emerged with his expected victory. It is late, of course, to refer to his quenchless industry. The translation and annotation of this one work are in themselves the making of a reputation. The magnitude of the task in so thorough searching and digestion of records; the mastery and vitality of the presentment; the intimate and winning personality of it; the acute, "hard sense" of it; his familiarity with the topographies involved (for he travelled nearly all of them, a generation ago, as a frontier post-surgeon in army "ambulances" and with those keen eyes); the breadth, the fearlessness, the biting edge of his comment, and yet its equity and generous manhood—in fact, all the scholarship and all the humanity which charmed us in 'Lewis and Clark' or 'Fowler,' are here and at their full stature.

The version of the 'Diario' which Dr. Coues has followed is a clerical copy of not later than 1785 and, presumably, from Garcés's holograph; and he has checked this by another scribe's copy and the ill-printed version in the 'Documentos para la Historia de Mexico' (second series, volume i.). He also draws wisely upon the 'Rudo Ensayo,' Arricivita's 'Crónica Seráfica,' and Ortega's 'Apostólicos Afanes'—the last for a valuable appendix chapter on that earlier and more famous missionary hero, "the Apostle of the Pimas," the Jesuit Eusebio Francisco Kino (Kühne).

"Todo á fuerza de hacha," said a wiry, withered little Mexican woman to the reviewer, with an inclusive gesture over the picturesque rancho she had fairly wreaked with her own hand from a cañon of the Sierra San Mateo. She, too, had a certain "genius of hard work." Dr. Coues's translation is a rather like conquest. It is almost literally "by force of the axe"—albeit an axe of most shrewd edge and lexicographic temper. By no means at home in Spanish, spoken or written, he has hewn his way through this vast chaparral with a success which can hardly fail to astonish those who best knew the task and his equipment. A stranger would be prepared for almost anything from a translator who starts off (p. xxii) with:

> "To my limited vision, the use of accents in Spanish seems a freakish thing, and very largely an affair of grammatical supererogation. It is al'-most al'-ways a mat'-ter of indicating enunciátion or stress of voice, and not pronunciátion, and ordinarily quite as superfluous."

In fact, this is one of the exquisite precisions of the language. The laws of Spanish pronunciation *are* strict; and every exception can be, and is, fully charted by an accent. The Spanish punctuals are never supererogatory. They are always essential. They not only mark an exception to the rule; they convey all the explanation necessary. If we might so simply cleave a royal road to the infallible pronunciation of English!

As he frankly states, in the strenuous endeavor to give a "word-for-word translation," Dr. Coues has made often "pretty rough English, ... sometimes strained almost to the point of rupture." His theory is correct; but at times he carries it resentably far. It is never in the highest sense literal to violate idiom. Garcés never wrote anything so awkward as "Go dressed do these Indians," and many like inverted orders. "Antique acquaintances" is too "literal" to be literate, and often there is looseness as extreme. *Hizimos alto* (p. 271) is not "made the ascent," but made a halt, *alto* being the technical word, with sentinels or stage-robbers, for "Halt!" *Frente Negra* is not "black face," but black brow. *Un Alto* (p. 95) is not "an elevation," but a storey. *Caballada* is never "cavalry," but horseherd—the cowboy's "cavvyard." *Mas de espacio* is "more leisurely," not "after a rest." *Cuentas* cannot be translated "shells" (*conchas*). It means beads. Some of those in point were *cut from* shells, and some from spar. *Hizo señas de escopeta* is "made signs of a gun" (of a special sort), not of "shooting." *Viva guerra* is "lively," not "open war"—the Spanish idiom agreeing strictly with ours. *Cortado*, of a river, means not "dry" but "cut down"—as we should say, "shrunken." Of hair, *suelto* is not "long" but loose. One of the first lessons of the beginner in Spanish is "how vast a difference can Be 'twixt" *ser* and *estar*. *Estamos buenos* (p. 438) cannot possibly say "We are good." It is inevitably "We are well." *En las memorias antiguas* (p. 139) is not just "traditionally," but "in the old memoirs (or accounts)." *Corazon* is "heart," never "ghost." There are too many of these verbal ineptitudes, but none more serious than the examples cited.

Pa're (for *padre*, p. 287), is almost universal among the Spanish-smattering Indians of the Southwest, as *ma're*, *compa're*, etc.; and *paderon* (p. 212), with its ancestral *pader*, for *paredon* and *pared*, a fixed provincialism, not confined to Indians. Few Mexicans in the Territories would understand you if you called a wall *pared*. There are many curious instances of this provincial transposition of consonants—as "Grabiel" for Gabriel; "cabresto" for *cabestro*; "patarabo" for *taparabo*—awaiting the Spanish-American dictionary which does not exist, and which some such collaboration as by Mr. Hodge and Mr. Tipton should yet give us.

Of failing to catch the drift of a phrase or sentence, there are a few serious examples. The Indian wizard who *tenía havilidad de volverse remolino* (157) is not said to have "managed to come to life again in some mysterious manner," but to have "had the ability to turn himself into a *remolino*," *i. e.*, one of those little, waltzing whirlwinds so characteristic of the Southwest, and known to frontiersmen of our speech as "sand-augers." Strayings from the essential trail are particularly notable on pp. 211, 230 (a serious one on *gente*), 442, 466, 502, etc. Misprints are few—like "Tezozamo" for *Tezozomoc*; "piesa" for *priesa*; "Dieguinos" for *Diegueños*; "media dia" for *mediodia*. Of errors of fact there are almost none. The Santa Clara, of Ventura County, Cal., instead of being "a large river," can be jumped by a cat. The Tejon is not "the best-known pass over the Tehachepi." It was, in the days of the Butterfield overland stages from St. Louis to San Francisco; but now a hundred thousand passengers a year cross the Tehachepi who never even heard of Tejon Pass. Nor has the Sierra Madre behind San Bernardino any kinship, of orography or nomenclature, with the northern Sierra Nevada.

We may always trust Dr. Coues to fetch us humor as well as learning; and there is no disappointment here. Whether it be an indignant Anti-Imperial outburst (p. 470), or where (p. 514) he falls foul of an immodest pretender who has dallied disastrously with Coronado's itinerary, or in his not quite judicial but always pungent diatribes against "The Church," he always compels sympathy if not conviction. The most telling and most important of these characteristic diversions is that which shows how dangerous it is even for a scholar *meterse en lo que no le toca*. Lieut. (later Gen.) J. H. Simpson, whose generic work merits (and here receives) the warmest praise, and who was easily foremost of our mid-century "American" explorers of the Southwest, is made the "terrible example." On pp. 376, 478 his really astounding "facsimiles" and still worse translations (with the unartful aid of territorial "official translators") of the old Spanish entries on El Morro ("Inscription Rock") furnish Dr. Coues a rare and merry text. A real facsimile of one of Simpson's guess-similes is confronted with a photograph, and the result is startling. By a curious irony of fate, and without human malice, the same 5x8 negative which preserves the true (and historically precious) "Letrado inscription" (1632), also includes the legend carved in the same memorial cliff in 1849 by Lieut. Simpson, who so inconceivably bungled Letrado and all the other inscriptions he copied.

Too much can hardly be said for the compact, exhaustive, and authoritative connotation (mostly ethnographic) of Dr. Coues's collaborator, Mr. Frederick Webb Hodge of the Bureau of Ethnology, to whom also we owe more of the final polish than appears. His footnotes are very nearly a model of what such work may and should be. One of the few discords of the 'Garcés' is, indeed, that Dr. Coues spells "Moqui," "Navajo," and such-like words after the historic and etymologic plan; while Mr. Hodge, as must an official of the Bureau which invented the parvenu cacographies, writes "Moki," "Navaho," and other phonetic upstart forms, indefensible by any rule we recognize in scientific nomenclature. Such rule would be, briefly, that such spellings shall follow either derivation or a clearer scheme of pronunciation. These do neither. Moqui and Navajo are Spanish words, known to us only from that source. There is no *k* in Spanish; and *h* is silent, while in "Navaho" it misrepresents the most violent of aspirates. The student knows, the layman can learn, how to pronounce Moqui and Navajo, for they are by an invariable key; no one knows how to pronounce "Moki" and "Navaho" unless he has learned directly or indirectly from the historic spelling. There is neither learning nor consistency in these closet spellings, which "English" a few forms and leave the rest untouched. If Moqui must be "Moki," why should "Soonyi" remain Zuñi? And so on through hundreds of words. Mr. Hodge errs in dating Laguna from "1689, when the first documentary mention of the pueblo seems to have been made." That 1689 document is unquestionably and prima-facie spurious—an ignorant forgery of mysterious motive. Laguna was first settled "en fines del año de 1697." It "submitted" to Gov. Cubero, and by him was named, July 4, 1699.

The blemishes of these two fine volumes have been searchingly and frankly noted. If we might wish them spared, they do not alter the fact that the 'Garcés' is a worthy last legacy from a man whose whole active career was a testament to knowledge; the fit closing chapter of one who, surpassed by one only as a critic therein, leaves no exact substitute, and had no full peer in vitalizing American documentary research.

MORE WORKS ON CHINA.

China's Only Hope: An Appeal by her greatest Viceroy, Chang Chih-tung, with the sanction of the present Emperor, Kwang Su. Translated from the Chinese edition by Samuel I. Woodbridge. Introduction by Griffith John, D.D. Fleming H. Revell Company. 1900. Pp. 152.

China and Christianity. By Alexander Michie, author of 'Missionaries in China.' Boston: Knight & Millet. 1900. Pp. xvi, 232.

China's Open Door; A Sketch of Chinese Life and History. By Rounsevelle Wildman, Consul-General of the United States at Hong Kong. With an introduction by Charles Denby, formerly United States Minister to China. Illustrated. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Company. 1900. Pp. xvi, 318.

Of these three books, the first is by far the shortest and also by far the most valuable. Very few, it can be safely said, of the multitudinous books which the present crisis has brought forth can pretend to equal it in interest and importance; for it is a thoroughly first-hand document, and that from the Chinese side. It was written by the Viceroy of Hupeh and Hunan in literary Chinese—as addressed to the literati—shortly after China had been so hopelessly overthrown by Japan, and while the Emperor Kwang Su was in the midst of his magnificent, if brief, iconoclastic career. The independence of a Chinese viceroy is strikingly shown by the fact that, while the young Emperor was beaten back to heel by his imperious aunt with a difference, Chang Chih-tung, secure in the protection of his own troops, still reigns at Hankow. And this was not because his book failed of effect. At least a million copies were scattered over the empire; it was received by the literati with enthusiasm; and it was an unlucky result from it in great part that there came the recoil, the *coup d'état* of the Empress Dowager, the whole "clear out the foreigner" policy of Prince Tuan, and the present situation. Of the accuracy of this translation, we are not in a position to judge. Both the translator and the introducer lay stress on the perfect literary style of the original; in this form, there is certainly none. The version also is of the freest, so far as the employment of Western idioms and allusions is concerned; but there is a weight of originality and verity about the whole which seems to guarantee the exactitude of the substance, if not of the garb.

Especially, Chang Chih-tung himself stands out clearly. He has a directness of thought and speech which sometimes verges on crudeness, but mostly has the ring of the primeval man. His vision is clear; his energy that of a steam-engine; his thoroughness more philosophical, if less sweeping, than that of his unfortunate master. Above all, the book is sincere. It has no touch of pseudo-civilized cant. We can imagine the writer developing crotchets; he may be liable to be influenced by others; he will always be transparently honest. This sounds almost impossible of a Chinese official, but it seems to be true of this viceroy. All foreigners who know him apparently agree that on him, all unstable as he may possibly be, lies the burden of provincial China, and that he carries that burden with courage, loyalty, devotion, and honesty. In him, the avarice of his fellows is utterly lacking, and that alone puts him in a class by himself.

It may be taken as certain that in what such a man as this has to say to his countrymen, the hope for the future of China must lie. His reform will not be thrust on the nation from the outside; it will not consist of monkey-like imitations or an anarchistic clean sweep. It will not be prefaced by a wail over the wicked foreigner, the evil things he has brought and deeds he has done. Rather Chang Chih-tung turns upon his countrymen like a Hebrew prophet, and tells them that these things are so because guins is stated to be a shrimp of the genus Euphausia. Even the scanty land fauna that exists, is thought by the naturalist of the expedition to be immigrational from other lands, while the indigenous fauna of the preglacial continent was entirely destroyed by the ice. Sea-fowl were numerous in Belgica Strait, and the gulls and penguins seem to inhabit the region throughout the year, as do three varieties of the hair-seal and at least two cetaceans. The only mollusks noted are limpets. The constant friction of the ice along the shores keeps the rocks clean of algæ, which are chiefly represented by Diatomacea and other minute forms, which sometimes are numerous enough to give a yellowish coloration to the ice.

Leaving the strait, the vessel was pushed into the ice to the southwest, skirting the western border of Grahamland, and, finally becoming beset, was held there for over a year. At a time when it seemed as if release was hopeless, the party succeeded in cutting a canal through half a mile of ice, and on the 14th of March, 1899, the *Belgica* was freed from the clutches of the pack. While beset, the scientific observations were steadily carried on, and the health of the party was fairly good. The long Polar night of seventy days weighed heavily on the spirits of the party, all of whom suffered from an anæmic depression, weakened circulation, indigestion, etc., which is graphically described by Dr. Cook. Much of it was quite as much mental as physical, and it is probable that changes in the food supply, based on the experiences of this expedition, may enable future parties to avoid the difficulty to some extent. That it is not a purely mental phenomenon is shown by the fact that the pet cat suffered from similar symptoms, lost her amiability, and finally died without showing indications of any other disease. Any party undertaking long-continued Antarctic exploration must reckon with similar difficulties. The persistently stormy and overcast weather rendered it impossible to take that exercise on the ice which might have warded off much of the trouble, as is indicated by the rapid increase in strength and revival of spirits during the long and tedious labor of sawing out the ice-canal through which freedom was ultimately attained.

The meteorological, magnetic, and hydrographic results of the expedition will prove of extreme importance in connection with the physics of the globe and the preparations for future exploration. The highest meed of praise is due to the *Belgica* party for extracting from such an unfavorable environment all that their opportunities permitted, with persistent courage and endurance.

To the Antarctic experiences Dr. Cook adds some interesting references to the aborigines of the Fuegian region, and a multitude of excellent illustrations, chiefly from photographs. We could have wished for a better map of the region visited, but the only serious criticism of the work relates to the translation of the reports on the general results of the expedition in the appendix. This should have been revised by some competent authority, as part of it is really almost incomprehensible from the imperfections of the English in which it is written. The same may be said of the legends of several of the scientific plates. What, for instance, is the meaning of "Mosseo Andreae a laxifolia" (p. 202), and why should a shrimp be called a "plant" (p. 423)?

Chinese Mother Goose Rhymes. Translated and Illustrated by Isaac Taylor Headland of Peking University. Fleming H. Revell Co.

This book comes with all the flavor of a piquant and relishable sauce, to vary a monotonous diet. We have heard so much about the Chinese destroying their own offspring that it is delightful to find rich evidences of parental affection. These abound in such rhymes as "Sweeter than Sugar," "Little Fat Boy," "Baby is Sleeping," and scores of others. Here are over a hundred nursery ditties selected by the translator out of his store of six hundred or more, gathered from only two out of the eighteen provinces of China. He utters his belief that the Chinese have more of these pretty jingles than can be found in England and America. The field, so far from being gleaned, has hardly been more than touched with the sickle of research.

The book itself, as a piece of work for the holidays, is worthy of all praise. It is covered with paper lithographed in many colors. The design on the outside shows the Chinese boys at many kinds of play, under the pine trees and by the rocks. Within, every leaf of the thick paper contains in light-blue ink the same design of frolicking youngsters. On each page is first the Chinese text of the rhymes, then a most minutely appropriate photographic reproduction of Chinese child life, the subject being pat to the theme, and finally the English translation, all set in a black border of dragon-supported pillars holding up a temple-roof. Many of the initial letters are funny enough, containing a girl's foot, a bowl of rice with chopsticks, a cow, a dog, a cat, a snail, a pagoda, or something else to amuse the children. The babies' faces, whether in the groups on the first and last page—one containing seventeen hundred faces, and the other a couple of hundred noddles and nudities—are appealing. Altogether the book is a wonderful revelation of home life in China. It will delight every one who loves children. On page 35 are three bars of Chinese music, which, as we have proved on the piano, is thoroughly characteristic.

Examining the translations, we find them very clever indeed, both as to the use of simple words—mostly monosyllables, and of nursery vocabulary—while yet making good rhyme. Nevertheless, we think Mr. Headland has hardly caught, certainly to our mind not fully expressed, the admirable imitation in the original of the mild jig-jig motion on mother's or father's knee, while baby is being dandled. The Chinese text has admirable repetitions of the same characters and sounds, which, except in the rhyme on page 48, "Patty-cake, patty-cake," and a very few others, the author has scarcely reproduced. Apart from this criticism, however, it may be said that Mr. Headland has transferred to us not only the color of the petals, but in most cases the sweet aroma of these flowers of home song. We are inclined to believe that these are his best results out of many trials, and a capital selection out of his store of six hundred. Naturally the greater number we have found under any one of the heads deal with the five fingers and toes on each limb. These, whether under the figure of cows, sheep, or big and little brothers or members of the family, old, young, or gone to market, are powerful elements of education to "the baby new to earth and sky." Some of the rhymes interpret what the cows, the dogs, and the cocks are saying. Others point to the spiders, the lady-bug, and various insects and animals. Many relate to food and hunger, and not a few to such rudimentary actions as patting, grabbing, tickling, washing; and a number to various occupations in which papa, mamma, and nurse are concerned. How far such a full collection might be used teleologically, could be fairly estimated only when all the data were in. How far the author intended to preach or withhold preaching, is not to be here suggested, but the spirit of the rhyme "Of what use is a girl" is very different from "My big son, my own boy . . . fills my soul with joy." Altogether this book serves the double purpose of opening a great bright window into the joyousness of the Chinese home, while it also belongs in the storehouse of those really informing books which teach us the true life of a people.

On the Exercise of Judgment in Literature. By W. Basil Worsford. [The Temple Primers.] London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: The Macmillan Company. 1900.

This latest addition to the "International Primer-Cyclopædia" is an unusually satisfactory exposition of the difficult and dangerous theme of literary criticism. As we might expect, this little book—being the work of a man who has already written not only a more elaborate study of the principles of criticism, but upon a subject so actual and contemporary as South Africa—is sound in scholarship, careful and clear in thought, and admirably wise and moderate in its conclusions. The general reader who wishes to approach literature intelligently, and the hard-driven scholar or writer who wishes a fructifying nucleus for his thought, should be equally grateful that Mr. Worsfold has made it possible to obtain so much in ninety readable pages. The slim volume contains a sound statement of the differentiæ of the arts, an exposition of the philosophical ground of literature, an account of the general course of critical theory from Plato and Aristotle to Matthew Arnold and George Meredith, sensible directions towards a practical critical method, and clear and discriminating observations upon the various forms of literature, upon the classical and romantic methods, and upon style.

The romantic, impressionistic, and individualistic schools of criticism bulk very small in Mr. Worsfold's estimation. His general notion of the art of criticism is clearly in the Aristotelian tradition; he regards it as the analytic play of the mind upon a piece of literature to determine the essential truth of its matter, the formal symmetry of its manner, and its power of giving rational and universal pleasure. Inasmuch as his point of view is so avowedly influenced by Aristotle's, it is a little strange that his bibliography should not contain those two notable pieces of æsthetic philosophizing so illuminative of their immediate subject, and so suggestive of the right method of all critical procedure, the essays upon the 'Poetics,' by Cardinal Newman and by Mr. S. H. Butcher. One cannot but fancy that had these been among the chief authorities, one or two of the paragraphs might perhaps have been a little more satisfactory.

In so compact a treatment of a subject so complex, it is, of course, impossible to avoid short-cut statements which will leave something to be desired, but we must deprecate such compression when it causes the omission of æsthetic facts of the first magnitude. Mr. Worsfold tells us, for example (p. 85), that "the characteristic motive of tragedy is the exhibition of man in unsuccessful conflict with circumstances." And, again, "In the Elizabethan drama this undeserved suffering is rather connected with contemporary circumstances." He nowhere mentions the characteristic motive of Shaksperian tragedy, the tragic fault of weakness, of error, or of actual sin, which, as in "Hamlet," "Lear," or "Macbeth," brings down upon the hero the cumulative reaction of his own deeds, ending in final disaster. It is true, of course, that a large part of the pleasure we take in tragedy comes from the deep thrill of human sympathy with "undeserved suffering," but why overlook those aspects of tragedy by which this is lightened, by which we are helped to "see into the life of things"? At page 74 Mr. Worsfold says: "It is by the presentation of a final picture of universal gloom, into which no ray of hope is allowed to penetrate, that the dramatic artist produces that artificial excitation of the emotions of the spectator to which the special humanizing effect of tragedy is due." This overlooks altogether those notable final scenes of Shaksperian tragedy which bring the action back to the broad level of life, which show how the bloody expiation of the tragic fault has healed feuds, established kingdoms, and restored the broken order. On the whole, however, considering the purpose of a brief manual, such as this, Mr. Worsfold has done well in not pursuing too far this line of idealistic criticism, which in unskilful hands so easily becomes dogmatic or doctrinaire.

The chief merit of the essay is its admirable eclecticism. While, as has been said, the general course of the thought is Aristotelian, the author contrives to give his reader some notion of the essential qualities of all the important schools of criticism. We take away from his work a very wholesome feeling of the wonderful range and diversity of literature, and of the criticism upon it. But the hospitable eclecticism which makes this possible is far from invertebrate. In the case of literature, Mr. Worsfold keeps clearly in mind the essential unity amid all the variety; and in the case of criticism he makes the reader see the significance of the existence of the various schools. He thus equips one to whom some inborn taste and some range of reading must be granted by hypothesis, to judge not only books, but the formal criticisms which have been passed upon them. In other words, he will help one to think for himself in literary matters.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allston, Margaret. Her Boston Experiences. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. $1.25.
Atwood's Pictures. Life Publishing Co.
Baring-Gould, S. Winefred: A Story of the Chalk Cliffs. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. $1.50.
Barrett, Frank. Breaking the Shackles. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. $1.50.
Becke, Louis. Edward Barry: South Sea Pearler. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. $1.50.
Bierbower, Austin. How to Succeed. R. F. Fenno & Co. $1.25.
Blake, M. M. The Glory and Sorrow of Norwich. Boston; L. C. Page & Co. $1.50.
Brown, Abbie Farwell. The Book of Saints and Friendly Beasts. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Bullock, C. J. Essays on the Monetary History of the United States. (The Citizen's Library.) Macmillan. $1.25.
Cambridge, Ada. Path and Goal. D. Appleton & Co. $1.
Carrel, Frederic. The Progress of Pauline Kessler. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. $1.50.
Cassell's National Library: (1) Pope, Alexander. Earlier Poems; (2) Milton, John. Paradise Regained; (3) Shelley, P. B. Prometheus Unbound. Cassell & Co. 10 cents each.
Champneys, Basil. Memoirs and Correspondence of Coventry Patmore. 2 vols. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 32 shillings.
Clement, Clara Erskine. Heroines of the Bible in Art. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. $2.
Clouston, J. S. The Duke. Longmans, Green, & Co. $1.25.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 22, 1900.

The Week.

Monday's Manila dispatches bore the heading, "First uncensored news by cable since the American occupation." The news itself is what might have been expected—a recrudescence of the insurrection so serious as to call for a general forward movement by our army of occupation. It should not be forgotten, however, that Gen. MacArthur had already begun truth-telling before the removal of the censorship. The full text of his annual report, while very naïve in its philosophical excursions, in its statement of facts shows a soldierly directness most unlike anything we ever had from Gen. Otis. Unlike the latter, Gen. MacArthur does not prophesy smooth things. He admits that the islands are practically a unit against us, and scouts, almost in the words of the Anti-Imperialist press, the idea that fear is a motive "sufficient to account for the united and apparently spontaneous action of several millions of people."

Perhaps the most striking feature of Gen. MacArthur's report is his distinction between the ladrones and the insurgents. These two classes have been so persistently identified by the Administration press that the belief has become general that the Filipino patriots are brigands, and that Gov. Roosevelt's "Apaches" was only a characteristic exaggeration of the facts. Gen. MacArthur has no patience with this *suppressio veri*. He is too good a soldier to vilify his enemy, and, in fact, his report morally accords the belligerent rights to the Filipinos which his predecessor and the Taft Commission have persistently denied them. He says that while "the bands of insurgent guerrillas are not soldiers in the true sense of the word, it is a mistake to classify them as ladrones or armed robbers." The latter are outlaws, pure and simple, and have preyed as well on the insurgents as on the peaceful natives. "As soon as the insurgent soldier is eliminated from the problem," he continues, "the extirpation of robbers from the highways will, it is believed, be easily and quickly accomplished." It is hoped that former insurgent leaders may coöperate in this extirpation, but it is observed as well that "Filipino officers at present available for this employment are reluctant to undertake the task, as long as there is any possibility of collision with flying columns of Gen. Aguinaldo's forces." "General," "flying columns," "forces"—"I thank thee for these words" might well be the heartfelt cry of a harassed leader of his people, used to misrepresentation and vilification such as this nation has never before hurled at a weak foe.

Now that the election is over, there begins to appear a general desire for facts about the Philippines. For two years we have occupied the islands; two special commissions have reported, with several generals; Mr. McKinley has told all the truth that was good for us in our preëlection condition, and yet there is an uneasy suspicion that we have all along lacked facts. But the election is over, that queasy condition of the public digestion to which facts are abhorrent has given place to relative health, and the public is ready for its dose. The sharpened appetite for Philippine facts has first appeared near Boston. A committee, chiefly composed of friends and well-wishers of the Administration, has been formed to solicit all the facts from the President and to present an exemplary selection therefrom to the public. They seek light *ex occidente*. It is in this spirit that the historian, Prof. A. B. Hart of Harvard University, goes to Washington asking Mr. McKinley for the full text of documents that have been published only in part—in short, for facts in lieu of the voluminous official statements of the past two years. He comes with the appetite for facts which an historian may be presumed to have after a two years' fast. Can the President find it in his heart to give him a stone—or another report of a Commission?

Hawaiian election returns are just in, and show that the ungrateful natives stood together and outvoted their white deliverers. Not only did they elect their delegate to Congress, but carried the Hawaiian Legislature as well, so that nothing but Gov. Dole's veto will now prevent the frightful evil of a government of Hawaii by Hawaiians. No wonder that the beaten whites promptly declare that the natives have shown themselves "unfit for the suffrage," and that Congress must immediately intervene to take it away from them. Self-government, new style, means a docile readiness to let the minority exploit the majority; and if the silly majority object, why, they must not be allowed to vote at all. This unhappy outcome in Hawaii was foreseen by the white oligarchs, who protested, from the first, against manhood suffrage as probably fatal to their snug little monopoly of government at Honolulu. Now that their worst fears are realized, they will move on Washington to get their privileges and immunities restored by law.

The burning at the stake on Friday of a negro murderer in Colorado was attended by circumstances of deliberate ferocity, which make it the most fiendish thing of its kind ever known in a Northern State. Indians could not have gone more callously to the torturing of a victim. The ordinary excuses do not serve in this case. There is no race question in Colorado. It cannot be said there that fearful torments must be meted out to all negro criminals in order to make the lives of whites secure. Nor was it a question of a howling mob driven to sudden and uncontrollable frenzy. A week had passed since the crime. Preparations to lynch the guilty man were made with all the deliberation of the public meeting. The form of agony by which the wretched man should be put to death was decided by a kind of popular vote. Telegraph operators were notified, and photographers advised to be ready for "snap shots" of the dying struggles. Then the prisoner was taken from the Sheriff, with every sign of prearrangement if not collusion, and the "most respectable" people of the neighborhood stood about while a fellow-being was tortured to death. Such an outrage on law, on humanity, on the fundamentals of civilization, was never before, we think, perpetrated in a Northern State. Colorado has, indeed, abolished capital punishment, and this may be urged in palliation, but in any case the planned and revolting cruelty of this lynching puts it in a class by itself. The North has now surpassed the bloody instructions of the South.

The most prosperous year ever enjoyed by American shipping interests is reported by the Commissioner of Navigation. For the first time since the outbreak of the Civil War, the documented tonnage of the United States exceeds 5,000,000 gross tons. It increased more than 300,000 tons last year. Moreover, the new vessels are made to an increasing extent in our own yards. In 1890, only 20 per cent. of the world's shipping was of steel; now the percentage is three times as great. As to the manufacture of steel, the position of this country is now well known. Steel can be produced and wrought here more cheaply than anywhere else in the world. As the Commissioner observes, "Steel has radically changed the industrial organization of the world's shipbuilding and ship-owning. It requires expensive machinery, great capital, and the employment of large numbers of specially trained mechanics." These requirements are met in this country. No one, least of all an officer of the Administration, will question the ability of our mechanics to do successfully any work that is assigned to them. No one can dispute the existence of an immense capital in this country, ready for any use. It is borrowed by the nations and even the municipalities of Europe, and no enterprise here that can be carried on with profit need be hampered for lack of funds. There seems, then, no reason why ships should not be built and owned here at a profit. We have the steel; we have the skilled labor; we can make, if we have not now, the best of machinery; we have the money to own and operate these vessels when completed; we have the coal to move them; we have the goods to freight them withal.

From this impressive array of facts and arguments, the proper inference would seem to be that the shipping industry needs no aid from the taxpayers. The citizens engaged in it are likely to make as large profits as those engaged in any other business. In fact, on August 15 of this year, 68 merchant steel vessels, aggregating 278,000 tons, and 47 naval vessels of 113,000 tons, were building or contracted for. Contracts since that date bring the merchant tonnage up to 350,000 tons, so that the current year will see much the largest amount of steel ship-building ever known in our history. The Commissioner of Navigation declares that in the United States "the conditions have now been established: abundance of capital, cheap materials, practical experience, constructive talent, and skilled labor"; all that is lacking is a system of bounties to be paid by the people to those who take advantage of these conditions. No more unreasonable conclusion than this was ever drawn. If the ship-building industry were an "infant," something might be said in favor of administering governmental pap. If we had to import our steel and send abroad for our machinery; if we borrowed money in Europe instead of lending it there, and our mechanics were dull and untrained; then, indeed, some plausible claim for a bounty might be made. With conditions as they are, it appears to be altogether unjustifiable, and it will be generally regarded as a deliberate present to a few rich men of a number of millions of dollars taken by the tax-gatherers from the pockets of the people. The Commissioner of Navigation occupies a humiliating position when he tries to show that ship-building cannot be profitably carried on in this country, and he carries his argument to an absurd extent by winding up with a proposal to increase the tonnage taxes.

Arbitration was discussed by a number of witnesses before the Industrial Commission in Washington on Thursday, and some interesting things were said. The feasibility of establishing a national Board of Arbitration was suggested, but Martin Fox, President of the Iron Moulders' Union, declared himself emphatically opposed to any element of compulsion in such arbitration. He favored conciliation and arbitration. Other witnesses favored arbitration before State Boards, but they, too, opposed compulsory arbitration. The proposition for a National Board of Arbitration takes most definite form in a recent suggestion by Herman Justi, Commissioner of the Illinois Coal Operators' Association, that employees in every great industry form an association and elect commissioners, to whom all questions arising within their industry shall be referred. Such an organization and such a commission, as we have noted, already exists among Illinois coal operators for negotiating with miners through their union, and the proposed National Board of Arbitration would be made up of these commissions and of representatives of labor organizations in different branches of industry. The idea is that there might be referred to such a board the more fundamental questions involved in such labor disputes as the St. Louis railway strike, the builders' and contractors' lock-out in Chicago, and the miners' strike in the anthracite coal region; and that it could bring to bear upon every question a fund of general and special knowledge which would enable the members to get at the real causes of trouble and to deal with those causes scientifically. It will be noticed that the organization would be voluntary on the part of both employers and employees, and the national Government would have no responsibility in the matter. It would be interesting to see such an experiment tried.

Platt appears to have heard some faint echoes of the great racket produced throughout the State by his announcement that he was going to have a State Constabulary Law passed by his Legislature and signed by his Governor. There was a significant change of tone in his remarks to a reporter of the *Evening Post* on Friday from his uncompromising declaration of the day before, that the bill "will be passed"—the bill, that is, which everybody has been talking about all the while. Now he says that the measure which it is proposed to introduce at Albany has not yet been drafted, and adds: "The bill that the newspapers are talking about is an old Constabulary Bill. It would be just as well for the newspapers to wait until they see the new bill and learn its terms before they condemn it." One reason for this significant change is doubtless the evidence which has come to public notice that there is a tremendous revolt against the machine scheme in all parts of the State, and that many shrewd Republicans believe that the enactment of the proposed law would assure the victory of Tammany in the city and of Democracy in the State at the next election. Another influence which may already be at work is the proof, which a little investigation brings to light, that many Republican Senators and Assemblymen resent the cool assumption of the boss that they are nothing but his tools, and the growing suspicion that there may prove to be enough independence in the Legislature to make trouble for Platt.

Bishop Potter's letter to the Mayor is the most authoritative statement as to the disgraceful conditions of government which prevail in New York city under Tammany rule that has yet appeared. Such an indictment of the administration of the laws in the metropolis of a civilized commonwealth was never before drawn. Think of its being possible for an eminent representative of the Church in a great city to say with truth, and with public knowledge of their truth, such things as these to the head of the civil government:

> "The thing that is of consequence, sir, is that when a minister of religion and a resident in a particular neighborhood, whose calling and character, experience, and truthfulness, are all alike widely and abundantly recognized, goes to the headquarters of the police in his district to appeal to them for the protection of the young, the innocent, and the defenceless, against the leprous harpies who are hired as runners and touters for the lowest and most infamous dens of vice, he is met not only with contempt and derision, but with the coarsest insult and obloquy."

The Bishop declares his belief that in no other civilized or Christian community on earth does there exist such a situation as "defiles and dishonors" New York to-day. It deepens our shame that this burning disgrace must be published to the world; that the dreadful facts are thrust upon the attention of all in other countries who are studying the experiment of democratic government in America. But publicity is, of course, the only way of escape. The people of the city must be aroused to a realizing sense of the horrible situation. The public mind must be stirred to its depths, and a sentiment must be developed which will demand reform with a force that cannot be resisted. It is most distasteful work for any good citizen, and especially repulsive to a clergyman, but it is work that has got to be done, and the Church has its large share in the matter. Bishop Potter has rendered the community an immense service in thus taking the lead.

The scene enacted in Tammany Hall last Thursday, in which Mr. Isidor Straus and Richard Croker took the principal parts, will impress the public mind in more than one way. Mr. Straus represented in this instance a society that is trying to teach the poorer classes, and especially the young, the lesson of good citizenship, so that they shall feel the full responsibility resting upon them as a part of the American commonwealth. In the promotion of this object he and those associated with him have expended more than $65,000 of their own money in a single year, besides giving their own time and labor. They found exactly what the Rev. Mr. Paddock found while laboring among the same classes—that certain depraving influences were working in the contrary sense, sowing tares while they were sowing wheat. "I refer," said Mr. Straus, "to the immorality in tenement houses and the immorality in the streets; the manner in which the boys and girls are threatened with the temptations held out to them on every side. We realize that, no matter how strong our influence may be, if the children are destroyed before they come to us, our whole work is destroyed." Naturally so. Naturally, too, Mr. Straus mentioned the matter to Richard Croker when he met him, just as Marcus Cicero might have mentioned to Julius Cæsar any abuse he was cognizant of in old Rome, instead of bringing it before the consuls and the Senate. He would bring the matter before the head man who was out of office, instead of the underlings who were in office, in order to save time and avoid waste of energy. Croker took in the situation. "Come to Tammany Hall," he said. "See the Executive Committee. Give them as good a lecture as you have given me." He did not say: "Come with me to the Mayor, or go to the Board of Police." He acknowledged tacitly as to the Government of New York, *c'est moi*.

Lord Salisbury's new Cabinet is now complete, and it is evidently his own handiwork. The predicted dominance of Mr. Chamberlain does not appear in the personnel of the new Government. Some spiteful opponents are remarking on the number of the Premier's nephews and other relatives who figure in the Cabinet; but Salisbury would doubtless say that he has simply followed Conservative precedent in turning to the great governing families, and if the Cecils are among them, it is not for him to pass by a great house simply because he is the head of it. The Marquis of Lansdowne no doubt owes his elevation to the Foreign Office to his being a "grand seigneur." That he has, besides, marked qualifications for the position, is unquestionable. He is one of the very few Englishmen in public life who speak idiomatic French. His courtesy and amiability are expected to furnish the needed counterpoise to Mr. Chamberlain's brusque manners and blunt speech in the Colonial Office. Indeed, his appointment to his delicate post is felt to be Salisbury's way of rebuking Chamberlain's liking for the "new diplomacy"—the kind, that is, which blurts out threats and complaints against the Government with which you profess to be trying to reach a friendly understanding. All this seems to be now better understood by the English press, which has modified its first bitter criticism of Salisbury's action in promoting an unpopular Minister of War. The London *Times*, while recalling none of its strictures upon Lord Lansdowne, admits that he was a hard-working official, and adds the delicious remark, "Had the war not broken out, he would have easily ranked as the best War Minister of recent times." This may be intended for an ironical adaptation of the *nisi imperasset* used of the Roman Emperor. It recalls the high encomium of a war correspondent on an English General: "He is a splendid General when there is no enemy to upset his calculations."

It is a rather important fact that Emperor William thought it necessary to apologize for incurring large expense in sending an expedition to China without summoning the Reichstag and securing its assent beforehand. The Constitution of the Empire requires the sanction of that body for all war expenditures and for the sending of troops out of the country. No such assent was given, or even sought by the Emperor. He not only made war and incurred debt on his own sole responsibility, but he made undignified and gloomy speeches which agitated the European world, and made his own subjects apprehensive that he was losing his wits. He has lost prestige at home and has awakened fears abroad. Of course, the Reichstag will sanction the steps he has taken because they are irrevocable, but the sanction ought to be accompanied by an explicit declaration that it is not to be taken in the light of a precedent for the future. The Reichstag represents the nation, whose civil liberty resides there, and it has none that it can afford to lose. A tyrant usually begins by helping himself to the public treasure, and if the representatives of the people make no objection, even the formality of an apology will presently be omitted.

Chancellor von Bülow's statement in the Reichstag on Monday was an official confirmation of the press reports concerning the terms which the Powers have determined to impose on China. The only new item is one proposing to compel the Chinese Government to make "such changes in existing treaties regarding trade and navigation *as the foreign Governments deem advisable*." This is but one step more in the extinction of Chinese sovereignty. Together with the other extreme demands—for an indemnity which may be made elastic enough to ruin Chinese finance; for the razing of forts and the prohibition of the purchase and importation of war material; for the execution of princes and officials whose beheading would practically destroy the Chinese throne—it amounts to an exaction of impossibilities. If they are insisted upon, it will be of no use for the Powers to say that they desire to avoid a conquest of China. They are already treating the Chinese Empire as if it were a derelict, of which they are entitled to take full possession. We cannot help feeling that this throws an inevitable air of hypocrisy over the whole negotiation. What the Powers profess is a sincere desire to restore peace at the earliest possible moment; to hasten the recuperation of Chinese industry and commerce; and, above all, to prevent the recurrence of the outrages which took the civilized world by surprise. The prompting of elementary wisdom, then, would seem to prescribe, as Pierre Leroy-Beaulieu argues in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, avoidance of "the very errors of conduct which brought on the explosions." It was undue foreign aggression which caused them; therefore, to prevent their return, make foreign aggression more overweening and exasperating than ever!

It is worthy of note that the King of the Belgians could sign, as he did a few days ago while on a sojourn at the Paris Exposition, a decree providing Government pensions for workingmen, without occasioning any considerable comment. In any other country than Belgium, the proposition to pay to all workingmen sixty-five years of age life pensions of 65 francs ($13) a year, could hardly be taken as so much a matter of course, but Socialism has been for years powerfully influencing Belgian legislation. The royal decree takes effect on January 1, 1901, when workingmen sixty-five years of age, and in need of such assistance, will come immediately into the enjoyment of their annuity. Those fifty-eight years of age on that date will have the same privilege at the expiration of their sixty-fifth year. All others, however, as a condition of drawing a pension, must have paid into the public bureau of pensions, during a period of three years, not less than 3 francs a year, and a total amount of 18 francs. To this extent in its ultimate operation the Belgian scheme is a sort of workingmen's insurance. The terms on which the annuities are granted, however, make it obviously a pensioning, rather than an insurance of workingmen. A bill has recently been introduced into the Chamber of Deputies in France, providing for compulsory insurance of workingmen. It is proposed that the expense of this insurance shall be divided between employer and employee, the employee paying a certain per cent. of his wages, and his employer contributing an equal amount. When these amounts combined, however, fall below a given sum, the Government is to make up the deficit with a subsidy.

WAR AND CHRISTIANITY.

Capt. Mahan's address before the Church Congress on "War from the Christian Point of View" seems to have been a pendant to his paper, a year ago, against international arbitration. In that he took the highest moral and religious ground against agreeing to arbitrate a quarrel which conscience and the voice of God itself might demand that you should pursue to the bitter end. At Providence he appears to have risen to a similar moral grandeur in classing war, not as an evil (sometimes a necessary evil, as nearly all admit), but as remedial of evil—in short, a great engine of civilization and of Christianity. We would not do Capt. Mahan the possible injustice of holding him to newspaper accounts of what he said; but it is clear that the thing he attacked was a sentiment which he evidently considers mistaken and deplorable, namely, the "widespread feeling that war cannot be reconciled with Christian principles." In other words, he was only, like John P. Robinson, confuting a vulgar error:

"We kind o' thought Christ went agin war an' pillage,
An' thet eppyletts worn't the best mark of a saint;
But John P.
Robinson he
Sez this kind o' thing's an exploded idee."

With Christian apologists for war we have long been familiar. But none to our knowledge have ever before gone beyond saying that "there are some things worse than war"; that we cannot be for peace at any price, and other "inarticulate mumblements" of the sort, as Carlyle would call them. War as a blessing, instead of an evil occasionally to be tolerated; war as a means of overcoming evil and propagating righteousness; war as the indispensable ally and servant of civilization and religion—for this we have had to wait till an end-of-the-century church congress. It seems to mark the end of other things besides the century. Are not our embattled clergymen coming dangerously near justifying Shelley's bitter taunt that war is "the priest's delight"?

The defence of war, thus passing into its apotheosis, reminds one vividly of the defence of slavery, finally running into its glorification. We all know how slavery was, at first, a temporary and passing evil; then a peculiar institution, only indirectly and obscurely condemned in the Bible; finally a divinely ordered thing, best for the slave, best for the master, best for society. From shamefaced apology, the Southern Senators gradually emerged into open laudation. By 1860 they proudly raised their heads in Washington to declare that "slavery is a great moral, social, and political blessing," that its "frame of society is the best in the world," and that it is "ennobling to both races, the white and the black." (The quotations are verbatim from speeches cited in Sumner's Life.) We see what example Capt. Mahan is following. He is undertaking to Christianize war as the slaveholders did slavery. Slavery was not made less hideous in the process; nor can war be. It is only Christianity that suffers from such arguments.

We are aware that Capt. Mahan draws an ideal picture of war. It must be always "just"; and those engaging in it must all be Galahads. But we know that, in fact, this is pure fancy. There never was such a war, there never will be such an army, as Capt. Mahan supposes. Let him come out of his study and ask men or nations why they fight. There is but one answer: they fight because they hate. This is what the philosopher says; it is also what the child says. Goethe was reproached for not taking part in the war against France—a just war for Germans, if there ever was one. His defence was that he did not hate the French, so why should he fight them? Fighting, said that great clear intellect, depends upon hating. If hate, then, is the soul of war, we see that the subject of Capt. Mahan's paper should have been, "Hate from a Christian Point of View." What the clergy and others who followed in the discussion should have talked about was "Malice and the Sermon on the Mount," or "Bloodshed and the Beatitudes."

Capt. Mahan admitted that the Prince of Peace is credited with many sayings which really look as if he was "agin war and pillage"; but he met the theologians on their own ground, and showed how a little skilful exegesis could get rid of all those awkward words in condemnation of war. Besides, if we were to "follow out to the letter certain words of Christ," what would become of modern society? "Resist not evil," "turn the other cheek"—oh, evidently, this would never do in the nineteenth century. This is the great Christian anomaly at which Tolstoi has exclaimed. The priests sent him to the New Testament for guidance, and when he came back a sworn enemy of war, they told him pityingly that those apparent teachings of Christ were not to be taken literally. Then why take the Ten Commandments literally? Why not say that this is a workaday world in which men must be practical, and take things as they find them, and that, really, the Ten Commandments are an excellent thing, just as peace is, but that we cannot be for the Ten Commandments at any price?

There are two great dangers in this whole attempt to give Christian sanctions to war. One is that, instead of producing a race of "Happy Warriors," as Capt. Mahan desires, we shall turn out a breed of hypocrites. Mr. Gardiner has explained, in his book on 'Cromwell's Place in History,' how Englishmen instinctively try to throw a moral and religious glamour about their acts of public bad faith, aggression, and conquest. They get rich by such means, but it must always be twisted into an "ad majorem Dei gloriam." But the French and others call this hypocrisy. It is hard to deny the charge. And it will be harder still if our religious teachers encourage us in the old Spanish doctrine that loot and slaughter are a form of the highest Christian virtue. The second danger is lest Christianity, in the hands of these exponents of its congruity with war, become too openly and contemptibly a nose of wax, to be fashioned according to the whims and needs of the passing hour. Just now the world is having a brute revival of war. Ergo, the Christian religion, in order to remain popular, in order to keep in touch with the things to which men are giving time and strength and money and life, must go about to gild the grisly horror, and make it out a kind of fireside comfort and promoter of all the virtues and sanctities. How long will men retain respect for a religion that is thus ready to blur its ideals and make jelly of its imperatives, simply as a handmaid of the powers that be? How long will they give heed to its prophets and preachers if they so easily transmute the tremendous "Thou shalt not" into "Swim with the current"?

REDUCTION OF WAR TAXES.

The question of tax reduction will be brought before Congress at the coming session, and it is said that President McKinley will recommend a reduction equal to about fifteen millions per annum. The country is again in the singular position which was occupied during Mr. Cleveland's first term—the condition of an embarrassing surplus. Toward the close of that Administration the revenues exceeded the expenditures by one hundred and twenty millions, and the method of disposing of the surplus was the great question of the day. Government bonds were bought in the market until the price was forced up to 128 for the 4 per cents. This was an unheard-of premium, but there was no reason to suppose that this would be the maximum if the purchases were continued.

The Government was really at the mercy of the bondholders. It must pay whatever price they chose to ask. So the purchases were discontinued and the policy was adopted of depositing the surplus in the national banks, in order to avoid contraction of the currency through the Treasury accumulations. In August, 1888, the idle money in the Treasury was equal in amount to one-fourth of the volume of money in circulation throughout the country. Secretary Fairchild deposited his surplus receipts in the banks to the amount of more than $61,000,000, and, as a poli cal campaign was then raging, the cry of "pet banks" was started by Mr. Blaine, and echoed by the Republican orators and newspapers. It was charged that the Secretary was favoring particular banks by the deposit of the public money, and it was insinuated that the Democratic campaign fund was swelled by that means. This was one of the incidents growing out of an unmanageable surplus of public money.

The surplus now is again growing unmanageable. It arises from the War Revenue Act of 1898. This measure increased the tax on beer from one dollar per barrel to two dollars. It established license taxes on bankers and brokers, theatres, circuses, museums, and concert-halls, exhibitions, bowling alleys, billiard and pool-rooms. It increased the taxes on tobacco, snuff, and cigars, and on the dealers in the same. It imposed stamp taxes on a great variety of legal instruments and on bank checks, bills of exchange, telegrams, express or freight receipts, bills of lading, warehouse receipts, stock transfers, bonds, debentures, and certificates of indebtedness, and on sales of produce or merchandise, or agreements for sale at any public exchange or board of trade; also on proprietary medicines, perfumery, and cosmetics. It also imposed a tax on legacies.

The financial results of this measure were even greater than had been anticipated. The internal revenue rose from $173,866,819 to $273,484,573, an increase of nearly one hundred millions in a single year. Even this did not represent the entire gain. The increase in the first four months of the fiscal year 1900-1901 was $10,000,000 over the corresponding period of 1899. The returns for the entire year must be awaited.

It is much to be hoped that the war in the Philippines will not last another year. In one way or another it should be brought to an end, and the large expense involved in it should be cut off or cut down. It is to be hoped also that Congress will put its foot on the greater part of the senseless and dangerous estimates for increase of the navy. However that may be, the question of reducing the war taxes will soon be under debate. It is not likely that the present Congress will touch the tariff. That question will come up in due time, but it will be taken up by a Congress elected on that issue, but not by the present one or the one which was chosen on the 6th of this month.

The question now is, what articles in the internal-revenue list shall be relieved of tax. This question is not so easy to answer as it looks. The truth is, that nearly all the taxes imposed fall upon the classes well able to pay. The stamp tax on bank checks is an annoying one, of course, but as it is one which falls only on those who are rich enough to have bank accounts, it seems to be of the kind which ought to be retained. The stamp duties on other instruments, being a tax on sales, might well be repealed, since they are an impediment to business, causing more trouble to individuals than benefit to the Government. The tax on beer ought to be retained, but probably will be reduced in some measure, since the brewers have an organization, backed by the saloon influence, which has strong political power. The tax on proprietary medicines, perfumery, and cosmetics could be easily spared. The legacy and succession tax ought to be abandoned to the States. The whole amount derived from it is but little more than $1,000,000. It is difficult to lay down any general principle in reference to the war revenue act. It is a matter of detail altogether, upon which very good authorities will be sure to differ. Yet it is imperative that the revenue be reduced unless we are to fall again into the embarrassments of 1888.

AN IMPERIAL QUESTION IN NEW YORK.

Just before the London municipal election, which followed hard on the choice of a new Parliament, Lord Rosebery declared in a public speech that there could be no question so Imperial as good government in the capital of the Empire. He said:

> "The Empire is not South Africa alone, or Canada alone, or Australia alone, or India alone. The heart of the Empire is Britain, and the heart of Britain is London, and you cannot afford to let that source and centre of Empire decay or be poisoned for the want of vigilance and supervision on your part. In another sense even more vital this is an Imperial question. What is an Empire unless it is pillared on an Imperial race? And what are you doing if you allow this Imperial race to be vitiated and poisoned in the dens of crime and horror in which too many of them are reared at this moment? Why, if you are an Imperial race, be an Imperial race indeed, so that you will not see these proud citizens of yours brought up in a manner, reared in a manner, which must inevitably lead to crime, disease, and death."

It would be well if New Yorkers, in the coming struggle for the rescue of their city from vile hands, could adopt this large way of looking at the contest. If there is any force at all in our swelling talk about world-powers and America an Empire, let us insist upon applying it to the work of redeeming our greatest city. An imagination which takes fire at the acquisition of islands 7,000 miles away, ought not to be sluggish under the appeal of that vast congeries of life and activity, of wealth and art and literature—limitless in its possibilities of enlargement and adornment, limitless also in its possibilities of defilement and ruin—which we call New York city. We are an Empire by ourselves. In population we nearly equal the number of the entire American nation at the beginning of its independent existence; in money and power we far surpass it. To cherish and expand and beautify our Imperial city ought to be to us an aim and ambition fully as grand and as ardently to be pursued as to Washington and Franklin and Adams and Jefferson was the mighty ground-plan of what Chief-Justice Marshall early referred to as "The American Empire." They were the true Imperialists before Imperialism. Tawdry names and flashy glories were nothing to them; but Imperial virtues were exceeding precious. To an Imperial domain they wished to wed an Imperial race. They saw dangers, and fearlessly pointed them out. Against the temptation of mere numbers and physical strength, they solemnly warned their countrymen. They undoubtedly did perceive and employ the immense motive which is laid upon men by boundless opportunity. If that is Imperialism, we are quite willing to see it preached in the municipal campaign in New York already upon us.

In as real and vital a sense as Lord Rosebery asserted for London, the nature of government in New York city is critical for all cities under the American flag. We have heard much silly chatter about a reformed Manila coming to the relief of New York, and a purified Havana bearing help to Philadelphia. We see now how directly the reverse is the true process. The Manila police is notoriously corrupt, and justifies itself by the New York example. In Havana there are confessed election frauds, but the guilty men point, for defence, to the operations of the Quay machine in Philadelphia. In short, the notion that poison in the vital centres could be overcome by injecting an antidote in the extremities has now, happily, disappeared. It is, rather, the weakened heart and poisoned brain which swiftly send the toxic effect to hand and feet. The salvation of New York must be wrought out on the spot, and by her own citizens; and yet they may, as we have said, rightly admit the power of an appeal to save the city as the surest means of saving other cities and the whole country.

Thus to state the problem is alone to condemn half the solutions offered. To "coöperate with Croker," as he now solemnly advises us, what a way that would be of attacking an Imperial question! The most foolish Imperialist going would laugh at the proposal. If an Empire depends on Dick Croker for its saving, it is already lost. But his co-boss is just as manifestly ruled out if we once see that the task before us is one of Imperial dimensions. To upset one boss for the purpose of giving power to another—is that the way an Imperial city goes to work? Will it lie back feebly and say that it is not fit to control its own police force, and that therefore Platt must come to its aid from Albany? That would not smack of Empire, but of cowardice and slavery. A feeble folk, a degenerate and timid race, might turn whiningly to boss or to machine in the crisis which is upon us; but a city of 3,500,000, with the eyes of the world upon it, could not do so without inviting and deserving contempt. If we are an Imperial race, let us quit ourselves as such a race should; and let us begin here at home, without vague dreams of conquest over the seas, when vice and crime and organized greed which calls itself a political party are at our doors to be fought and overcome.

Empire-building is held up to our admiration as the chief glory of the day. Let us not forget that as keen a satisfaction may be taken in the conquest of ignorance and disease and crime in our cities as in the extension of our domain to the ends of the earth. When Mr. Chamberlain was a leader in the regeneration of Birmingham, he said:

> "I will confess to you that I am so parochially minded that I look with a greater satisfaction to our annexation of the gas and water, and to our scientific frontier of the improvement area, than I do to the result of that Imperial policy which has given us Cyprus and the Transvaal; and I am prouder of having been engaged in warring against ignorance and disease and crime in Birmingham than if I had been the author of the Zulu war, or had instigated the invasion of Afghanistan."

Mr. Chamberlain has since run after other gods; but those of us who cannot or will not join in foreign conquest, may just as truly know the Imperial thrill by sharing in the rescue of an Imperial city.

T. PLATT, CITY-SAVER.

The sudden and consuming zeal of the Hon. Thomas C. Platt in behalf of a good and pure city government for New York deserves to rank among the remarkable conversions in the world's history. Is "Tom" also among the prophets? We should be only too glad to believe that a leading wrecker of the city had now repented and was bent on saving it, in spite of itself; but we must say that a sincere penitent is ordinarily willing to be put on probation, and does not insist upon stepping at once from the mourners' bench to the pulpit. Mr. Platt is now engaged in the attempt to persuade credulous people that he has blossomed overnight into the greatest municipal reformer of the century. But the only way in which he could convince the hard-headed would be to stand in a sheet before the City Hall at high noon, and cry out in a lamentable voice, "Miserable sinner that I am, it was I that made Van Wyck Mayor, I that threw New York into Croker's hands like an orange for him to squeeze. Now I repent in dust and ashes and ask to be given an humble part in undoing my own work."

A man who is so virtuously determined in 1900 to "down Croker" ought to explain why, in 1897, he deliberately flung the city into Croker's maw. It is "no easy task" to defeat Croker, says the Platt family statement, because there was a Tammany majority of 27,000 for Bryan in Greater New York. But Tammany was in a minority in 1897. The Low vote and the Tracy vote together surpassed the Van Wyck vote. Who was responsible for this division of the anti-Tammany vote? Who but the man who now says his sole desire is to save the city from the horrible calamity of Tammany rule? Was he then more anxious to down Croker than to exalt Platt? Is he now? These are questions which serious-minded men will insist upon putting, and getting answered, before they cast themselves into the arms of this astonishing volunteer saviour of society.

Platt says that Croker cannot be beaten unless the control of the police is taken away from him. To this we say, in the first place, that Platt should have thought of this before he used his sinister rule-or-ruin power to put the police under Croker's control. This thing was not done in a corner. Platt was openly warned that the patronage of Greater New York, which he was cynically offering to Croker, would so intrench Tammany that the work of dislodgment would be doubly difficult. What did he care for that? He snapped his fingers at all this, and, when Van Wyck was elected, laughed and jested in public. In the second place, we say it is not true that Tammany control of the police makes Tammany impregnable in an election. Tammany had the police in the hollow of its hand in 1894, but was beaten by more than 45,000 votes.

After that great slaughter and the election of Mayor Strong, what was the attitude of T. Platt, city-saver? Does he suppose that people have already forgotten how he denounced and thwarted, as far as he could, the best administration the city had known for years? Did he not put up Quigg and his other creatures to rail at Col. Strong as a faithless renegade to party, simply because he would not turn over all the spoils to Platt? Mayor Strong is dead, and memories are short; but Platt's conduct and language all through the Strong term of office, culminating in his cool betrayal of the city's interest in the Low campaign, are reason enough for not giving him a commission to rescue and reform the city now.

It is to be noted, too, that Platt's argument for taking away from the city the control of its own police would apply just as cogently to every other department of municipal administration. The Fire Department can easily be made a political auxiliary—perhaps is now; ergo, give it to Platt. So of the docks, so of the schools, so of the city charities. How do we know that Platt, if he has his way about the police, and then fails to carry the election, will not ask next time for all the rest? He could avow the same pious end and pure-minded purpose —to "secure good city government"—and could meet all objections in the same way that he does now, namely, that "home rule" is a mere "sentiment" which must be set aside in order not to keep simply a "shadow" and lose the "substance."

The plain truth is that Platt's character, career, and consistent course for many years would make a ghastly farce of any municipal campaign which called itself reform, and yet put itself under his leadership. He is a part of the thing to be reformed. He is to-day, as he has been for years, the stay and hope of Tammany. "Ask Platt," said Croker before the Legislative Committee; and that is what he and all his coparceners say now when giving the real reason of their confidence in retaining power. They cannot believe that Platt, after having played into their hands so steadily, will fail them now. In some way or other, they are confident, he will manage to bedevil the anti-Tammany movement. Nor from the side of reformers can it be seriously denied that Platt is the greatest single obstacle in their path. Croker they can fight openly; but who shall deliver them from the machinations of Platt? The easily fooled people who are taken in by his virtuous protestations in connection with his plan for seizing upon the police power of New York city, should know that, even if he should succeed in this deep-laid plan of his to "save" the city, they would be the first to cry out for some one to save them from their saviour.

GOLD MINING ON THE RAND.

The resumption of gold mining "on the Rand" prompts the inquiry what will be the effect of a new and continued outpour of the yellow metal upon the commerce of the world, equal to or greater than that which was going on before the war in South Africa took place. The essential quality of gold—the fact which distinguishes it from all other substances in or upon the earth—is that it constitutes purchasing power. It is *per se* a demand for goods. Unlike all other products of labor, there is no need to wait for a market for it. Unlike all others, too, the precipitation of a great quantity of it on the world does not lower its price immediately in the general markets of the world; the quantity in existence at all times being vastly greater than any possible increment in a single year. Consequently, the miner gets full value for all that he can bring out of the ground, as soon as he can place it in the world's markets. However large the output, some years must elapse before general prices rise to a correspondence with the new supplies of money.

The production of gold in the whole

day they herd their flocks on the plains, and at night bring them in great droves to the watering-places, around which they have pitched their felt tents.

The Kirghiz Tartars have well solved the problem of living in this country under existing conditions. There is no wood. There are no mines. But the frame-work of their dome-shaped tents is of the lightest character, so that the wood of which it is made can be brought long distances on camel-back. The little iron used is brought in ox-carts, or on camel-back, from Semipalatinsk, 350 miles away. The felt covering for their tents is made by their own hands from the wool of their own sheep, and is a good covering in winter as well as in summer. For fuel they depend on the dung of animals. What we thought at first to be piles of peat put up to dry for winter, we found, on examination, to be cakes of manure, kneaded into a mass with straw, and stacked against a time of need. The spectacle which we often witness of the women engaged with their bare hands in the process of this manufacture is the most revolting which has met our eyes.

The Balkash Basin has an area of 120,000 square miles, and a total population, mostly Tartars, of 990,107. These, to a large extent, live on the flocks and herds. According to the last census they have 4,176,428 sheep, 352,172 horned cattle, 680,750 horses, 98,673 camels, 274,001 goats, but only 42 mules. In the irrigated portions there is raised a sufficient quantity of wheat, rye, oats, barley, millet, flax, and hemp to supply their need of those commodities. Gardens and orchards also flourish near the base of the mountains. Here for the first time since entering Siberia we find a bountiful supply of apples raised on the ground, and they are of most excellent quality in every respect. In exchange for the few foreign luxuries which can be afforded, we met all along the route endless lines of ox-carts, and horses, and camels, loaded with wool, pelts, hides, and grain.

The Kirghiz Tartars resemble closely in their physiognomy the red Indians of America. They have their high cheek bones, their straight, black hair, their copper color, as well as many of their habits of life. In some individuals the resemblance has been so perfect that I could scarcely dispel the illusion that I was on the plains of the base of the Rocky Mountains rather than on those of Central Asia. But one would not expect to see an American Indian riding a steer to herd a flock of sheep. The extent to which they ride their cattle here has been a surprise, while the intelligence of the cattle has been not less so.

The possibilities of the further development of this country are still great, though limited by the amount of water stored in the lofty bordering mountains. Probably not more than one-third of this is now utilized. The numerous Russian villages growing up in the well-watered places show what the line of advancement is to be. With the application of scientific methods, these mountain streams in their great descent will furnish water-power to supply electricity to run a line of electric cars all along their base. This will largely displace the hundreds of thousands of horses and camels now employed in transportation. This will mean more cattle and sheep, more wool and hides and tallows for export, and more meat for food, while the enlargement of the irrigated area will increase three-fold the production of grain and fruit. The province can thus be made to support a population four or five times its present number. The Tartar tent, with its single room, will give place to the Russian adobe house, with its thatched roof and its four comfortable apartments. The process is already well begun.

I write from the picturesquely situated town of Vernoe. A majestic semicircle of mountain-peaks, from 8,000 to 10,000 feet high, closely surrounds it on the south. The endless arid plain, bisected by the Ili River, stretches away to the north. A small stream issues from the mountain tract behind the city, and irrigates the extensive delta terrace which it has built up, and gives opportunity for the culture of gardens and orchards and shade trees to the heart's content. The opportunity has been improved to the utmost, and there is created here one of the most delightful spots for residence imaginable. The population is about 30,000, largely native, but including a considerable colony of Russian officials and Cossack soldiers, who are responsible for the good order both of the city and of the province. Yesterday there was a heavy fall of snow on the mountains, but none on the plain. With these snow-clad peaks as sentinels we start on the remaining four hundred miles of tarantass-riding to Tashkend, where we meet the railroad. But all the way we shall be at the base of a continuous mountain-chain as grand as the Alps.

G. FREDERICK WRIGHT.

THE WIFE OF LOUIS XV.—I.

PARIS, November 4, 1900.

There is a tinge of romance in the marriage of Marie Leszczynska with Louis XV. She was perhaps the poorest princess in Europe, and he was the King of France, the successor of the *grand Roi*. Henry Gauthier-Villars has, like some others, treated this subject, and has been so fortunate as to get access to inedited documents—among others, to the correspondence of the father of the Princess, Stanislas Leszczynski. He has used the 'Annales de Menin,' a collection of papers concerning the ceremonies of the marriage, and a collection of documents concerning the embassy of the Duke d'Antin.

The Regent of France, the Duke d'Orléans, wished first to marry Louis XV. to a Spanish Infanta, and this project was the object of the Duke de St. Simon's mission to Spain, regarding which the celebrated writer gives so many details in his Memoirs. Louis XV. was almost a child when the Infanta came to Paris on the 2d of March, 1722; she, too, was a child. Public opinion was very much opposed to the proposed union, which promised no heir to the throne for many years. After the death of the Regent, the power fell into the hands of Henri de Bourbon, who was called Monsieur le Duc. He had for his mistress Madame de Prie, a bold and ambitious woman, very inimical to Spain because some of her pretensions had been repulsed by the Court of Spain; and it was probably through her influence that the marriage of Louis XV. with the Infanta was broken off. The Infanta was entering on her seventh year when she was sent back to Spain. Louis XV. was himself at the time entering his fifteenth year. He was very handsome, very strong for his age. He had been very badly brought up by Villeroi; was very childish, and D'Argenson says that "to be childish consists in . . . being amused by frivolities and in a sudden inconstancy—a sort of pretty defect which sometimes lasts for fifty years." The King, however, was of a melancholy disposition, and was as timid as he was proud. Villeroi had taught him that everything belonged to him: "tout ce peuple est à vous." He sincerely realized this. His grand passion was hunting. He found his distractions in the forest, at Rambouillet, at Marly, at Meudon. He paid no attention to the ladies of the Court and avoided their society. He was uniformly very uncivil and almost rude to the young Infanta, and was well pleased when she was sent away, but the Ministers thought that it was time to find a wife for the King.

Many were the lists of princesses that were of age, many the reports of the Ambassadors as to their years, their religion, their health, their alliances. Our national archives have preserved these reports, which are very curious. Marie Leszczynska did not figure in them. The first list of the Secretary of Foreign Affairs has no less than a hundred names; forty-four were at once eliminated because the princesses were more than twenty-four years old. Other reductions affected twenty-nine candidates who were under twelve years; ten German princesses were struck off as belonging to cadet branches which possessed no sovereignty. There remained on the list only seventeen princesses—the Infanta of Portugal, a Princess of Denmark, two daughters of the Prince of Wales, two daughters of the Czar, the daughter of the King of Prussia, two nieces of his uncle, some other German princesses, the eldest daughter of the Duke of Lorraine, a daughter of the Duke of Modena, the two sisters of Monsieur le Duc, Mlle. de Sens and Mlle. de Vermandois.

After a long examination, the list was reduced to four names: the two daughters of the Prince of Wales, with Mlles. de Sens and de Vermandois. The choice of the advisers of Monsieur le Duc fell definitively on Mlle. de Vermandois. She was, to be sure, a French princess, being a Bourbon Condé, but had not Louis XIV. contrived the marriage of the Duke de Berry, his grandson, to Mademoiselle d'Orléans? Mlle. de Vermandois was the sister of Monsieur le Duc, and the advisers he chose paid their court to him by recommending her. She was at the convent of Fontevrault. President Hénault, in his Memoirs, tells us that the Duchess de Bourbon, her mother, accompanied by Madame de Prie, went to Fontevrault to make her the offer of the hand of Louis XV. Mademoiselle de Vermandois declined the honor of the King's hand, and would hardly look on Madame de Prie, her brother's favorite. There is no official account of this visit; it has been denied by some historians that Madame de Prie accompanied the Duchess de Bourbon. The fact is, that this marriage project was abandoned.

Prince Mentchikoff made overtures to the French court in the name of Catharine of Russia. He offered Louis XV. the hand of the Princess Elizabeth, who was of the same age. In order to bring M. le Duc to her views, Catharine engaged to procure for him the hand of the daughter of Stanislas Leszczynski, the ex-King of Poland, and to give him the throne of Poland. The French Minister, M. de Campredon, raised objec-

Many Lands,' by Mrs. Louise Jordan [illegible]ln.

The W. B. Clarke Co., Boston, will short[illegible]y publish 'King Arthur in Avalon, and Other Poems,' by Sara Hammond Palfrey.

Two years ago, Mr. Rendall's translation of Marcus Aurelius gave the world a version of the 'Meditations' that ranks with, and may even (by virtue of its more precise scholarship) supersede, the classic renderings of Long and Jeremy Collier. But the reader who feels that a touch of archaism in the style adds an appropriate charm to the *journal intime* of a Roman Emperor, will give a warmer welcome to Mr. W. H. D. Rouse's reprint of Meric Casaubon's seventeenth-century version (New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.). An appendix, containing some of the Emperor's letters to his tutor, Fronto, adds an interest to the volume, and a glossary of obsolete or obscure words, while it offers much that is superfluous, is useful enough. The paper, type, and binding are most harmonious and pleasing; the reproductions of busts and bas-reliefs of the Emperor are excellent.

A companion book to Bury's 'Philobiblon' (previously noticed in these columns) is 'Bibliomania in the Middle Ages,' by F. Somner Merryweather, a somewhat obscure London bookseller of the earlier part of the century, chiefly known as the compiler of those 'Lives and Anecdotes of Misers' with which Silas Wegg pandered to the depraved appetite of Mr. Boffin. This publication (Meyer Bros. & Co.) shows him to have been an enthusiastic student of old book-lore; and he has here assembled a store of curious information about old monastic libraries, their management and treasures. Perhaps the most remarkable book he mentions is the superb Bible written by Alcuin for Charlemagne, and containing an inscription in Alcuin's own hand. This precious relic was presented by Charles's grandson to a monastery in Lorraine, and was preserved by the monks until 1793, when, their property being confiscated, it fell into the hands of dealers, and, after various vicissitudes, found at last a resting-place in the British Museum for the sum of £750—a ridiculous price, if the genuineness be unimpeached. The printing and general make-up of this book are excellent; but we could wish that the editor had paid more attention to the proof-reading. Of the Latin quotations in particular, there is scarce a line that is not barbarously mangled. Merryweather makes some pretensions to Latin scholarship, though his translation of *porri et olera*, "gardens and olives," is of a nature to beget a suspicion.

The last volume in the Dent-Macmillan "Medieval Towns," 'The Story of Florence,' by Mr. Edmund G. Gardner, deserves nothing but praise. The historical account is all that we should expect from such a Dantist as is Mr. Gardner. True, he confines himself perhaps a little too closely to the Middle Ages, and even Brunelleschi's dome does not so overshadow Florence as Dante does its history in the little volume before us. But if this be a fault it is on the right side, perhaps. Nor is the age of the Medici and Humanism by any means neglected. As a guide-book we seldom have [illegible] anything more commendable, and, con[illegible] Gardner is, after all, a com[illegible] how judgment. Miss Erichsen's illustrations are a welcome improvement upon those by the late Miss Taine in previous volumes of this series. An excellent feature is the reproduction of the beautiful wood-cut view of Florence, engraved towards the end of the fifteenth century.

Dr. Charles Conrad Abbott's 'In Nature's Realm' (Trenton, N. J.: Albert Brandt) is one of the author's characteristic monologues on the aspects of Nature among the Jersey meadows. Some of the chapters have already seen the light in print, others are new; all have been revised, enlarged, and now brought together in luxurious typography, and attractively illustrated by Oliver Kemp. Of the artist's work nothing can be said in criticism; its delicacy, truth to nature, and decorative effect are as admirable as they are unusual. There are ninety of these little sketches, besides a charming frontispiece in photogravure. The whole get-up of the book testifies to the good taste of the publisher. Of the text little can be said but that it is in Dr. Abbott's usual vein, which, while never rising to the first literary excellence, has an attractiveness of its own that has insured him an appreciative audience for many years. We would suggest to him that criticism, whether just or unjust, is best forgotten by the brookside or under the trees, and that his most successful chapters are those in which there is no reference to the tribulations of authorship.

The volume entitled 'Francis, the Little Poor Man of Assisi,' by James Adderley (London: Edwin Arnold), is curious as a product of the movement in the Anglican Church towards mediævalism. It seeks to present the founder of the Minorites as a model—except, we presume, as to obedience to the Bishop of Rome; but, beautiful as was the character of the saint, this compendium of his acts and teachings will scarce produce many emulators of his virtues, or bring a materialistic age to embrace with him Lady Poverty as the choicest of earthly blessings. The bald, commonplace English robs of all their charm the touching reminiscences of the *Fioretti* and the *Speculum Perfectionis*, and it is impossible not to have one's sense of congruity fatally upset by such comments as, "Whatever our views may be as to modern vivisection, it is quite certain that Francis would have been horrified at the very idea."

A well-digested, well-written life of Thomas Moore is a desideratum. We regret we cannot find it in Mr. Gunning's 'Moore: Poet and Patriot,' lately published by Gill & Son in Dublin. The book looks attractive, but that is all. As to style and judgment, the following paragraph may be sufficient: "And what, we may ask, has Moore done to merit niches in the temples of poetry and history—the great bequests of the ages—the recording angels of Time? He has, we answer, indelibly recorded our national traditions and the glories of our ancient race in lyrics the most sweet and beautiful the world has ever seen."

Irish fairy stories are charming; but they lose much of their charm when not taken neat, and he indeed must be a competent hand that attempts to reset or retell them. Mr. Frost, in his 'Fairies and Folk of Ireland' (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons), has essayed the task. We cannot congratulate him on the result. They may satisfy [illegible] Irish fairy stories those who have not met them in better form. Mrs. O'Brien, John, and Kitty may pass as exemplars of Irish peasantry to those who have never read Carleton or Miss Barlow. The book is attractively brought out and well illustrated. In so far as Mr. Frost takes stories from Kennedy and others, always with proper acknowledgment, and keeps tolerably close to the originals, the book is of value. The passage of Irish fairies on board an Atlantic liner to this country is really too bad.

Few of the publications of the Catholic Truth Society, London, will particularly commend themselves to Protestants. We must, however, make an exception in favor of the 'Catholic Temperance Reader,' by the Rev. W. H. Cologan and Sir F. R. Cruise, M.D. It is one of the best, most moderate and convincing books of its class—one that should find a place in Protestant schools and families as well as Catholic.

Dr. Holmes had a saying that a gentleman should be a gentleman especially in his hymns and prayers. Mr. Charles F. Dole's attitude in 'The Religion of a Gentleman' (Crowell & Co.) is not of the superior and critical kind; his contention is not merely that "a gentleman" should have something in the way of a religion, and not at all that "any old religion will do." His terms are taken in the modern and democratic sense: by "gentleman" he means any young man who aims to know and do the right, and the religion he recommends is a life and not a convention. His ruling ideas are those of his own time and not of former ages, and he urges them in a manly and kindly way, which leaves small room for objection. His little book will not add to the learning of the wise, but it can benefit those who are beyond catechism and Sunday-school, and ready for secondary instruction in spiritual things. Even the Harvard students whom it has particularly in view—though few of them are likely to read it—will be fortunate if they never have to sit under worse preaching than this.

The Boer war has almost become a tale of the dim past, and Mr. Winston Spencer Churchill's story of the movements, from April 30 to June 14, of the column sent to the relief of Johannesburg, from Bloemfontein, under Lieut.-Gen. Ian Hamilton ('Ian Hamilton's March,' Longmans, Green & Co.), while spirited and entertaining, will impress the student of larger history as chiefly a record for newspaper readers concerned in the valor and safety of their countrymen. Hamilton's column consisted of some twelve thousand men; and although there is the expected narrative of wearisome marches, and the dropping under skirmish-fire of man after man, yet, despite an occasional Boer stand in a stronghold, there were no engagements which rose above the seriousness of an affair. The account of his detention as a prisoner of war by Lieut. H. Frankland, which forms one of the chapters of the book, indicates that, on the whole, the relation of prisoner and captor was an amiable one, with few violations of the amenities of life; the tedium of confinement in idleness being the chief vexation.

Are freethinkers privileged, by their principles, to indulge in unmeasured virulence and calumniation? One "F. M.," reviewing Ouida's 'Critical Studies' in the issue of the London *Literary Guide and Rationalist Review* for the current month, has [illegible] fit to supplement a rabid tirade against the people of the United States in this [illegible] of Africa in the year 1898 was upwards of $80,000,000, of which all except $2,000,000 came from the Rand. At the time when the war put a stop to mining operations there was every prospect that the output of the following year would reach or exceed $100,000,000, and that there would be a progressive increase for a number of years to come. This promise now seems to be sure of fulfilment. It is certain, too, that the cost of mining will be reduced by the abolishment of the dynamite monopoly and by better means of transportation for the bringing in of coal and other supplies. Every new facility, every cheapening of the cost of mining, makes some ores available which could not be worked before. Simultaneously with this expected increase we find also an actual increase of the supplies from the Klondike, Alaska, and British Columbia, and a steady growth in the Cripple Creek district of Colorado. We must look, too, for a material increase soon in the production of Siberia, due to the improved means of transportation furnished by the railway now building there.

That this great increase of purchasing power must have a perceptible effect upon the trade and industry of the world, cannot be doubted. It is a part of the world's history that a similar outpour of the precious metal after the discovery of America was accompanied by a great extension of commerce and great industrial activity. This was due. for the most part, however, to the inexhaustible market which the New World opened to the products of the Old. An event more nearly analogous to the present is found in the Californian and Australian output of gold in the fifties. This, too, was accompanied by a great development of commerce throughout the world, but there is some difference of opinion among economists on the question whether the new impetus to trade and industry was caused by the new gold or was merely coincident with it.

It was the opinion of Cairnes, Jevons, Levasseur, and Soetbeer that the great output of gold in the fifties and sixties had caused an average increase of the prices of commodities equal to about 20 per cent. In some cases the increase was greater than the average, in others less; and in still others it counteracted a decline of prices which would ordinarily have taken place by reason of new inventions and improved processes of production. The four authorities named, working independently of each other, reached this opinion about thirty years ago. Their coincidence makes a strong prima-facie case for its acceptance by others, but is not conclusive; for although there was in 1865 an average rise of prices of 20 per cent., taking those of 1849 as a datum line, yet, if we take the prices of 1820 as the datum line, there was no rise at all, but a decline of 30 per cent. If we go still further back, to 1809, the decline in 1865 was 60 per cent. The abundance or scarcity of metallic money is one of the causes of high or low prices, but not the only one.

As gold is purchasing power, new supplies of it are additional purchasing power. The gold miners are enabled to buy more goods and to improve their style of living. There is a demand for more labor to supply the goods, and this causes an advance in wages reckoned in terms of money, and tends to cause an advance in the prices of commodities. It cannot be said that the community is richer by using two dollars instead of one to transact a given amount of business, but a certain stimulus is imparted to industry by new supplies of gold, and a new distribution of property takes place, which Professor Cairnes considers to the advantage of wage-earners and to the detriment of rentiers and others having fixed incomes. The former have steadier employment and better pay, while the latter have to pay higher prices for the things they buy without any increase of income.

If it be true that new purchasing power brought into the markets of the world has the effect to raise the wages of the laboring class more and faster than the rise in the price of commodities, as Cairnes thought, thus altering the distribution of the wealth of the community in favor of the producing class, it constitutes a real benefit to society as a whole. In this branch of the discussion which raged nearly half a century ago over the Californian and Australian discoveries, Cairnes took issue with Chevalier and certainly had the better of the argument.

It seems quite safe to predict that the output of gold now imminent since the Rand mines have been liberated from the stress of war, will cause some advance of general prices, and this always stimulates speculation, So we are likely to have a period of industrial activity from this cause alone, to be followed by reaction and perhaps a general crash some time later.

THE BALKASH BASIN.

VERNOE, TURKESTAN, Sept. 24, 1900.

Lake Balkash seems to serve no important purpose in the world. It ought to be abolished. Now that it is in possession of the strongly centralized and intelligent Government of Russia, it doubtless will be obliterated from our maps in due process of time. At present it is but the cesspool of a productive province which might be made much more productive if the entire water supply were used for irrigation. The waters of the lake are barren, and its shores offer no inducements to population.

The recently acquired Russian province of Semerychenskia, lying in this basin, occupies almost the very centre of the Asiatic continent. Its southeastern boundary is the lofty mountain chain which forms the border of the great plateau of central Asia. One of its peaks, Mount Kauffmann, is 22,500 feet high, while many others are from 10,000 to 15,000 feet. The chain, which runs southwest to northeast, is called, in its various parts, the Thian-Shan, the Ala-tau, and the Tarbaga-tau Mountains. But the Ala-tau branches off to the west and covers the southwestern part of the province with a network of alpine peaks, as extensive as those of Switzerland, which furnish some of the grandest mountain scenery in the world. In the midst of these peaks is Lake Issik-kul, larger than Lake Geneva, and 5,000 feet above the sea, and surrounded with prosperous settlements. The region is one of the most arid in the world, and, were it not for the mountains on its southern border, would be a perfect desert. But, as it is, the glaciers and snowy masses preserved on these mountains send down a constant supply of water sufficient to irrigate a narrow border of the plain leading to Lake Balkash, and make it for hundreds of miles like a fruitful garden. This plain is only about 1,000 feet above the sea, and is in the latitude of southern Michigan. Much of it is covered with loess, closely resembling that in China and eastern Nebraska, and only needs water to make it most productive. But at the best, if it were all utilized, the streams from the mountains would be insufficient for the whole; while, as it is, only a fraction is used.

Four rivers of considerable size are permitted to pass through the plateau to the eastern end of Lake Balkash; all waste their waters in its lifeless area; while the Ili, a stream of large dimensions, and several hundred miles long, forming one of the gateways to Central Asia, pours its flood into the western end. Of those entering the eastern end, we have now followed one, the Ayagusk, down from near its source in the Tarbaga-tau Mountains to the head of the lake, and have crossed the other three a short distance from where they emerge from the Dzungarian Ala-tau range. For three days we were constantly in sight of the peaks of this latter range, from 12,000 to 15,000 feet high, and could clearly discern the numerous small glaciers on their flanks, which were supplying these streams with a constant flow of water. The milky color of the streams themselves betrayed their glacial origin, though its faintness showed that the glaciers were not of the first order.

The nomad Kirghiz Tartars have no means of utilizing the water of the main rivers. They can manage the various small streams which flow for a portion of the year out of the minor valleys. By so doing, they irrigate a narrow strip near the foot-hills fairly well; but the main streams soon cut gorges in the plain which render them useless for irrigating purposes. They usually have, indeed, a narrow flood-plain at the bottom of their trenches, and these are favorite places for the villages and for the stations of the Russian post route. It has been a constant series of grateful surprises, while riding over the long stretches of the arid plain, to come upon these secluded villages in the troughs of the streams. Here busy scenes of life suddenly burst upon the traveller and reveal the real attractions of the country to a nomad population. During the ny omissions of the editor of the 'Madison'—omissions of no little , and troublesome to the reader t indicated. For one example, in on was so pressed for money that to his father, "Unless liberal prin- evail on this occasion, I shall be e necessity of selling—a negro." Mr. as not hesitated to apply to others in his notes, and Mr. Phillips identi- him a map described by Madison. He have included the 'Observations on the nce of Vermont' and a letter to Jeffer- of May 5, 1781. It is to be regretted he had not access to the McGuire col- ion, where the original drafts of the let- s included in the 'Madison Papers' were be found. The letters to Randolph on . 132 and 133 were both written in 1782, not 1781; and the name of the general scratch- d by Madison (p. 379) was in all probability Gates, as a paper by Rufus King shows. It is true, Hamilton suggests Knox, and Jeffer- son hints at Steuben; but their relations with Washington would have prevented such a plot.

—There is nowhere else in the world to-day so large a number of English-speaking men among whom the dwellers in large cities are proportionately so few, as there are in the eleven States which formerly constituted the Southern Confederacy. Of their nineteen million inhabitants, less than one million three hundred thousand, or about one in every sixteen, live in cities of over twenty-five thousand inhabitants. In the other thirty-four States of the Union there are more than eighteen million urban residents, and these constitute nearly one-third of the entire population. As we have already pointed out, during the last decade the Southern cities grew but very little more rapidly than the rural districts of the same States, and the percentage of the total population residing in cities of over twenty-five thousand inhabitants, which was 6.52 in 1890, is but 6.77 in 1900. In the rest of the country the proportion of urban residents rose during the decade from 29.30 to 32.58 per cent. It is possible that when the figures for the smaller cities are made public, it may appear that the recent growth of manufactures in the South has led to the building up of a number of towns with between four thousand and twenty-five thousand inhabitants. The statistics for Alabama and Arkansas, which are now available, do not indicate, however, any marked movement in that direction. The fact that so small a proportion of the residents of the South live in cities perhaps accounts for its relatively large rate of natural increase. The eleven States of the former Confederacy probably gained little, either by immigration from abroad or from the other sections of this country, yet in the last ten years their total population has increased at a slightly greater ratio than that of the other thirty-four States, although those other States have received probably nineteen-twentieths of the nearly four millions of immigrants who during the decade have come into the country.

—Since 1890 the Southern States have grown at the rate of 20.82, the other States
ate of 19.91 per cent. The rate of
eleven Southern States
was in the

over 6 per cent., or from 26.02 to 19.91 per cent. About 3 per cent. of this falling-off is due to the decrease in immigration during the decade. The rest seems to be attributable to a steady lowering of the birth-rate, and probably to some increase in the death-rate. If there has been any increase in the latter, it is, of course, due to the fact that a larger proportion of the population now live in cities, in which the mortality is heavier than it is in the country regions, and not to any increase in the death-rate of particular cities. For years past the political conditions in the eleven States under discussion have been abnormal. They have representation in the House of Representatives and in the electoral college in proportion to their aggregate population, and yet one-third or more of that population is in law or in fact, or in both, absolutely disfranchised. Outside of East Tennessee, some portions of western North Carolina and western Virginia, practically all the population which has the franchise belongs to one political party, with which all these States habitually vote in national as well as in local elections. The fact that in these States population is growing as fast as it is in the rest of the country, and even a little faster, shows that the problems arising from their political conditions are not likely soon to lose their practical importance.

—The census of 1900 gives New Hampshire 411,588 inhabitants. The population has a little more than doubled in a century. At the first national census in 1790 it was 141,097; in 1800, 182,998. The present figures do not altogether bear out the expectations entertained a hundred years ago, based upon the extraordinary growth which had marked the previous decades in spite of the active part taken by the people in the Revolutionary struggle. We read in Guthrie's 'New System of Modern Geography' (first American edition, Philadelphia, 1795, vol. ii., pp. 346-7), apropos of Dartmouth College: "This seminary possesses an immense landed property, extending to eighty thousand acres. . . . The revenues arising from these lands are at present but an hundred and forty pounds currency. In less than sixty years, it is probable that New Hampshire and Vermont will be as populous as England, or very near it [this refers to the population per square mile, let us hope]. The value of these lands will then rise in proportion. At five shillings sterling per acre, which will, by that time, have become a very moderate rent, these lands will then produce twenty thousand pounds sterling per annum. Such a prodigious revenue, if divided between twenty or thirty professors [there were three professors and two tutors in 1792], may injure if not ruin the college of Dartmouth, as far as regards every purpose of public utility. . . . It is the duty, therefore, of the Legislature of New-Hampshire, to guard against the absurdity of bestowing upon a professor, so immense a regular salary, as to place him beyond the necessity of attending, in the strictest manner, to the duties of his office."

—Primarily Mr. Richard Harding Davis's 'With Both Armies in South Africa' (Scribners) is a record of personal experience. Incidentally, it is a forcefully presented argument concerning the war in South Africa, well calculated to stagger even the estab-
opinions of those whom Mr. Davis de-
on "misinformed and blind-

ed by a propaganda against the Boer, nipulation of press and Parliament which has never been equalled in dexterity of misrepresentation nor audacity of untruth." Mr. Davis admits that his prejudgment was decidedly pro-English, though his sympathies were with the "under dog." His present position results from personal contact with, and personal investigation of, both sides. His verdict is, that the Transvaal war was "Murder, with intent to rob." This, like the preceding quotation, and some other statements in the book, might be pronounced hysterical. A thoughtful perusal of the work, whether or no its conclusions be accepted, disabuses the reader's mind of any idea of hysteria. Mr. Davis gives us a panorama of life with the English column in Natal, the relief of Ladysmith, and again of life with the burghers in the Free State, and with the officials in Pretoria. All is picturesque, not a little is dramatic. He thus pictures the entrance of Buller's relieving column into Ladysmith: "You must imagine the dry, burning heat, the fine, yellow dust, the white glare of the sunshine, and in the heat and glare and dust the great interminable column of men in ragged khaki crowding down the main street, 22,000 strong, cheering and shouting, with the sweat running off their red faces and cutting little rivulets in the dust that caked their cheeks." Equally vivid and dramatic, though of another character, is the picture of a group of burghers who, after their defeat at Sand River, "stood immovable, leaning on their rifles, silent, homeless, looking down without rage or show of feeling at the great waves of khaki sweeping steadily towards them, and possessing their land."

—Though not strictly a contribution to bird-literature, Mr. Maurice Thompson's 'My Winter Garden' (The Century Co.) should be read by all bird-lovers. The writer of these essays combines in a singular manner a genuine delight in the study of bird-life and an overweening passion for shooting the objects of his admiration. The fact that he carries no deadly gun, but a long bow made of seasoned yew, with which he more often misses than not, may serve to palliate his offences; still, we fancy that members of the Audubon Society who are attracted to these pages by the really fascinating descriptions of Southern birds, will hardly find themselves in sympathy with the lively author. Mr. Thompson writes in the "jocund and intimate style" of Montaigne, to whom one of these essays is devoted. He will do well to stick to studies of birds and flowers and Southern swamps, and spare us such literary criticism as the essay on Theocritus. Life in Louisiana, as Mr. Thompson paints it, is purely idyllic, and we imagine that the Gulf Coast in winter has rarely been more happily described. No aspect of those woods and marshes, teeming with life, has escaped his eye. The Greek Anthology and Horace share his wanderings and appear with his lunch, but th literary criticism lacks sincerity. The touches, the quotations from Meleager, t reflections on Keats and Tennyson, are th for effect. But in his impassioned ta the adventures of a purple Louisiana with a hawk, or when he studies the tactics of the butcher-bird or the ma bird's "dropping-song," his powers of vation and of expression are at the and, in his own field, Mr. Thompso is very good indeed.

tions to the Princess Elizabeth; he reproached her chiefly with the low extraction of her mother—a grave accusation in those times. Catharine's offer was not accepted, and the pretence given was the difference of religion.

"The refusal of France," says M. Gauthier-Villars, "had very grave consequences. It determined the policy of Russia during the eighteenth century, and its effects have been felt to our day. Anxious to take a place in the political world, and to figure in the European concert, the empire of the Tsar solicited the patronage of the French Government, but the French Government did not understand it. Russia was thus thrown on the side of Austria; an alliance was formed in 1726 between the two countries, and the Slav empire opened itself to the German immigration. M. le Duc did not even feel the great harm he was doing his country."

The name of Marie Leszczynska had been pronounced during the negotiation, and it was on her that M. le Duc finally fixed his eye. Her father, Stanislas Leszczynski, Palatine of Posnania, had been placed on the throne of Poland by Charles XII.; after the battle of Poltava, he lost his ephemeral crown and began the life of an exiled and dethroned sovereign. He appealed to the French Regent and to Leopold, Duke of Lorraine, and obtained a subsidy, with permission to live in Wissembourg. "In this illusory court of Wissembourg, between a father who smoked a pipe all day and an ever-complaining mother, grew up Marie Leszczynska, a mild, timid girl, spending her time in working at church ornaments." In 1722, the Marquis de Courtenvaux (who became in 1756 Marshal d'Estrées) asked for her hand, but he was a mere Colonel, and the ex-King would not give his consent. Madame de Prie, who governed M. le Duc entirely, turned her attention to Marie Leszczynska. She preferred a timid girl to a proud princess, and planned to marry her to M. le Duc. M. Gauthier-Villars gives us the letters exchanged on this subject between the poor and weak Stanislas and a certain Chevalier de Vauchoux, who had served in Poland at the time when Stanislas was King, and had remained his friend. A portrait, painted by Gobert, who stopped at Wissembourg on his way to Saverne, where he had to execute some work for Cardinal de Rohan, sealed the fate of Marie. It produced the most favorable impression on M. le Duc and his mistress, arriving at the moment when they were trying to find a wife for Louis XV. They saw in her a harmless person, who would be no obstacle to their ambitions. "The real triumph was for Madame de Prie; at one stroke she adjourned indefinitely the marriage of her lover, and she gave herself a Queen whom she could maintain in subjection." Louis XV. saw the portrait and gave his consent.

When the courier, bearing the letters of the French court, reached Wissembourg, Stanislas, after having read the letter, entered the room where his daughter was waiting. "My child," said he, "let us kneel and thank God." When she asked her father if he had been recalled to the throne of Poland, "Heaven," said he, "has been much more favorable to us; you are Queen of France." The King declared the marriage on a Sunday morning at his *petit-lever*. The astonishment was great, and the memoirs of the time show how great was the disappointment of the Court. Maurepas qualified the union as monstrous; the word *mésalliance* was pronounced by the Duchess of Lorraine. "If the new Queen was to exhibit on the throne an example of all the virtues, she had not the qualities necessary to captivate long her husband," says M. Vandal, in his 'Louis XV. and Élisabeth de Russie.' Catharine of Russia never forgave France for having preferred to the blood of Peter the Great that of a dispossessed King of Poland.

The choice of the persons who were to form the young Queen's household was a great affair. Madame de Prie wished to be *dame d'honneur* (an office which conferred many privileges and a large patronage). M. le Duc did not, however, accede to her wish; her nomination would have been too great a scandal. Madame de Boufflers was designated, "for her rare virtues," though she was in reality notoriously ill-behaved. The Countess de Mailly obtained the lucrative post of *dame d'atours*. In all, the household of the Queen was composed of as many as one hundred and twenty-eight persons. The choice of her confessor was reserved. Stanislas desired that his daughter should keep the confessor she had at Wissembourg. The marriage by proxy took place at Strasbourg, as Wissembourg was not considered a sufficiently important place. The formalities which preceded the ceremony were endless. The ambassadors extraordinary sent to Strasbourg for the occasion, the Duke d'Antin and M. de Beauvau, arrived in great style, and offered Stanislas, on behalf of the King, the order of the Holy Spirit, and at the same time presented magnificent jewels to the future Queen. The ceremony took place in the cathedral. The Princess Marie, giving her hand to her father and mother, was received at the door by the Cardinal. She was accompanied by the Duke d'Orléans and by the two ambassadors extraordinary. The Princess, after leaving Strasbourg, stopped at Saverne, at the Cardinal de Rohan's palace; she made her journey by way of Sarrebourg, Mézières, Vic, and Metz (where she had a great reception); Verdun, Châlons-sur-Marne, Provins, Moret. It was in this last place that she saw Louis XV. The King was hunting in the neighborhood and waited for her there. As soon as her carriage was seen, a carpet was spread on the ground. "The Queen," says Barbier, "left her carriage and would have knelt, but the King did not allow her to do so; he kissed her on both cheeks with a vivacity which he had never shown. His effusiveness surprised the witnesses, as he had hitherto always shown much shyness in the presence of ladies."

Correspondence.

THE RESTORER OF THE DUCAL PALACE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The letter of Mr. George Dwight Kellogg in the *Nation* No. 1842 opens with an extraordinary, if unwitting, mistake involving great injustice to a much injured man of genius. The attribution to Comm. Boni of the restoration of the Ducal Palace at Venice has no justification whatever. He was in that work a pupil and underworker of one of those peculiarly Italian builders of whom Maitani, Arnolfo di Lapo, and the heads of the Comacine builders were earlier examples—neither architects in the modern sense nor master masons, but builders in the best sense, and known as *capimastri*. Vendrasco is, or perhaps was, so far as I know, the sole survivor in our days of his craft, and to him is due every detail of the long and marvellous work of the restoration of the Ducal Palace—a work I watched from 1876 down to the day when Vendrasco was dismissed, to the disgrace of the Italian Government, from the position of head of the works on the Palace, to make room for a partisan of a new ministry, *modo Americano*, in the person of the restorer of the Fondaco dei Turchi, a piece of restoration which is the disgrace of Venice and its Municipal Council.

Comm. Boni was a very intelligent and studious assistant and pupil of Vendrasco, but was not responsible for a single detail of the work, which was a matter of pure engineering. I made his acquaintance in that position, and became interested in his profound and curious researches into the old work of Venice, its geology, and building materials, and I called the attention of the Ministry of Public Instruction to his remarkable abilities in research as deserving a wider field. He was, mainly in consequence of my so doing, called to a place in the Ministry at Rome. My relations with him have always been, and remain, most cordial, and his late successes in a more responsible position than that in which I first knew him have been to me a personal gratification; but he does not want the laurels of Vendrasco.

There was another fable which went the rounds of journalism, viz., that he restored the Ducal Palace under the advice of Ruskin. But Ruskin opposed tooth and nail any and all restoration of the Ducal Palace, and denounced it to the last; and when Sir Henry Layard took him to see the completed west and south façades, and Ruskin had to admit that he could not distinguish the restored from the untouched capitals, he still said, "But it should not have been done." As the most marvellous piece of restoration ever executed, the honor it may give must not be withheld from the old *capomastro* who was the deviser of every device and appliance employed in it.

Yours truly, W. J. STILLMAN.

DEEPDENE, FRIMLEY GREEN, SURREY, ENG.,
November 7, 1900.

Notes.

Henry Holt & Co. have in press 'German and Swiss Settlements in Provincial Pennsylvania,' by Prof. Oscar Kuhn.

'Colonial Government,' by Prof. Paul S. Reinsch, is about to appear in Macmillan's "Citizen's Library of Economics, Politics, and Sociology," edited by Prof. Richard T. Ely. The same firm has taken over from Harper & Bros. the publication of James Ford Rhodes's 'History of the United States from the Compromise of 1850,' and will publish before Christmas a new edition of the four volumes, coming down to 1862, that have already appeared.

Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. announce for next month a new volume of poems by Sir Lewis Morris.

In January, E. P. Dutton & Co. will publish 'The Painters of Florence—Thirteenth to Sixteenth Centuries,' by Julia Cartwright, with illustrations.

Herbert S. Stone & Co. are bringing out 'Three Plays for Puritans,' by G. Bernard Shaw; and 'Wooings and Weddings

—have believed in a hereafter, and that fact ought to count. There are two solid pages of this letter (215, 216 of vol. ii.), and all of it notable. But he did not like to dwell on these themes. An earlier challenge of the kind he would not answer: "Men who go in for 'new religions' must not apply to me," was his comment. His native radical temper found rest in an easy, tolerant conservatism. He had thought these matters over, and "heard great argument about it and about." "Then, drop it" (i. e., metaphysics), is his conclusion. "Religion is distinct, and must never be mixed with it, or even touched by it. You might as well call in algebra."

In truth, he was not fond of the serious vein—in these letters. He preferred dash and sparkle, and talk about Flaubert or Scott, or his friend Hall Caine, or any of a thousand literary topics, or the hills of Man and its peasants, or his last trip in the larger islands, or the affairs of his friends. He was not a "strenuous" person, not of the conquering, pushing type which has the votes just now. In 1894 he could claim it as "somewhat of a distinction at my time of life to have teeth, and teeth that can ache." And a year later he could say, "I grow old naturally, comfortably, easily, and with assent and consent," regardless of the facts that his income was modest and his fame based merely upon five (or rather four) small volumes of verse, mostly in dialect, whereof perhaps the best known was the unsigned 'Fo'c'sle Yarns,' 1881. (These books received "a notice at once discriminating and informing" in the *Quarterly Review* for April, 1898, and are now reprinted in one volume by Macmillan.) So unaspiring and ineffective a spirit can hardly be called highly selected; and yet he is not such as should be let wholly die, if only for these letters.

Their friendly and laborious editor (Mr. Sidney T. Irwin, to whom a large proportion of them were addressed) has probably omitted much, and for public use might have suppressed much more. A great deal that is in them is useless, unless to a Manxman or an acquaintance; and they are in general so desultory that one misses the index which is announced for the second edition. Yet modern epistles can scarcely be set treatises in order on solid subjects. In their unconventional frankness, humor, and bonhomie these have a touch of Stevenson—who, to be sure, told more of himself and had more to tell. The two volumes might have been one; but he who makes his way through them, "skipping the hard parts," will find much that is far from commonplace, and the signs throughout of a man worth adding to one's circle.

BAIRD'S BEZA.

Theodore Beza; The Counsellor of the French Reformation. By Henry Martyn Baird. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

This biography of Theodore Beza should attract notice among historians by reason of both author and subject. Not only is Professor Baird widely known through his learned and extensive works on the French Reformation, but until now a suitable Life of Beza, in English, has been wanting. To one who has published six volumes on the Huguenots, such a book might have presented itself in the light of a by-product to be lightly composed out of materials accumulat- [illegible] purpose. Fortunately, however, Professor Baird does not deal with the career of Beza as a mere pendant to the history of the Huguenots. He makes it an independent subject, and writes with all the care which an unknown student might bestow upon his first publication.

The idea that Beza is dwarfed by the eminence of Calvin must be held largely responsible for the neglect which he has received from recent English historians of the Reformation. Yet he is no more an understudy to Calvin than Melanchthon is to Luther, and in range of singular experiences he goes far beyond any other Protestant minister of the sixteenth century. References to him abound in general treatises, but at most they convey partial information and leave the story of his life unhackneyed. At this time of day, the erudite historian usually gains his rank by superior grasp of well-worn topics or periods. It is seldom that a specialist like Professor Baird finds to his hand a theme so important and so unappropriated.

The striking characteristic of Beza's life is the multiplicity of its interests, the variety of its occupations, the international scope of its activities. A comparison between the Calvinist preacher and that desperado of Italian humanism, Filelfo, may seem far-fetched, but there is at least one marked point of resemblance between the two. The extraordinary, and in a sense romantic, fortunes of Filelfo show what a boundless field for adventure lay open to a master of Greek literature during the age of the Renaissance in Italy. The serious and reputable labors of Beza cannot hide the fact that the age of the Reformation afforded a like opportunity for securing widespread fame by unusual exploits. Filelfo was an unswerving egotist, Beza the apostle of a new church; but while the one was more than a pedant, the other was more than a theologian. Each by his hold on active life disclosed the nature of the chances which Renaissance and Reformation alike opened up to men of talent.

A comparison of Beza with other religious leaders of the sixteenth century goes far towards explaining his peculiar place in the Reformation and the quality of his more noted achievements. In the matter of social standing he had the advantage of Luther, Melanchthon, Zwingli, and Calvin. He was probably a more accurate scholar than any of them, with the exception of Melanchthon. At Paris, in his youth, he had a share of gay and Bohemian pleasures which the other reformers of his rank never knew. He tried his hand at poetry of the most secular order. He became a gentleman of breeding and fine manners. Accordingly, it is not surprising that, after he turned preacher, he should have been less hateful to the Romanist aristocracy of France than other heretical chieftains were. It would be a mistake to suppose that Beza was a great court favorite who made Calvinism popular by espousing it, but the life he led prior to his conversion, at the age of twenty-nine, gave him address in the dispatch of worldly business. Whereas most of the reformers had been priests (or else, like Calvin and Socinus, were theologians by instinct), Beza, during his early years, knew much more about action than about contemplation. When he deserted the Roman faith and left France, he did not lose the fruits of his education, and in the era of the Counter-Reformation he became the trained ambassador of Calvinism. Indeed, in him the Protestants had their one envoy of prominence at a time when the Jesuits were carrying the fine art of diplomacy past the point which it had reached among Italian politicians.

Prof. Baird gives a brief but sufficient account of Beza's ancestry, of his intellectual and moral indebtedness to Melchior Wolmar, and of his *Juvenilia*. The levity of these poems distressed Beza the preacher, just as Pius II. was grieved by the remembrance of what Aeneas Sylvius had written; but Professor Baird seems a little over-anxious to redeem them from the reproach of indelicacy. Beza had a strong and enthusiastic disposition. When a lad, scholarship became his passion, although Wolmar developed in him the religious sense which afterwards took him over to Calvinism. The *Juvenilia* are exactly the verses which, in Beza's words, a devotee of Ovid and Catullus might compose. Only we must remember the epigram which Muretus placed on the fly-leaf of the first Aldine edition of Catullus—his own copy of a work which he had edited:

> "Quisquis versibus exprimit Catullum,
> Raro moribus exprimit Catonem."

Beza outlived and lived down the vagaries of his classical phase, but for that very reason they may as well be fully recognized.

It is doubtful whether in pure literature or pure scholarship Beza would ever have accomplished anything of remarkable merit without the spur of a religious impulse. Certainly his importance dates from the moment when he joined the Calvinist body. What he took over to the Reformed Church was learning, a considerable knowledge of the world, and a vigorous personality. With 1548, the year of his conversion, the chronological relations of his life assume fresh meaning. Luther and Zwingli were dead, the Jesuit order had been founded and approved, the opening sessions of the Council of Trent had been held, the Protestants of the Schmalkalden League had just been overwhelmed by the Emperor, the English Reformation was entering a new portion of its course with the reign of Edward VI., and Calvin, firmly seated at Geneva, was giving that ancient town of the Allobroges a celebrity which it had never before possessed. Yet, while the Reformation was so far advanced elsewhere, in France it had not reached the critical stage. The nobles still remained untouched by it; the rivals of François de Guise and the Cardinal de Lorraine had not determined to transfer their enmity from the political to the religious sphere.

Closely connected with the date of Beza's conversion is the exceptional length of his life. He survived Calvin by forty-one years, witnessed the progress and end of the religious wars in France, lamented the apostasy of Henry IV., and rejoiced at the Edict of Nantes. Calvin died at a dangerous moment for the Reformed Church and for Protestantism—just when the Council of Trent had dispersed, after giving the blade of Catholicism a keen and biting edge. Until the outbreak of the Thirty Years' War the issue stood as one between the Jesuits and Geneva. At the head of the Genevan Church, Beza rallied the forces of his faith in the dark days of Jarnac and Moncontour, during Alva's term of carnage in the Low Countries, and after St. Bartholomew. Professor Baird, who insists strongly on the unbroken continuity of Calvin's work in Beza's hand, says:

"Calvin had well selected his

"It will be observed that Ouida, in referring to the Yankee brood who infest a portion of the northern continent of America, has fallen into the curious and common error of speaking of them as Americans. This, in such a connection, is a pity, since Americans (always excepting the Yankees) are, as a race, by no means deserving the contempt which all cultivated minds entertain for the preëminently vulgar wealth-worshipping denizens of the United States." Who could withhold compassion from one for the relief of whose suffering the expulsion of such acrid matter was necessary?

In a brief description of the Samoan Islands, in the *National Geographic Magazine* (Washington) for November, are some interesting facts in regard to the class divisions of the natives. Next to the chiefs, "who are hereditary in the sense that they must belong to certain families, but elective in that they exercise authority by virtue of titles conferred upon them," is the Tulafe, or talking-man. He is the executive officer who phrases his chief's thought in eloquent language, and is frequently the central figure in the district and the source of authority. The office is hereditary in certain families, but "as a rule no one is elected who has not a gift for oratory, which is a common talent in Snmoa." The Rev. Father Algué, S.J., contributes an account of the Manila Observatory, of which he is the director. Established by the Jesuits in 1865, its principal object was the study of typhoons, for which its geographical position peculiarly fits it. As it takes several days for the centre of a typhoon to cross the China Sea, the Observatory's storm warnings are of the utmost advantage to the whole Asiatic coast line from Singapore to Yokohama. Among its instruments are a large equatorial telescope in a revolving dome, a Töpfer spectroscope, a small photographic equatorial, and a reflecting zenith photographic telescope for the study of the variation of latitude, invented by the present director. Among other articles is a reminiscence, by Gen. Greely, of the cyclone which destroyed Indianola, Texas, in 1875.

In a report on labor conditions in France in the Consular Reports for November there is a reference to an employers' syndicate in Lyons. Its object is "to further the interests of builders, to study and propose improvement in buildings, to secure the employment of the best material, to decide all disputes relating to the execution or the interpretation of contracts, the fixing of prices, etc." Since its organization in 1862, twenty-three strikes have occurred, all of which have been settled by committees of the strikers and of the syndicate. It is also asked to investigate and report upon disputes arising between contractors and men or companies for whom they are doing work. Nearly five thousand such cases have been sent to it by the courts, with the request that it render a decision upon a point in litigation, or investigate and agree upon the technical details of some question. The society has a reserve fund from which prizes are given yearly to students in architecture and other pursuits pertaining to building. There are 625 members.

The United States Department of Agriculture has published a report upon the field operations of the Division of Soils during 1899, describing soil surveys of various areas scattered throughout New Mexico, Utah, and Connecticut, and aggregating 720,000 acres. It comprises an introduction by Milton Whitney, the chief of the division, and special reports on the several lines of field work by scientific assistants (in coöperation, in some instances, with educational institutions in different parts of the country). These are followed by some valuable discussions on the application of the theory of solutions to the study of soils, some necessary modifications in method of mechanical analysis as applied to alkali soils, and salts as influencing the rate of evaporation from soils. The volume is illustrated by numerous photographs and diagrams portraying the character of the country and the specific characteristics of the soil, and by accompanying maps showing the distribution of the soils, alkali, and seepage waters. In his letter of transmittal, the Secretary of Agriculture advances the opinion that this is the most important work of its kind ever undertaken in any country.

A second instalment of papers relating to the 'Fossil Remains of Lake Callabonna' forms the latest number of the memoirs of the Royal Society of South Australia. In the first of these, E. C. Stirling and A. H. C. Zietz describe *Genyornis Newtoni*, a new genus and species of fossil struthious bird. This creature is believed to have been over six feet in height, and to have resembled in many respects the emeu and the cassowary. The second paper is by E. C. Stirling, and treats of the physical features of Lake Callabonna.

The American Philosophical Society of Philadelphia has collected in a memorial volume obituary notices, in some cases with portraits, of fifteen of its members. Some of the subjects are William Henry Furness, Henry Phillips, jr., Thomas Sterry Hunt, and Richard Albert Tilghman. There are also included accounts of the meetings of the Society held in commemoration of William Pepper, Daniel Garrison Brinton, and Edward Drinker Cope.

—In December, 1897, a committee was appointed by the American Philosophical Society to examine the manuscripts in the possession of the Society, with the view to making them more available to the public. The first results of the labors of this committee are calendars of the correspondence of Gen. Nathanael Greene, Gen. Weedon, and of the Lee papers—manuscripts of Arthur and Richard Henry Lee. The last-named papers were printed by the grandson of Richard Henry Lee, and are well known for their interest. The correspondence of Gen. Greene is all new; and, covering the period of his service as Quartermaster-General of the Continental army during the darkest days of the Revolution, they emphasize the trials and shifts encountered in providing the barest necessaries. As a study of the effects of an inflated paper currency, these records are of general value. There was a plenty of money, and bills could be had for the asking; but when it came to obtaining commodities for them few were willing to receive them after 1779, and in 1780, when Congress declared itself bankrupt and unable even to reiterate its most solemn pledges of redemption of old and provision of new issues, they disappeared from circulation. True, an attempt was made to wipe out thirty-nine out of every forty dollars of obligation; but what remained was merely another form of unsupported paper. The suffering must have been intense. With wheat at twenty-five dollars a bushel, and all things else in proportion, what was a salary of one hundred and forty dollars a month? The assistant quartermasters were charged with depreciating the money, because they offered such high wages to meet an emergency. Then it was said that the Department pocketed huge sums, because the extravagant prices quoted could not possibly be real. In 1778 and 1779 every letter coming to Greene from his many agents was burdened with a demand for "a large supply of cash." The sending of parcels of a hundred thousand dollars did not meet the case, for the "money" had fallen in value before it could reach its destination and could not meet the original amount of the debt. In October, 1779, Col. Hay found that a whole year's salary was required to pay for a suit of clothes. Poor pay produced poor service. A distemper prevailed among the horses near Fishkill, and the farrier, "after a tolerably decent flogging," ran away. To pay one corps of claimants produced discontent in others, and precipitated heavy demands for settlement, which could not be met. Artificers, smiths, and wheelwrights struck from time to time for higher pay, and transportation ceased at times for want of a little ready money. It is a striking picture, and deserves careful study, both for the exposition of economic fallacy and the full display of the horrors of war. The calendars show accuracy and method, and the Society has done well to encourage their publication.

—The first volume of the writings of James Madison has been published in the Putnam series under the editorship of Gaillard Hunt. Madison's correspondence has a value peculiar to itself, for it forms one of the most minute and detailed records of events and policies which have come down to us. Throughout his life he was making notes for the information of others. With his first entrance into the Continental Congress in 1780, he became the constant correspondent of Jefferson, Randolph, and Pendleton. Later in life he formed close friendships with Washington and Hamilton. He took notes of the debates in the Congress, digested them for these friends, and told a consecutive story of what was done and said. His debates of the Constitutional Convention are the best sources of information on that notable assembly; and wherever he was, the habit of recording passing events dominated him. He lived a life of comparative calm, and the activity around him interested and amused him, and even enabled him to play a part. But it is as a closet politician he will best be known, as a man who could draw distinctions so fine as to be misinterpreted by his friends as well as by his opponents.

—To edit his writings a wide knowledge and high accuracy are demanded of the editor. Mr. Hunt seems to possess both of these qualities, and his first volume gives promise of a task well performed. He has wisely included the entire debates in the Continental Congress of 1782-'83, which were accessible only in Gilpin, and has used the correspondence of that period as footnotes where the letters were needed to explain the text. He has found some new letters to Pendleton, some reports made to the Continental Congress, and prints in full the important instructions to Jay. By referring to the manuscript, he has been able to make quenchable feeling for the absurd, his unsentimental pathos, his unexpectedness of device, his resilient manner.

The series of stories entitled 'The Girl and the Governor' are to politics what Van Bibber's stories are to slumming; which is to say that they are ingenious, entertaining, sentimental under the guise of scorn of sentiment, highly imaginative under the guise of a stenographic accuracy. The tricks of low politicians are shown under an electric glare; those of the exalted ones under rosy wax-candle light—and he who reads may choose. But why did Mrs. Holland, in her reformatory zeal to separate two lovers, so arrange her dinner-table as to have four guests on one side and two on the other?

'The Expatriates' is a study in black and white, where black stands for France and white for America. The cowards who disgraced themselves at the Bazar de la Charité; the poltroons who saved themselves alone on the *Bourgogne*, the anti-Dreyfusards, are taken as representative France, and the private villanies of all the men, women, and girls of Paris are in keeping with these public depravities. As the American heroine says to some abominable young Parisian girls, "You make my heart ache with the utter decadence of your point of view." Into this abandoned Paris come whooping a party of Chicagoans and Nevadans with Southern blood in their veins, pure of heart, and slangy of speech, who, to their undoing, penetrate the Faubourg St. Germain, but eventually return to America, paterfamilias declaring that the "honest rascality of American business methods that I've fought all my life is like the teaching of the Bible compared to the slipperiness of the French." His experiences in Paris, we are bound to add, quite justified the remark. The few and only American sinners reform or die in triumphant repentance. The heroine is one of those girls of whom the woods of fiction are full, who have the world, from diplomats to gamins, not only at their feet, but also in the hollow of their hand. We have always found it hard to reconcile the popularity of these girls, their indispensability, even, to Providence, with their feeling that nobody loves them—bushels of roses, but no real affection. However, as they persist in fiction, either they are real or they will become so. Rose Hollenden saves the lives of cats and horses, and the souls of men and women. She reads Spanish war bulletins aloud to listening crowds in the streets of Paris; she demands and obtains a salute to the American flag from diplomats, Spanish and otherwise, at an official function, making brave men shiver at her daring. She can ride and drive unmanageable horses even when her French groom deserts her in danger. She understands machinery and first aid to the wounded; she can cook hard-tack in thirty ways, and she can wheedle President McKinley into giving her a paper signed, "but fortunately not addressed to any one," which asks the military authorities to give the bearer in the President's name "anything she wishes." (*Fi, donc, M. le Président!* was that strictly professional?) Her patriotism as described by herself "goes from ancestry back to atavism, and from atavism to protoplasm, and has its cube root in infinity." Her lover has as saving a talent as herself. He saves a falsely accused horse-thief in Arizona and a score or so of lives at the Charity Bazaar. He is always at the elbow of the heroine in distress, or in a tutelary cab behind her. He avenges an insult offered her, by a duel in which, with the unerring aim of fiction, he shoots away the offending Frenchman's pet vanity—sundry fingers of his beautiful hands—and crowns the feat by telling without looking just the joints where the bullets went in and out. Hero and heroine united should make a strong partnership as a life-saving station with a sub-tendency to scratch, bite, and mutilate their adversaries. From this foot infer the Hercules. It remains, however, to say that among much pinchbeckery of patriotism there are some sensible suggestions as to Paris considered as a home for Americans, and some utterances of a sage, sound and true country-love, notably in the hero's declaration of faith, where he seems to realize that, as Lowell says, "our healing is . . . not in monarchies, or aristocracies or democracies, but will be revealed by the still small voice that speaks to the conscience and the heart, prompting us to a wider and wiser humanity."

In 'A Woman of Yesterday' may be found a protracted and sombre, but catholic and not uninteresting study of the New England conscience and its theological calendar. It rises in strictest Calvinism, brightens into broader orthodoxy, beams in a pure and altruistic Socialism, and sets in self-immolation and Indian missions. The heroine, the mortal frame in which this conscience is enshrined, is ably drawn; her humanness and her scruples sitting on her so consistently as to make her completely alive, spite of her story-book saintliness. The Evangelist is more factitious in his imposing magnetism, but several of the minor characters are admirably real, as, the little lady preacher "stepping out into the fulness" and on the jauntiest possible terms with Providence.

The two small volumes of Southern sketches, done by different hands, but twins in their pretty outward garb, form a thoroughly pleasing addition to our national picture-gallery. The woman's art is that of the skilled photographer, choosing artistically and reproducing faithfully, rather than originating combinations. The man's is more dramatic in grouping and composition. In these the reader finds stories on a Southern background; in those, the South itself is the thing, the story an accessory. Both are excellently made in their differing ways; and both, in their fidelity to life, language, and landscape, furnish agreeable easychair journeys.

'The Girl at the Halfway House' is a useful contribution to the history of our Western frontier, written from a somewhat unusual point of view. While the dismal and the dreadful receive full justice, there is, furthermore, recognition of the pioneer's glorying in the "perfervid time" of the "frank barbarity of the cattle days"—an "unorganized day of waste and riotousness," a day with a fascination for "every virile, daring nature." When Ellisville becomes respectable and sinks back into the interior, the hero feels a wild yearning to follow the frontier till the West shall "sink into the sea, and even then to follow until he come to some Fortunate Islands, where such glorious days should die no more." It is the tale, not only of striving and suffering and starving and killing, but of that enthusiastic feeling for primitive savagery that we know is at the back of every man's brain. A chapter on the "Christmas of the Great Cold" contains one of the most striking pictures in a book which affords many. Their effectiveness, to be sure, is not infrequently hindered by a style which suggests the sunny South rather than the cowboy's West. Mary Ellen "stood as natural and as beautiful, as fit and seemly, as the antelope upon the hill; as well poised and sure, her head as high and free, her hold upon life apparently as confident." And Ned Franklin "could not understand the sickening thought that he did not arrive, that his assertion did not convince, that his desire did not impinge."

The Individual: A Study of Life and Death. By Nathaniel Southgate Shaler. D. Appleton & Co. 1900. 8vo, pp. 351.

Thinkers of to-day, as compared with those of thirty years ago, are much more disposed to look at matters in a spiritualistic light, and considerably less opposed to the acceptance of personal immortality, and are anxious to have the question further sifted. So that, when a naturalist of such standing as Professor Shaler, a pupil of Louis Agassiz, too—a warrant that he must have examined sympathetically into the idealistic aspects of the question—produces a book about individual life and death, he may [illegible] sure of being read attentively. The book [illegible] interesting throughout. Many of its multitude of suggestive ideas light up this thing or that by the side of the road enchantingly. The reader will rise from his perusal feeling that he knows more of human nature than he did when he sat down, and that, too, of an encouraging and warming kind. Vileness will not seem to him so rife as it had seemed. But if one expects to find the question handled with the grasp of a master, he will be disappointed. At critical points it is almost timid, as if the author's scientific reputation had to be considered, or, may be, some responsibility connected with Harvard University. At any rate, we do not seem to have been brought one inch nearer to an opinion about personal immortality. The style and accuracy of statement can best be judged by a specimen:

> "A man does not derive the muscular strength he may use in battle from the fight; he has probably gained it in some kind of profitable labor. His courage, his obedience, his endurance in the trials of a campaign are not bred in it; they are the product of his whole life, and that of his ancestors, who gave him his nature and nurture. Men must have in them all the qualities that go to make the soldier before they approach the business of war. All that discipline does is to give a certain mechanical readiness for duty; it makes practically nothing of the soldierly quality.
>
> "Those who doubt the statements just made should look over the history of European states. They would see that the most soldierly people of that continent are the Swiss, who for a hundred years have hardly felt the touch of war. Yet judges of what makes the fighting man, feel that at any moment they would give an admirable account of themselves. Their martial nature, born of national independence and hard, patient labor, with a simple military training to give it embodiment, is enough to deter the greedy folk about them from disturbing their repose. Just beside Switzerland, that has bred its soldiers in enduring peace, we see the French, a folk of endless warring, where hardly a generation in a thousand years but has known campaigns

A CHEERFUL FAILURE.

Letters of Thomas Edward Brown. Westminster: Archibald Constable & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 2 vols.

Letters, apart from their original private use, may be of value as illustrating manners, chiefly of the past, or otherwise contributing to history; as exemplars of style, most cultivated in more leisurely ages, and especially in France; as essential elements of biography, in the case of famous or important men, anything concerning whom is supposed to be of interest; or, rarely, as revealing in obscurer writers a personality worth knowing and otherwise missed by the public. Mr. Brown's letters belong to this last class, for he had no renown, except in a small way as a minor poet.

A Manxman, born in 1830, he became a servitor of Christ Church, Oxford, in 1849, and a fellow of Oriel in 1854; married in 1857; taught in his native isle 1856-'62, then for a short time at Gloucester, where Henley was his pupil, and at Clifton (Bristol) till 1892, when he settled at Ramsey in Man. These facts, or some of them, are given grudgingly in an "Introductory Memoir," which is rather laudatory than enlightening as to externals, and practically ends with his going to Clifton. All else, it says, "must be left to the letters to tell," and they tell as little as may be of concrete details—house, income, family, and the like. Four-fifths of them were written in the nineties, and Brown was no egotist. He was sundry other and better things, and far from the common type of clerical schoolmaster. He spoke, indeed, of "schoolmastering" as "but a sorry business," and of "a life steadfastly or normally rebellious against the calling to which circumstances had compelled" him. Mr. Irwin, in the Memoir, says: "It was known that Brown rather resented his calling, and it was generally believed that he was ineffective and indifferent as a teacher"; but he thinks the boys knew better. Brown, however, seldom reviled his lot, and was as far from mental dyspepsia as from hypocrisy. Priest's orders he took late in life, and in 1896 thus pleasantly discoursed on a topic he rarely mentions:

> "Sir, you don't take any notice of my 'pastoral care.' Two parishes (I have told you) depend on my vigilance; two congregations of 'hungry sheep look up and are not fed,' save with such orts as a very shabby divinity can supply. But, if they look up hungry, they look up kindly; I never saw such patient, cheerful mortals. No doubt 'they're marching through Emmanuel's ground,' but some odds and ends of doctrinal turnips would not come in amiss. From me 'if aught of oaten stop or pastoral song' can obviate 'the rank mist they draw,' well and good. But I fear me much my 'lean and flashy songs' have an air of the 'scrannel pipe.' "

And again, six weeks before his end, in 1897:

> "On Sunday last I preached at St. Matthew's, Douglas. For strength very well indeed, but as regards whether matter or manner, quite deplorably, the merest midden of wild rhetoric. That is what I am becoming."

It seems plain that Brown might have accomplished more than he did, and risen to greater earthly heights than he attained. (He declined an archdeaconry.) If he was not of the stuff whereof bishops and deans are usually made, he had mental equipment galore, and a geniality, a cheerful interest in people and things (barring school routine), which might have carried him far. But he was an unworldly man, careless of place and pay; a looker-on in Venice; a humorous dreamer, rather than a doer of deeds or seeker after success. "Reading and writing poetry, seeing or writing to his friends, taking long solitary walks, were to him satisfying pursuits; for common ambitions he had no use." His cloth, his classes, his scholarship, sat upon him lightly; none of them could monopolize him. His was the old choice, not often so sincerely made, or so happily realized as in his later years: give him a cot, a crust, and liberty, his inward resources could supply the rest. He loved alike nature, human nature, and books, from Homer to Stevenson and Kipling. He delighted in his native scenery, and at sixty-six, having overtaxed his strength, lamented: "It's no use living if I can't walk and climb cliffs." It gave him equal joy to discover an old Manx ballad, or a Latin hymn about Virgil, "said to have been sung at Mantua in the Mass of St. Paul, and preserved in Daniel's *Thesaurus:*

> "Living if I could have found thee,
> How I would have loved and crowned thee,
> Chief of poets, ever dear!"

or to light upon a French version of Colley Cibber's play, "Love's Last Shift," with the too literal title, "La dernière chemise de l'Amour."

His literary judgments are sometimes acute, and seldom so wide of the mark as that on 'The Prisoner of Zenda.' Mr. Crockett, he thought, had "a tidy notion of advertising himself," and, like Ian Maclaren, was in some works "Scotch to a degree that would choke you." Regarding Scott, he is of the orthodox old school. " 'The Fortunes of Nigel,' for instance. Fancy having that before one still! Fancy dying without having read it; going into the presence of your Maker and being compelled to such a confession!" This next is perhaps not meant too seriously:

> "The idea grows upon me that the Odyssey is a comedy; in fact, almost a burlesque of the Iliad—not a vulgar burlesque; the Greek mind could never have descended to that. But 'there's odds o' ' 'burlesques'; I 'whiles' get glimpses of quite a celestial travesty, which I suspect is the Odyssey. Undoubtedly, it is full of laughter. Ariosto best helps us to understand this, though I believe there is more of genuine comic vein in the Odyssey."

As to Maupassant, he thinks 'Bel Ami' "one of the most brilliant and annihilating works. A very devil! But, somewhere behind, there is a God, a God that hisses at his own creation and spits upon the hurly-burly that has escaped from his hands." Equally free and more startling are his remarks upon Cowper:

> "I am in a state of great excitement about Cowper. Reading him right through, I was more than ever struck with his innumerable felicities. Yet how very terribly he sinks! The style sinks, but still more the thought. I imagined that his fine taste had piloted him through the theological *mare mortuum* of his age and school with comparative safety. But really, it is not so. He is often quite abominable; so rude, so insolent. He sends his antagonists to the devil; literally, if I am not mistaken; tells them to go to h—ll; exults over them, sneers, jeers, jokes. His mildest attitude is a 'sarves them right,' and his idea of God as the owner of some patent sort of peep-show, which, if we don't appreciate, he will d—n our eyes for a set of God knows what, is absolutely Swiftian in its utter vulgarity. What a detestable poison has penetrated his vitals! Mind, it is not the doctrine, but the swagger and infernal rudeness that offend me. The style, too, becomes infected; with all this ghastly machinery of unreason, he takes it upon him to be flippant. Such 'awful mirth' is almost unparalleled in literature."

Surely this is too severe. It has been generally thought that it was "the doctrine," or the gentle poet's apprehension of it, which marred him and some of his work. And Mr. Brown, who, if not precisely gentle, was usually sympathetic, has not elsewhere risen to such heights of savagery as here. But perhaps he was laughing in his sleeve the while—at himself, and the vehemence of his honest wrath, and the extreme of his peppery diction. For he was not exactly a simple person, this secluded poet and master in second-rate schools, nor always easy to understand. As "an old pupil" of his said to Mr. Irwin, "You must not think you know all about Brown because you see so much of him. However intimate he may be with his friends, there is quite another Brown, who takes long solitary walks on the Downs." He confesses this in one of the very few passages that consciously allow a glance into his interior life. His letters are full of familiarity and sparkle—wit, knowledge, affection no less: they give abundantly, but they withhold far more. He does not wear his heart upon his sleeve. Yet once, in an uncommon mood—

> "Surrender yourself to some illusions. What are we but children? Only we don't quite believe in our toys, nor, indeed, can we live upon interludes. Solid fact? Well, that's not far off. Meanwhile illusions, gossamers—keep yourself amused. In my life I have been so much alone, it cannot be helped. Where is the comrade? I never had one. The absolute self is far within, and no one can reach it. I will not cant, but God reaches it, and He only. I used to envy the surface people, obviously happy, and in their happiness all there, so to speak, the full, complete presence of one being to another—no, it is not for men of a certain temperament. Yet we love candor, sincerity, thoroughness, and would fain saturate ourselves with free communication. Poor old Emerson and his over and under soul, he was not far wrong. His friend Carlyle broke down the division habitually—smashed the two souls into one great smudge of discontent. I would not do this. Keep them both going separately."

There is more of this—too much to cite, but worth attention—on page 121 of vol. ii. Once only does he refer to a heavy loss: "My girls are all well and happy. . . . And much of this happiness is reflected upon me. But there is a happiness, a kind of happiness, a *kind* (do I claim too much for it? just a *kind*) which I shall never know again—ah, no! so help me God!" And once only is he forced to something like a correct clerical attitude—or at least a serious tone—upon a point of doctrine:

> "You say you don't believe in a future state, but you have 'gleams of hope.' We are all much in the same plight. So was old Jowett, you remember. Implicit believers in the Bible are all right. Independently of revelation, the matter is a question of metaphysics, and a very subtle one. It has beset humanity from the very beginning, and (this is important) you can't lay the ghost. Rest for a moment from the pressing concerns of the present life, and there you are, you and your question. It is the inevitable attitude of the soul, what one might call its obvious native polarity. . . . Metaphysically the balance is in favor of a future state. To a skeptical nature like mine, the *balance* is everything."

He goes on to say that the thinkers, "the great fixed stars of the human race, pondering, reflecting"—"not parsons and such folk"

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tention.

The ultimate solution of the problem, according to the view here taken, will be found in the substitution of public for private agency in the sale of drink. Private persons of course desire to extend as widely as possible the sale of the commodities in which they deal. Government officers have no such motive; and it might be practicable for Government to provide the social features which make drinking-saloons attractive by establishing places of entertainment where no drink should be sold, such resorts to be maintained by the profits of the liquor trade. In support of this view the great monopoly values of many licensed taverns in England are dwelt upon, and the experience of Sweden and Norway in attempting to suppress private gain from selling drink is fully explained. No better proof of the honesty of purpose which animates these authors can be asked than the impartiality with which they set forth all the facts concerning these experiments, many of which tell against their favored plan. The subject is too vast to be properly treated here, and we must limit ourselves to praise of a most conscientious and exhaustive study of the lessons which experience affords concerning sumptuary legislation. All who are interested in such studies will find in this book a vast repertory of facts, set forth with lucidity and intelligence.

The History of the Higher Criticism of the
New Testament. By Henry S. Nash, Profes-
r of New Testament Criticism in the
l Theological School at Cam-
millan Co. 1900.

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"trees walking," and other objects with like adumbration. We receive the impression of a scholar whose traditional sentiments have survived his traditional opinions. As a consequence, we have much damaged phraseology, and especially too much personification of the Bible as if it were a conscious entity. We read of its resistance to the treatment it received, of its demand for the higher criticism, and so on, where the meaning is, perhaps, sufficiently obvious, but the expression is unfortunate. Thus, we read: "Hither [to the universities] came our Sacred Books, freely exposing themselves to the questions and cross-questions of free reason. They had entered into a temporary alliance with the mediæval hierarchy. They now chose for themselves interpreters of a different school." From first to last there is a great deal of this "pathetic fallacy," and *pari passu* an assumption of knowledge of God's plans and purposes with reference to the fortunes of the New Testament, as if Professor Nash had been a fourth in "the counsels of the blessed Trinity."

He designates three classes of modern critics, the traditional, the mediating, and the critical, and while he would probably wish to be considered as one of the critical kind, it is with the mediating that he actually belongs. He is not superior to certain prepossessions. The object of criticism is, he declares, to reach at once the truth about the Bible and to give that truth an edifying interpretation. He would fain believe that the Bible of the critics will be "not less helpful, less rich in spiritual suggestion," than the Bible of the traditionalists. With individuals these hopes may be realized, but the Dean of the rival Theological School in Cambridge has but just now written, "As these views of the Bible become popular, we must expect it to lose in popular regard. . . . While the book will mean more to the thoughtful and spiritual, we must expect that the more popular and superficial interest will become less, if it does not entirely pass away." Many would willingly escape from this conclusion, but it is an incident of the higher criticism which those who are sincerest with themselves will recognize as such, regret it as they may.

Professor Nash devotes more than half his space to general considerations and to the history of the Bible antecedent to the dawn of criticism, before entering on a specific account of the critical development. He has no comfort for those of his own sect, and they are many, who have conceived that the New Testament was the creation of the Church. Clearly his affinities are more strongly with the Protestant than with the Roman type of Episcopalian thought. His third chapter, "How Criticism Became Necessary," is an impressive exhibition of the manner in which the New Testament literature was detached from its historical setting and isolated from all other products of the human mind, and how, with the Renaissance and Reformation, that tightening of the hold of tradition which resulted from the evolution of the Papacy was gradually loos-
. At this point Professor Nash's predi-
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Roman Church, as consciously infallible, had no such need of an infallible Bible as Protestantism, which had the Bible only. The part played by the Deists in breaking down the infallibility of the Bible is honored by Professor Nash in a manner and degree that would have been fatal to the ecclesiastical standing of an orthodox scholar half a century ago. Less generous in his disposition, he might easily have claimed that the higher criticism of to-day is a development of scholarship within the lines of the various orthodox communions.

Professor Nash is warm in his appreciation of Semler as the founder of this criticism, rather than Simon, to whom the honor is commonly attributed. His book reaches its point of deepest interest in its treatment of Strauss and Baur, but too much is made in either case of the Hegelian aspect of their thought. So well-instructed a critic as Pfleiderer declares that Baur's New Testament criticism had absolutely nothing to do with his Hegelian philosophy. Later developments are treated with much less elaboration and with a leaning to the more conservative critics, in which the churchman seems to get the better of the scholar. Those refusing the supernatural element in the New Testament are treated habitually as if their refusal were an arbitrary assumption, without regard to such a position as that of Huxley and Arnold, anticipated by Theodore Parker, viz., that, given sufficient evidence, we will accept every miracle in the Bible, not excepting Joshua's dealings with the sun and Jonah's with the whale. Antecedent to experience, one event is as likely as another; but the more contradictory of experience anything reported as fact, the more evidence belief in it requires.

The Autobiography of a Tomboy. By Jeannette L. Gilder. Doubleday, Page & Co.

A most agreeable little book, with agreeably archaic illustrations by Miss Shinn, is Miss Gilder's 'Autobiography of a Tomboy'—fatally so, we should suppose, to what she
calls the Tomgirl, but to the race of Tom
men and women full of reminiscence and
charm, both personal and historic. Th
are disadvantages in the autobiogra
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We hear from them the martial note in their worship of arms and the glory that arms may win; in their trust to the test of battle for the decision of all-important personal and national matters. Surely, if a people gain in the higher qualities by the uses of war, we should find the profit here; for rarely if ever before in the history of man has there been so admirable a chance for this schooling to do its work. What do we find as the result of this age-long process of developing the higher virtues: courage, high-mindedness, patriotic self-devotion, the things for which we pay with the lives of our best youth?"

If a touch of exaggeration can be detected here and there in this passage, it is no more than a just sampling of the book would yield.

Professor Shaler ought to be thoroughly acquainted with the present state of chemistry, physics, and dynamics, in their general and geological aspects, but he does not seem to aim at particularly precise statements about these matters. Thus, he tells us, p. 11, that "the worst stumbling-block in our endeavor to found our theory of the universe on the supposition that it is throughout an expression of energy," is action at a distance; while, in fact, it was from action at a distance that the conception of energy was derived, and there it is most readily applied. On p. 14 we are told that "from the point of view of our present inquiry, the characteristic feature of the ether is that it is undifferentiated." By this he seems to mean that it does not consist of atoms; but it has been generally supposed to do so, and with some reason. Indeed, the question whether it is not a chemical substance is on the tapis. On p. 9 gravitation is called a mode of energy, and is said to be proportional to the number of atoms there may be in any aggregate, and inversely proportional to the distance. It is rather proportional to the sum of the atomic masses—that is, to the total mass acting upon the particle considered—than to the number of atoms. As the word gravitation is used by astronomers, it is an acceleration. not a mode of energy. The energy of gravitation is greater the greater the distance of the pair of gravitating masses. Would not this be understood to be denied in saying that it is "inversely proportional to the distance"? On p. 2 we are told that atoms are commonly held to be permanent units, which hardly represents the present prevalent opinion of astro-chemists and chemical physicists. On p. 75 the fact that the sum of the energy is constant seems to be given as a reason for not admitting that an atom is a centre of energy. We will not criticise this, because we do not know that we can extract any meaning from it. There are many other passages equally little calculated to impress the physicist with the author's soundness.

But it is in the biological and still more the human parts of this work that the expression becomes clear and the observations interesting. It gives the reflections of a geologist and naturalist approaching old age upon human life and death—not at all, however, those of a typical geologist and naturalist, but one of marked peculiarities; a sharp observer, who has evidently always been much interested in individual men and women, and in special cases, generally. No doubt, the author seems to himself to have put forward a philosophical theory of the individual, or, at least, contributions towards such a theory. But we will not attempt to give a more exact account of a book whose chief interest lies in its details. Anybody will find it agreeable and readable.

The Idea of Tragedy in Ancient and Modern Drama. Three Lectures delivered at the Royal Institution. By W. L. Courtney. New York: Brentano's. 1900.

In his preface to these lectures Mr. A. W. Pinero, who was present when they were delivered, describes in slightly florid language their effect on himself as one of the audience. If it be agreeable to listen to a highly colored tribute to one's powers, Mr. Pinero, at any rate, must have enjoyed the last lecture of the series, in which he figures as the hope of modern drama.

With Greek tragedy for a theme, Mr. Courtney is not likely to go far astray, and his first lecture is a clear and, of course, purely popular account of the Greek conception of that duel between an external fate and the individual will which is the prevailing idea of the Greek drama. "Necessity without, liberty within," is Mr. Courtney's phrase. That is, of course, the obvious view current since Schlegel, but it would be incomplete without the recognition of the truly moralist tendency in Greek drama. For the Greek, Nemesis the "Apportioner" was always at hand to punish insolence and to teach men to regard a due proportion. The Greek myths were regularly interpreted in the light of this retributive justice, and the plays of Aeschylus, especially, are a monument to Nemesis. "As flies to wanton boys are we to the gods; they kill us for their sport," cries Gloucester. The Greek did not admit this conception of a wantonly malicious deity.

In modern drama, from Shakspere to Ibsen, individual character is destiny. "None but yourself shall you meet on the highway of Fate. If Judas go forth to-night, it is towards Judas his steps will tend." Maeterlinck's fine saying goes back through Omar and Marcus Aurelius to the weeping philosopher Heracleitus, as Mr. Courtney might have pointed out. What is modern is the particular application of the idea to tragedy. For the main difference between an ancient and a modern tragedy is that in the former we see the *results* of the workings of a personality, in the latter the whole process is laid bare. Mr. Courtney's illustration of his saying that Shakspere "adapted the Gothic spirit to dramatic literature" is of more value to the student of literature than his somewhat trite remarks on the long-standing quarrel between philosophy and poetry and on the obvious weaknesses of Aristotle's definition of Tragedy. Shakspere's was a drama of individuals; he "put the social organism on one side." This, Mr. Courtney points out, would be impossible for a dramatist who, like Ibsen, has envisaged the modern science of sociology and all the problems that it has raised. Mr. Courtney cannot forgive Maeterlinck for "depressing the sense of human vitality and so sinning against humanity. . . . The artist must believe in his work as a free and joyous form of activity, not assuredly as a mere anæsthetic, an anodyne, a mode of sending to sleep a ceaseless grumble of indignation and despair."

Mr. Courtney does not bring precisely this charge against Ibsen, but he does not find him sympathetic. He laments in him the absence of the serene artistic temper, his frequent incoherence, but above all the provincial setting of his plays. At this point, whatever may be one's own estimate of Ibsen, one cannot but dissent from that of Mr. Courtney. In the course of a lengthy attack on the Norwegian drama, he declares that "some regal splendor should belong to those whose ruin is depicted. . . . Some world catastrophe or cosmic ruin should be suggested." The "Enemy of the People" is therefore censured for not having the grand manner of the "Prometheus." When some one protested to Ibsen that there are sound as well as diseased potatoes, he replied, "I am afraid none of the sound potatoes have come under my observation." This despair of humanity is shocking to Mr. Courtney, and that is well enough if he had stopped there. But he goes on to hold up Mr. Pinero's "The Second Mrs. Tanqueray" as "a true tragedy in form, management, and style." It seems, then, that to suit Mr. Courtney's notion of sublime tragedy "in purple pall," we need only to transfer our diseased potatoes to London bachelor quarters and the drawing-room of a country house. We are not unfair to Mr. Courtney. He tells us in so many words that we must not look for tragedy in an unfashionable locality, that, in fact, it cannot find a place in South Hampstead, but flourishes in Carlton House Terrace. After this astonishing piece of cockney criticism, his citation of a passage in the "Second Mrs. Tanqueray" as truly classical and better than anything in Dumas *fils* does not surprise us. We now see the real drift of Mr. Pinero's remark in the preface, that he "feels grateful, when he thinks of Ibsen drinking his daily mug of beer in the Grand Hotel at Christiania, that the tragic idea developed in a larger atmosphere than the smoking-room of a Norwegian hotel." Mr. Pinero's own "masterpiece," Mr. Courtney gives us to understand, has the true tragic atmosphere and surroundings necessary to a picture of cosmic ruin. And so, as we began with Aeschylus, we end with Mr. Pinero, and in the existence of "The Second Mrs. Tanqueray" we are advised to base any optimism we may share with Mr. Courtney for the future of the drama. This is a most disappointing anti-climax to an interesting series of lectures.

On page 11 Mr. Courtney hashes a line from Wordsworth which we should have thought it impossible to misquote. On page 15 he assumes the existence of a stage for the Athenian drama.

The Temperance Problem and Social Reform. By Joseph Rountree and Arthur Sherwell. Seventh edition. New York: Truslove, Hanson & Comba. 1900.

This bulky volume appears to have pleased the English public, since no less than six editions were called for within as many months. It is practically an encyclopædia of the lore concerning the regulation of the traffic in intoxicating drink by Government. In this edition considerable space is given to the experience of a number of the States of our Union. One of the authors visited this country for the purpose of examining our systems, and reports on the working of local option in Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Canada; on high license in New York, the dispensary system in South Carolina, and prohibition in Maine, New Hampshire, and Vermont. As to prohibition, it is impossible to resist the conclusion of these authors, that it does not exist—except in the statute-book—in the urban centres of the States where it is nominally maintained.

enty, G. A. In the Hands of the Cave-Dwellers. Harpers $1.

Hints for Home Reading. Book-Buyer's Guide and Book Record. Charles L. Bowman. $1.25.

Hittell, J. S. Reform or Revolution. San Francisco: J. S. Hittell.

Hodges, George. The Path of Life. Thomas Whittaker. $1.

Holls, Frederick W. The Peace Conference at The Hague. Macmillan. $3.

Holmes, Thomas. Pictures and Problems from London Police Courts. London: Edward Arnold. 10s. 6d.

Horridge, Frank. Lives of Great Italians. London: T. Fisher Unwin; Boston: L. C. Page & Co. $1.75.

Hotchkiss, Louise S. Their Own Wedding. Boston: George H. Ellis. 75c.

Howells, W. D. Literary Friends and Acquaintance. Harpers. $2.50.

Hughes, Rupert. Contemporary American Composers. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. $1.50.

Hutton, W. H. Constantinople. (Mediæval Town Series.) London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.

In Storyland. London: Ernest Nister; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.

James Lyne's Survey (The Bradford Map). Dodd, Mead & Co.

Jenks, A. E. The Childhood of Ji-shib, the Ojibwa. Madison (Wis.): The American Thresherman.

Jones, Alice I. The Chevalier de St. Denis. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.25.

Jordan, W. G. The Majesty of Calmness. Fleming H. Revell Co. 30 cents.

Keays, H. A. Little Lords of Creation. H. S. Stone & Co.

King, Mary P. Comfort and Exercise. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. $1.

Lahee, H. C. Famous Pianists of To-day and Yesterday. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. $1.50.

Loney, S. L. The Elements of Hydrostatics. London: C. J. Clay & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.

Lummer, Otto. Contributions to Photographic Optics. Macmillan. $1.90.

Mabie, Hamilton Wright. Norse Stories Retold from the Eddas. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.

Mabie, Hamilton Wright. William Shakespeare: Poet, Dramatist, and Man. Macmillan. $6.

MacQuoid, Katharine S. and Gilbert S. In Paris: A Handbook. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. 50 cents.

Mansford, C. J. Bully, Fag, and Hero. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. $1.50.

Marion, Henri. Psychologie de la Femme. Paris: Armand Colin. 3 francs 50c.

Markham, Edwin. The Man with the Hoe. Doxey's. 75c.

Marsh, Richard. Ada Vernham, Actress. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. $1.50.

Martin, E. S. Lucid Intervals. Harpers. $1.50.

Martin, Ewan. Dauntless. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. $1.50.

Marvin, F. S., Mayor, R. J. C., and Stawell, F. M. The Adventures of Odysseus, Retold in English. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.

Mathew, John. Eaglehawk and Crow: A Study of the Australian Aborigines. London: David Nutt; New York: New Amsterdam Book Co. $3.50.

Mathews, C. E. Annals of Mont Blanc. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. $6.

Matthews, Brander, and Hutton, Laurence. (1) Kean and Booth and their Contemporaries; (2) Macready and Forrest and their Contemporaries. (Actors and Actresses of Great Britain and the United States.) New ed. Boston: L. C. Page & Co.

Maxwell, W. H., and Smith, G. J. Writing in English. American Book Co. 75 cents.

Maycock, W. P. Electric Wiring Tables. London: Whittaker & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $1.

Mayer, Henry. A Trip to Toyland. London: Grant Richards; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $3.

McKim, R. H. Present-Day Problems. Thomas Whittaker. $1.50.

Milne, W. J. Intermediate Arithmetic. American Book Co. 30 cents.

Moore, F. The Conscience of Coralie. H. S. Stone & Co.

Morrison, H. S. The Adventures of a Boy Reporter. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. $1.25.

Munn, C. C. Uncle Terry: A Story of the Maine Coast. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.50.

Munro, H. H. The Rise of the Russian Empire. London: Grant Richards; Boston: L. C. Page & Co. $3.50.

Myrtle, J. H., and Rigby, R. Mother Goose Cooked. John Lane. 75c.

National Worthies: Being a Selection from the National Portrait Gallery. E. P. Dutton & Co. $15.

Nicholson, William. Characters of Romance. (Portfolio.) R. H. Russell.

"Odysseus." Turkey in Europe. London: Edward Arnold. 16s.

Pierson, A. T. Forward Movements of the Last Half Century. Funk & Wagnalls Co. $1.50.

Piffard, H. A. Marforio, and Other Poems. London: Elkin Mathews.

Pinero, Arthur W. The Gay Lord Quex. R. H. Russell.

Pott, F. L. H. The Outbreak in China: Its Causes. James Pott & Co. 75 cents.

Potter, Henry C. Principles of Religious Education. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.25.

Prost, J.-C.-Alfred. Famille d'Artistes: les
nards. Paris: Ernest Leroux. 20 francs.

Reed, Helen L. Brenda: Her School and her Club. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

Robinson, M. B. Souls in Pawn. Fleming H. Revell Co. $1.25.

Roosevelt, Theodore. Episodes from "The Winning of the West." (Knickerbocker Literature Series.) G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Russell, Alfred. The Police Power of the State. Chicago: Callaghan & Co. $2.50.

Schaeffer, Nathan C. Thinking and Learning to Think. (Vol. 1, Lippincott's Educational Series.) Philadelphia: Lippincott.

Scollard, Clinton. Ballads of American Bravery. Silver, Burdett & Co. 50c.

Shaw, G. B. Love Among the Artists. H. S. Stone & Co.

Shonnard, Frederic, and Spooner, W. W. History of Westchester County, New York. The New York History Co. $12.50.

Smith, Gertrude. The Roggie and Reggie Stories. Harpers. $1.50.

Smith, F. E. International Law. (Temple Primers.) London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 40c.

Stead, W. T. Life of Mrs. Booth. Fleming H. Revell Co. $1.25.

Steel, Flora A. The Hosts of the Lord. Macmillan. $1.50.

Stevenson, B. E. At Odds with the Regent. Philadelphia: Lippincott. $1.50.

Strang, Lewis C. Prima Donnas and Soubrettes of Light Opera and Musical Comedy in America. (Stage Lovers' Series.) Boston: L. C. Page & Co. $1.50.

Swift, Benjamin. Nude Souls. H. S. Stone & Co.

The Second Book of the Society of Mayflower Descendants in the State of New York. New York.

Thrasher, M. B. Tuskegee: Its Story and its Work. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. $1.

Tolstoy, Leo. The Slavery of Our Times. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.

Vanbianchi, Carlo. Raccolte e Raccoglitori di Autografi in Italia. Milan: Ulrico Hoepli. Lire 6.50.

Vasari, Giorgio. The Lives of the Painters, Sculptors, and Architects. Vols. 2, 3. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 50 cents.

Wain, Louis, and Bingham, Clifton. Fun and Frolic. London: Ernest Nister; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.

Walker, Williston. The Reformation. Scribners. $2.00.

Williams, H. S. The Story of Nineteenth-Century Science. Harpers. $2.50.

Yve-Plessis, R. Petit Essai de Biblio-Thérapeutique. Paris: H. Daragon; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.

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while she was still planning costumes over whose ugliness others might well weep. But please, Miss Gilder, were children in the early sixties called "kids"? And please, Miss Shinn, was not the boy's "verlosophy" of that period a creature with a chair-seat, and with two handles worked with a fierce energy, that, though lost to sight, has been conserved and transmuted into the brawn of tennis and golf?

Not the least pleasing paragraph in the book is the author's half promise of another which shall relate to Spring Hill and Cousin Mary, the delightful kinswoman who discharged her cook for having meals on time.

The Armies of the World. By Charles S. Jerram. New Amsterdam Book Co. 1900.

The persistence of the military spirit in Christendom, which our country, by compulsion of circumstances, has of late been disposed to share, gives especial interest, for the average student of current history, to the compilation cited above, which, in brief compass, gathers from official and other trustworthy documents the main facts as to the strength and organization of the military forces of the civilized nations, their cost, mode of recruitment, tactics, and supply sources. The details of army structure and management are enlivened by comments upon the political and economic significance of war preparation; upon which points the writer is disposed to dissent from the prevalent humanitarian insistence that the moral and financial burdens of the support of large standing armies, under to-day's conditions, are an intolerable drain upon national resources. He says:

> "We do not find that Germany is hindered from advance by exhaustion owing to the numbers of her armies and their support. Some, indeed, suppose that the education received in those armies more than compensates Germany for the burden imposed upon her." "War is horrible to the fighting man, and even to the persons in the immediate neighborhood of the parts in which he is fighting. But history and personal experience show how partial and local are the immediate effects of war. In the Franco-German war, thirty thousand Frenchmen ran away through our town, but they were very quiet, well-behaved fellows, who gave no trouble to anybody. Later on, some thousands of Germans occupied the town, but it scarcely affected the every-day life of the citizen. Had the two forces met in battle in our town, it would have been bad for us, but would not have much troubled our neighbors in the next town, ten miles off."

The writer, by way of illustration of the fact that modern battle-losses between enlightened peoples are likely to be increasingly smaller rather than larger, quotes from the statistics of the German War Department the statement of mortality in the Franco-Prussian war. The total German fatalities among officers and men were 43,101, which is less than Livy reports to have been killed outright at Cannæ, and a little less than four times the number of Mahdists slain by Kitchener at Omdurman, namely, eleven thousand out of fifty thousand, besides sixteen thousand wounded. Mr. Jerram's figures concerning the fatalities in our Cuban war may illustrate the same idea, that lack of intelligence in the conduct of a campaign is the most destructive force of present warfare. The United States troops had 329 killed in action, and 125 died of wounds; but by disease 5,277 were lost.

Year-Books of the Reign of King Edward the Third. Year XVI. (Second Part.) Edited and translated by Luke Owen Pike. London. 1900. Pp. xlvii, 639.

This volume, edited in thorough and scholarly fashion, brings down the translated year-books to the autumn of 1342. Then come two years which, at present, are provided for by the old black-letter volumes, and then a gap of two more years. It is good news that Mr. Pike gives us in his Introduction, when he says that the publication of the reports of all these four years has now been authorized. "The publication of the seventeenth and eighteenth years in the Rolls Series will, it is hoped, put fairly to the test the expediency of re-editing according to modern methods those year-books which have already been printed." No one who is competent to judge, doubts that it would be a great service to our law and to legal history to reëdit and translate the whole set of our printed Year-Books. In some way this must be brought about.

Mr. Pike, in his Introduction, speaks of the reports in the present volume as containing "matter of at least as much importance and interest as their predecessors. They abound with details which illustrate not only their own period, but earlier times also." The editor specifies cases relating to the mode of citation, to lunatics, to the appearance of the Chancellor in different courts, to certain old modes of trial, viz., wager of law and proof by witnesses, and to the early history of the courts. One case is cited as "throwing a new and unexpected light on a long-neglected and almost forgotten class of records," viz., the Kings Rolls of the Court of Common Pleas, kept by an official known as the King's Clerk in the Common Bench, and, apparently, "drawn up independently, and to some extent, perhaps, as a check upon the Roll of the Justices."

Illustration may be found here of the development of pleading in its relation to jury trial. The pleadings are shaped (Trin. Term, No. 33) by the fear that if one were driven to a mere general denial, instead of being allowed to state the circumstances and shape his denial specially, the jury would be misled. In an action of trespass (Trin. Term, No. 73), "the words *contra pacem* were not inserted in the writ, because the trespass was in the time of another king, but the words *vi et armis* are sufficient."

Without quoting other cases more likely to interest professional persons than the ordinary readers of this journal, we will content ourselves with heartily commending this volume to that "fit audience though few," whether students of law, of history, or of language, to whom it makes its appeal.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott, G. F. Songs of Modern Greece. London: C. J. Clay & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Ade, George. More Fables. H. S. Stone & Co.
Allen, Grant. Paris. 2 vols. Boston: L. C. Page & Co.
Allen, James Lane. A Kentucky Cardinal and Aftermath. New ed. Macmillan. $2.50.
Andrews, J. De W. American Law. New ed. Chicago: Callaghan & Co. $6.50.
Annie Russell in A Royal Family. R. H. Russell.
April Baby's Book of Tunes. By the Author of Elizabeth and her German Garden. Macmillan. $1.50.
Bailey, L. H. Botany: An Elementary Text-book for Schools. Macmillan. $1.10.
Banks, C. E. A Child of the Sun. H. S. Stone & Co.
Barbour, R. H. For the Honor of the School. D. Appleton & Co.
Barnes, C. R. The People's Bible Encyclopedia. Eaton & Mains. $3.
Bates, Katharine L. Spanish Highways and Byways. Macmillan. $2.25.
Bell, Mrs. Arthur. Representative Painters of the XIXth Century. London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $12.
Bess, E. A. Our Master's Church: A Parable. The Neely Co.
Billinghurst, P. J. A Hundred Anecdotes of Animals. John Lane. $1.50.
Bingham, Clifton. Magic Moments. London: Ernest Nister; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.
Blashfield, Edwin H. and Evangeline W. Italian Cities. 2 vols. Scribners. $4.
Bonehill, R. The Young Bandmaster. The Mershon Co. $1.25.
Boothby, Guy. Long Live the King. H. S. Stone & Co.
Brady, Cyrus Townsend. Reuben James. D. Appleton & Co. $1.
Bramah, Ernest. The Wallet of Kai Lung. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. $1.50.
Bréal, Michel. Semantics: Studies in the Science of Meaning. H. Holt & Co. $2.50.
Brooke, Emma. The Engrafted Rose. H. S. Stone & Co.
Brown, G. P. Elements of English Grammar. Werner School-Book Co.
Browne, G. W. The Young Gunbearer. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. $1.
Butterworth, Hezekiah. In the Days of Jefferson. D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.
Carpenter, F. I. Selections from the Poetry of Lord Byron. H. Holt & Co. $1.
Carpenter, A. E. Plain Instructions in Hypnotism and Mesmerism. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 75c.
Caton, Richard. The Temples and Ritual of Asklepios at Epidaurus and Athens. London: C. J. Clay & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.
Chainey, George. The Ten Commandments. Chicago: Stockham Pub. Co. 60c.
Champney, Elizabeth W. Anneke: A Little Dame of New Netherlands. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Channing-Stetson, Grace E. The Fortune of a Day. H. S. Stone & Co.
Chapman, Frederic. Proverbs Improved. John Lane. 75c.
Chatfield-Taylor, H. C. The Idle Born. H. S. Stone & Co.
Clarke, W. N. A Study of Christian Missions. Scribners. $1.25.
Clymer, W. B. S. James Fenimore Cooper. (Beacon Biographies.) Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. 75c.
Crook, C. LeD. Wintermärchen von Heinrich Seidel. H. Holt & Co.
Curtis, William E. Between the Andes and the Ocean. H. S. Stone & Co.
Daskam, Josephine Dodge. Sister's Vocation, and Other Girls' Stories. Scribners. $1.25.
Del Mar, Alexander. Ancient Britain in the Light of Modern Archæological Discoveries. The Cambridge Encyclopedia Co. $2.
Dilke, Lady. French Architects and Sculptors of the XVIIIth Century. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $11.
Du Bois, Constance G. A Soul in Bronze. H. S. Stone & Co.
Dumas, Jacques. Registering Title to Land. Chicago: Callaghan & Co. $1.50.
Dunbar, P. L. The Love of Landry. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Ewart, J. S. An Exposition of the Principles of Estoppel by Misrepresentation. Chicago: Callaghan & Co. $5.
Fairy Tales from the Arabian Nights. (Temple Classics.) London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 50c.
Fellows-Johnston, Annie. The Little Colonel's House Party. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. $1.
Ferrars, Max and Bertha. Burma. London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $15.
Fields, James T. Yesterdays with Authors. Illustrated ed. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $3.50.
Fifty Masterpieces of Anthony Van Dyck. London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co.; Philadelphia: Lippincott.
Finck, Henry T. Songs and Song Writers. [Music Lovers' Library.] Scribners. $1.25.
Finley, Martha. Elsie's Young Folks in Peace and War. Dodd, Mead & Co.
FitzGerald, Edward. Rubáiyát of Omar Khayyám. Doxey's. $5.
Flaubert, Gustave. Salammbô: The Maid of Carthage. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Flint, M. B. A Garden of Simples. Scribners. $1.50.
Flynt, Josiah. Notes of an Itinerant Policeman. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. $1.25.
Flynt, Josiah, and Walton, Francis. The Powers that Prey. McClure, Phillips & Co. $1.25.
Foote, Mary Hallock. The Prodigal. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
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least approved of them, or would have approved of them if they had known that they were taking place. According to this view of justice, all the incursions from which Europe has suffered are now to be avenged on the present inhabitants of China. Even the Troglodytes must have some claim to indemnity, and if their grievances can be discovered and the proper claimants be ascertained, justice may at last be done them. We observe no indications that the Aryan races mean to relinquish their present abodes when they reoccupy those of their Asiatic progenitors; and as there is no vacant continent to which the inhabitants of Asia can betake themselves, the policy of killing them seems to be quite as merciful as it is just.

The Chinese Minister occupies a delicate position in this country. The situation is almost unparalleled, for, while hostilities have undeniably taken place between the armies of China and the United States, pacific relations have been, superficially at least, maintained between the two Governments. War has existed de facto, and in one sense de jure, but the conditions have been so peculiar that its existence has not been diplomatically recognized. Hence the Chinese Minister was not recalled or dismissed, and it is simple justice to say that his conduct has been not only irreproachable, but in the highest degree praiseworthy. He would have been entirely justified in keeping silence and avoiding publicity; but the character of his utterances is such as to fully justify his speaking. The address which he delivered at Philadelphia contains as good an account of the Chinese situation as has anywhere appeared, and his explanation of the causes which brought on the outbreak brings us probably as near the truth as we shall ever get. We can but admire the judicial impartiality and lucid reasoning with which this representative of a people whom we call barbarous states their case. He does not defend the savage excesses of the Boxers, but he shows that these excesses were not unprovoked, and indirectly suggests how their repetition may be prevented. Matthew Arnold once commented on the "modern" style in which Thucydides wrote history, meaning that he displayed calmness and rationality. Whether we can now regard this as a modern trait or no, Minister Wu certainly displays it.

Fifty years ago the representative of a people defeated in the struggle for independence and exiled from his country was brought to our shores in one of our war-ships, and received a magnificent ovation, not only from our people, but also from our Government. Times have changed since Kossuth's day, and our Administration journals comment on the enthusiastic reception of Kruger at Marseilles with marked restraint. We have contracted some "entangling alliances" which would make it highly inexpedient for the Administration to extend any courtesies to this fugitive, and his appearance in the halls of Congress would be very embarrassing. Being at present engaged in forcing our own sovereignty on an unwilling people, we need to be very guarded in expressing sympathy with those who are resisting similar proceedings, even in the name of republican government. Possibly Aguinaldo may somewhere attempt to pose in the character of a patriot, and occasion awkward and invidious comparisons. As for the acclamation of the French populace, they must be regarded as mere expressions of hatred of England, or as the frothy effervescence of a volatile people at the sounding names of liberty and independence. Under different circumstances Kruger might receive an enthusiastic welcome if he were to visit our country; but until the subjugation of the Filipinos has been completed, we shall not be in position to use the language which would be appropriate on such an occasion.

A correspondent of the *Pall Mall Gazette*, writing from Johannesburg, makes a suggestion which deserves the attention of Imperialists. His proposal is to form a company to acquire the farms from which the Boers in the Orange Free State and the Transvaal Republic have been driven, and dispose of them to English buyers. The terms, it is claimed, could be so fixed that "the company would have no risk," while the price paid would be a mere trifle. This ingenuous Expansionist reasons as follows:

> "There will be hundreds of farms in the Orange River Colony and the Transvaal that will have to go into the market when peace is proclaimed. Prisoners of war on their return will find, in nine cases out of ten, that their homesteads have been burned down, and scarcely a head of stock left in the country, and as they will be unable—even if they had the means—to purchase a single head of cattle, by reason that there are none, their only method of raising money for bare subsistence, to say nothing of payment of interest on their bonds—for nearly every property in this country is mortgaged—will be the sale of their farms; unless, indeed, the demon of conciliation enters into the soul of the British Government and drives them to tax the Briton to provide means for setting the Boer on his legs again."

It would appear from this that the British forces have been engaged in burning the homes of the Boer prisoners whom they hold in Ceylon and St. Helena, and who will be too destitute when released to be able to recover their property. The scheme is apparently quite feasible, for current events in various parts of the world indicate that the "demon of conciliation" has been thoroughly exorcised. In fact, the proposals of the European Powers in China are quite akin to this plan, and can be carried out perhaps with even greater ease. Dead Chinamen will make less trouble than living Boers, in spite of their captivity, and the protests of the survivors will receive little consideration when the cause of empire is involved.

"Death in the Flames" is the heading, in flame-colored type two inches high, on the first page of the Denver *Times*, which reports the burning of Preston Porter by a mob at Lake Station, Colorado. Beneath the caption, and extending nearly across the page, is a picture of the burning. Porter is shown in the midst of a roaring fire, bound with chains to a stake, screaming with agony, his arms extended towards heaven, the mob surrounding him, some of them bringing more fuel and others enjoying the spectacle of the horrible torture. A graphic description, in the letterpress, accompanies the pictorial representation of the scene. The hell which Milton imagined contained nothing more hideous. What kind of schooling the youth of Colorado are receiving at the hands of their elders and through the medium of their newspapers we can only faintly conjecture, but unless the perpetrators of this awful crime are brought to justice, Colorado will be moving towards anarchy more swiftly than when she elected Davis H. Waite as her Governor. Waite only talked about wading in blood to the horses' bridles. He didn't mean anything by it. He was only a Populist, indulging in harmless rhodomontade, and it can be said of the Populists that their bark is always worse than their bite. Gov. Waite may have disgraced Colorado, but he never endangered i as it is endangered by this horrid act.

Gov. Roosevelt has made short work of the New York *World's* petition for the removal of Mayor Van Wyck for alleged violation of law in connection with the so-called Ice Trust. This action was begun as an advertising dodge to sell newspapers. The Attorney-General of the State advised the Governor that no proofs were advanced to sustain the charges, and that as the Mayor acquired his interest in the Ice Company before the latter had any dealings with the city government, there had been no infraction of law. This fact disposed of the case, and the matter might have been dropped at that point, but the Governor improved the occasion to make some very sound observations on the impropriety of removing elective officers on trivial charges. The only power fit to remove the Mayor of New York, unless he has been guilty of a penitentiary offence, is the power that elected him. The people deliberately chose him, and they must and ought to have him for their chief officer and representative to the end of his term. That

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 29, 1900.

The Week.

President McKinley's interpretation of the election in his speech to the Union League Club of Philadelphia on Saturday was thoroughly characteristic. He threw the sop of "generous acknowledgment" to the Sound-Money Democrats who had again voted for him, in forgiveness of his treatment of them in 1897, and to imaginary Independents who had returned to the party "to stay," and then discovered a popular approval of every act of his Administration in the past, and mandate for every act in contemplation—"industrial independence," *alias* the tariff in principle and in its present form; "peace and beneficent government under American sovereignty in the Philippines," neither a paramount nor a real issue in the canvass, according to the ante-election McKinley. He left it to his lieutenant, Senator Lodge, to say bluntly that "the people have voted to maintain the protection system, and to have that same policy extended to the upbuilding of our merchant marine." Of course they have; they always allow their Hannas and McKinleys to select the issue, on the understanding that success at the polls means general condonation and *carte blanche*. The platitudes in which our chief magistrate wrapped up his little-joker lesson were worthy of his reputation in that line.

Congressman Burton of Ohio, Chairman of the Committee on Rivers and Harbors, is quoted in an interview as saying the right thing about the Ship-Subsidy Bill. Nearly all the men in authority who have been interviewed on the subject since the election have "hemmed and hawed" over it, saying that they believe a subsidy bill would pass at this session, but that the pending bill might need some further amendment. Mr. Burton, however, is quoted as saying that the principle itself is wrong, and that he cannot support it in any form. It must be surprising to Senator Hanna that the representative of the Cleveland district should set himself up to have an opinion of his own on this question. Mr. Burton is quoted also as saying that he considers it doubtful whether any subsidy bill can be passed at the coming session, and that in any event it will not be the bill already reported. On the other hand, Gen. Grosvenor is alleged to have said that the pending bill will be passed by a good majority early in the session; but Gen. Grosvenor has been a false prophet on this subject on former occasions. There is no reason to suppose that he is better informed now than he was when he assumed that the Committee on Platform in the Philadelphia Convention would report the particular resolution that he sent to it with the seal of his approval. He was in quite a stuttering state when he found how it had been "Quigged" in the committee room. It is important, however, if any subsidy legislation is to be passed, that it should be done quickly. The business of our merchant marine is growing so rapidly, and our ship-yards are so crowded with work, that if the bill should be postponed a year, even its present advocates would acknowledge that there was no need for it.

That *Figaro* interview with McKinley, of which we had some account by cable some twelve days ago, has now arrived by mail, and we do not see why its authenticity should have been so confidently denied. It is signed by Étienne Richet, who describes himself as a returned Alaskan traveller, and explains how he secured an introduction to the President by the French Ambassador at Washington. All this seems regular enough. Highly probable, too, appears his version of Mr. McKinley's conversation. It reveals a mélange of the noblest sentiments and questionable deeds. That, surely, is lifelike. It is only what we have had in messages and speeches for four years. "War," says the President McKinley of the *Figaro* interview, "is the most horrible of scourges." We know well that Joseph Surfaceism. "I pleaded the cause of peace in the bosom of my Cabinet. Several of my Secretaries felt as I did. But we had to yield to Congress." What is there in that to arouse suspicion? It is exactly what happened, according to the best testimony available. The editor of *Figaro*, indeed, not having the advantage of an American reading public, thought that all this about having to yield to Congress might seem a little too steep to Frenchmen, and so he added the footnote: "It is a fact that Mr. McKinley has always been the slave of Congress (On sait que M. MacKinley fut toujours l'esclave du Congrès)." In this country we need no such explanation. To us, M. Richet appears to be a very Truthful James in his care to "state but the fact."

A cablegram from Manila reports trouble with the double standard of value, and lapse into mediævalism in consequence of it. It seems that the Philippine Commission has put an export duty of 10 per cent. on silver money in order to keep down the value of the Mexican dollar to one-half the value of the gold dollar, that ratio having been established by Gen. MacArthur. The value of silver has been rising lately, and the value of the Mexican dollar, which is the prevailing currency of the islands, rose necessarily to an exact correspondence with its weight. At the MacArthur ratio the Mexican dollar was worth more for exportation to China than for circulation in Manila, and it began to flow out of the country. So the Commission, on the motion of Mr. H. C. Ide, who is a member, adopted this tax, which it was thought would be prohibitory. The Commission followed the sapient example of the governments of the sixteenth century when they found themselves pestered by exportations of one or other of the precious metals in consequence of changes in the market ratios. There is no instance recorded in history where these edicts had the intended effect, or any effect at all except to expose the stupidity of their authors. If the Mexican dollar is worth more than a gold half-dollar in China it will be worth more in Manila, and no decree of the Philippine Commission can make it worth less. If the decree can be actually enforced (which is much to be doubted), it will cause a decline in the prices of the exportable commodities of the islands. The exportation of dollars rather than goods under natural conditions takes place because the Chinese merchant who imports them prefers them to the goods. He will take the goods only if they are offered at a lower price.

The real justification for the sanguinary onslaughts which the forces of civilization are now making on people of dark skins is beginning to be discovered. "Duty" has grown rather shamefaced, "Destiny" is getting worn out, and "Benevolent Assimilation" has come to provoke derision. But there is something back of all these, and, curiously enough, Gen. MacArthur and Gen. von Gossler, the German Minister of War, simultaneously disclose it. Gen. MacArthur suggests that the Aryan races have been seized with a fit of homesickness, and are obeying the mandate of the mysterious "homing" instinct in seeking to reinstate themselves in their ancestral abodes. Gen. von Gossler declared in the Reichstag that what the German troops were now doing in China was "merely retaliation for what the Huns did to us for centuries." This explains why the desecration of the tombs of dead Chinese is regarded by some virtuous Americans as an appropriate retribution for the recent massacres of our missionaries. Very probably the occupants of these tombs, if they did not participate in the ravages of the Huns, at

RESTORATION OF AN OPPOSITION.

The question of reorganizing the Democratic party is now under discussion in the press and otherwise, and is naturally exciting much interest in both political parties, and perhaps even more among Independents. The *Evening Post* published on Thursday an important interview with ex-Secretary Carlisle on this subject, which is entitled to great weight, both from its contents and from the authority of the speaker. Mr. Carlisle, having held the highest offices in the gift of his party short of the Presidency, and having definitively retired from politics, can always command public attention for anything he may say.

It is his opinion that whether the party is to be reorganized or not depends almost wholly on the Southern membership. They gave all the electoral votes that Mr. Bryan received except those of four small Rocky Mountain States which have large silver-mining interests. Yet the South itself has no such interests. Her interests are those which she holds in common with the North. They embrace, says Mr. Carlisle, "the maintenance of a sound and stable currency, the preservation of law and order, and the independence and authority of the judiciary." Reorganization, in his opinion, means the return of the party to these principles. The rest will follow naturally, and it makes no difference whether the conservative movement begins in the South or in the North. In this he is quite right. There is one reason, however, for its beginning in the South, apart from the fact that the South furnishes all but a mere fraction of the Democratic party's electoral votes. It is that the South contains nearly all the party leaders who have not been either ruled out for irregularity, or lost sight of by long exclusion from office. In the former category are those who opposed Mr. Bryan in one or both of the campaigns in which he was the party's nominee. In the latter is a long list of able men in the North who have been gradually forgotten through retirement from public life, either enforced or voluntary. The South has plenty of men who are qualified to take the initiative in such a step—men who are now Congressmen, or Governors of States, or leading journalists, or otherwise in the forefront of political life, and who have sufficient following to give them confidence in taking any step that commends itself to their judgment.

It is an instructive coincidence that a triumphant Conservative party in England should be deploring the weakness of its Liberal opponents, at the very moment that a victorious Republican party in the United States is hoping that the Democrats will somehow pull themselves together and constitute an effective opposition party. At first sight this seems too altruistically good to be true. The object of parties being to win political power, one would think that the feebleness of an antagonist would be a cause of rejoicing instead of dismay. The weaker and more divided your rivals, the easier and more secure your accession to power. Why should the Tories urge the Liberals to take up Rosebery, or some other hopeful leader, and make a better fight of it? Do they want to be beaten next time? The Republicans say they hope the Democracy will be able to rid itself of the fatal burden of Bryanism. Why so, if Bryanism spells defeat? Why not resort to every trick in order to induce the Democrats to make Bryan their perpetual candidate, and so go to perpetual disaster?

We may be sure that it is not political unselfishness which dictates this attitude in either England or this country. It is, rather, enlightened selfishness that leads the party in power to desire a strong party in Opposition. We will not stop now to consider the patriotic motive. On broad grounds of the good of the nation it is, of course, a misfortune, under a system of party government, when one party becomes so imbecile or dangerous that it cannot seriously be thought of as an alternative to the other. We do not doubt that many Republicans put the matter in this large way; but more of them face the question on sheer partisan grounds. They see, somewhat vaguely perhaps, yet with a sure and sound instinct, that it is a good thing for their own party to have the other fit to take the field; and so, purely as good Republicans, they would like to see the Democrats in better fighting trim.

The real reason they may never state to themselves clearly; but a little reflection will show why it is that it is well for the party in power, as it is for the country at large, to have a strong Opposition. Parties, like men, have to distrust their own virtue. Party nature, like human nature, is prone to do evil. It needs to keep itself under restraint. Confronting pleasant vices, it needs to have before its gaze their sure penalties. Now an alert and vigorous opposition party is like law and policeman and prison to warn the party in power of the certain end of the political transgressor. Remove all fear of punishment, and the impetus of partisan feeling, the plotting of bosses, the ravaging of the spoilsman and the corruptionist, will have fearfully free swing. The party will soon cease to be astonished at its own moderation, for it will have none at all. Old standards and landmarks will be swept away, and an acceleration of folly will mark the course and policy of the leaders. The thing will go on until even the evil Opposition appears the lesser evil. This it is which thoughtful Republicans fear for their own party unless it is sobered and made cautious by the revival of a respectable and trustworthy Democracy.

There is more in it than this. The practical ongoing, as well as the life and morality of a party, depends very much on the vigor and intelligence of the Opposition. If a Ministry, if a party caucus, knows that it has a "fine brute majority" to apply to the passage of any given measure, and that the opposing party is too spiritless to make a good fight, and too much distrusted to gain the confidence of the country, no matter what it may do, the natural result is to make legislation shiftless and ill-considered. Bills are too little studied before they are introduced; are too languidly debated; flounder on their way to enactment all askew, and often have to be withdrawn in confusion on the tardy discovery that they are big with mischief to the party. We had vivid illustrations of this evil in the last Congress. The Shipping-Subsidy Bill, the Philippine resolutions, the Nicaragua Canal Bill, were all loosely drawn, badly defended, radically amended, finally buffeted about, and either recalled entirely or left hanging between heaven and earth. Their failure was the failure, in so far, of the Republican party—a proof of its ineptitude in public business. It is safe to say that no such slipshod and humiliating attempts to legislate would have been made had the Republican leaders been confronted by an able and eager and united Democracy.

Congressman Catchings of Mississippi has clearly and sensibly indicated the lines along which the Democratic party must move if it is to bring about a restoration of an American Opposition. The fads and freaks with which the party has been burdened for seven years past must be flung overboard, he says, and Democrats found who are able and willing to step forward and defend correct principles of taxation and the true nature of republican government. The real battles of the next few years will certainly be fought in connection with these questions, and the sooner the Democracy finds men competent to lead it there, the sooner will it be ready to discharge the historical function of an opposition party, and, ultimately, to assume power, after having deserved and won it.

THE NEW GOLD STANDARD ACT.

The President of the Chamber of Commerce performed an agreeable duty last week when he presented to Mr. H. H. Hanna of Indianapolis a medal expressing the appreciation which the chief commercial body of this city feels for his services in behalf of true financial principles and legislation. Mr. Hanna's work has been described so often in our columns that a recurrence to it would be superfluous. It may be they can get rid of him in the proper way.

Bishop Potter is again entitled to the thanks of the community for his forceful sermon at St. Paul's on Friday on "God and the City." His call for 25,000 vigilance committeemen should not only meet with prompt response, but should also bring to his side others of his own calling. There never was a plainer issue between right and wrong than is presented in this fight with the legions of evil, and the clergy of the city cannot afford to take less than a leading part in the struggle. The renaissance of the influential Manhattan Club and the numerous quiet meetings of Gold Democrats bent on purging the city of Crokerism are additional and encouraging signs of the growth of the uprising against Tammany. There can be no doubt that the forces of righteousness are in a great majority in this city, and that a union of all those opposed to the plundering and debauching of the city is the one essential to the overthrow of its present rulers. Senator Platt, it must not be forgotten, is now the chief danger to the consummation of this union, but even his successful turning over of the city to Croker in 1897 would not have been possible had not one hundred thousand citizens, at his behest, placed party loyalty above the community's welfare.

It is regrettable that the idea of segregating the social evil has entered into the present discussion of the best means of ridding the city of the vice which so openly flaunts itself, with police sanction, upon our streets. That Tammany should be in favor of this is not surprising, for it would simplify the question of tribute and in a way lend official sanction both to the evil resorts and to the present system of plunder. That an Episcopal rector of standing should favor such a project—certain to develop into official regulation in the long run—is nothing less than astonishing. The city might as well set aside one district for burglars and another for highway robbers to ply their trade in undisturbed, for they, too, will be with us as long as human nature remains unchanged, and they, too, are outlawed. What the present situation calls for is not a discussion of the best methods of dealing with the evil to be attacked, but the ending of the unholy and indefensible alliance of the police and the lawbreakers, by which the latter flourish and grow apace. Thanks to it, the police force has truly become an institution for the propagation and widespread scattering of vice, instead of a body for its suppression and punishment.

Residents of Chicago are taking their taxation more seriously this year than ever before, and have been sending delegations of business men to Springfield to reason with the State Board of Equalization. It appears from the assessment returns that there is $118,000,000 less taxable property in the city this year than there was last. The explanation is simple. Under a new revenue law, the first "generally honest assessment of property in thirty years" was effected last year. The law encouraged honesty by providing that the tax rate should not exceed 5 per cent. on an assessed valuation equal to one-fifth of the full valuation—that is to say, an equivalent of 1 per cent. on the full valuation. Under this assurance the assessed valuation of property in Chicago more than doubled, rising from $180,041,154 in 1898 to $378,828,291 in 1899. At this point, however, the Supreme Court came in to interfere with honesty, by nullifying the provision of the law limiting the rate of taxation, so that the assessors of Cook County "found themselves in the galling and intolerable position of having secured an honest assessment by a false representation." As a remedy, the County Board of Review proceeded to bring down the valuation this year to $260,564,522. The experience of the world, it is said in defence of this scaling down, demonstrates that "there can never be an honest and equal assessment of property so long as it is possible to levy a tax rate of over 1⅛ or 1¼ per cent." Honesty draws the line at that point, and when the rate is forced higher, property begins to disappear. This, we submit, is a somewhat novel theory of finance. While undervaluation of property for assessment of taxes is not by any means a practice peculiar to Chicago, it has perhaps been carried to greater lengths there than elsewhere. The motive underlying the practice is, of course, to dodge State taxes, but the game is so simple that more than one can play at it, and when the practice becomes general throughout a whole community, as in Illinois, there ceases to be any advantage in it for anybody. Whether or not the city of Chicago pays its just proportion of State taxes, there is something childish and highly absurd in the fictitious valuation of property for assessment purposes.

A few years ago the report that the Board of Visitors of the Andover Theological Seminary had abolished the quinquennial subscription to the creed of the founders would have raised a storm of protest. Now it is likely to pass with little comment. The embers of the former controversy are too cold to be blown into flame, and the death of the mainstay of the old order, Professor Park, affords a favorable opportunity for recognizing changes that have undeniably taken place. The trustees of the seminary, in their application to the Visitors, point out that the creed is written in ancient phraseology, and that misinterpretations of it have been made by the public in recent years, in view of which they doubt if its public reading and subscription express the true intent of the founders. The truth is that the creed itself is obsolete. The trouble is not with its ancient phraseology, but with its antiquated conceptions; not with its misinterpretations, but with its correct interpretations. It asserts beliefs which hardly any one now pretends to hold, and which this generation finds it hard to believe that any one could have ever held. In these circumstances, it had become as impracticable to secure competent professors willing to subscribe as it would be to find professors of astronomy willing to declare their acceptance of the Ptolemaic system. The Board of Visitors has been discreet enough to decide that the requirement of subscription was "directory" merely, and could be dispensed with in the case of a professor who had approved himself a man "of sound and orthodox principles in divinity." The "Andover controversy" expired some years ago, and this action simply provides for its decent interment.

While the effect of the Ibero-American Congress at Madrid has been chiefly to quicken the sense of unity of race in the delegates, at least one very practical end was attained, namely, the voting of a plan of compulsory arbitration by the South American republics. The motion was introduced by Peru, which has the most to gain by arbitration. Chili's was the sole dissenting voice. This recalls the fact that Chili consented to take part in the approaching Pan-American Congress at the City of Mexico, only on condition that any arbitration there provided for should not concern her own disputed boundaries. Now if arbitration is anywhere needed in South America, it is precisely on the question of the Chilian boundary. It will be remembered that the Peace of Ancon deprived Bolivia of her entire seacoast to the advantage of Chili—a harsh and oppressive measure; also that Chili holds from Peru the provinces of Tacna and Arica, subject to the final decision of a plébiscite, which has never been taken and apparently never will be, while for years the question of the Argentine boundary has been a source of irritation between the two powerful republics. Here is obviously matter for arbitration, one would say. Not so Chili. Confident that it is her part to shed the blessings of her civilization over an expanding territory, she waves aside any proposal to reason together, and, first of Southern republics, imposes on her people compulsory military service. All we want is *la paz* (peace), protested a Chilian delegate at a former Pan-American Congress. We suspected you wanted La Paz (the capital of Bolivia), was the retort.

of humorous exaggeration—*quamquam ridentem dicere verum*—he has expressed his sympathy with the Boxers, and his hope that they will succeed in driving out the foreigners who are invading their land. "In America I am a Boxer," he said, "and why should I not be if I lived in China?" There is really no answer to this. No American, at any rate, can advocate aggression and conquest without at once renouncing the principles on which his country was built. Mark Twain, for his part, will not be caught "kneelin' with the rest." His Americanism is too deeply bred in the bone, has been too long and consistently maintained by him in all quarters of the globe, to be flung aside now as if it were an old coat. Mark Twain, American citizen, remains what he was, a homely and vigorous republican, let who will trick themselves out in the gauds and paste jewels of Imperialism.

There is the more reason to be grateful to him for what he has said about all these matters with so much courage and so much point, in the very fact that he is a man of letters. Ordinarily literary men are as timid as hares in all public concerns. Huxley spoke of the immense risk which a writer ran in taking an unpopular position, and thought it greater than that of a man of science. Any one can see how natural it is for those whose trade is writing to join with those who flatter a people to the top of its bent. Popular support being the vital breath of literature as at present conducted, a literary man is always to be looked for at the shrine of the God of Things as They Are. He has to find the poetry and the rhetoric in praise of a nation's action when it is bitten by the military mad dog, just as college presidents and bishops have to find the moral and religious justifications for it. The reason is the same in all cases—the people hold the purse-strings, and will not loosen them to buy books, endow chairs, or build cathedrals unless solicited thereto by *personæ gratæ*. Like M. Jourdain, the public has its discernment in its purse; has poor taste, but pays well; and the man of letters, who "has to live," knows where his suit must be paid. But Mr. Clemens has asserted an honorable distinction for himself in refusing to join the writers who pet and humor the crowd. He has, rather, taken advantage of his assured position to speak words of truth and soberness to his fellow-countrymen, placing the obligations of the citizen above the amiabilities of the man of letters. This puts him as much morally above the mob of literary time-servers as his writings place him artistically.

THE ARMY MUDDLE.

If the Administration really intends to pursue the policy of subjugating the Filipinos, it has not a moment to lose in raising the necessary forces. The election is over, and with it has gone any possible excuse for keeping up the wretched fiction as to the pacifying effect of Mr. McKinley's retention in office. Gen. MacArthur confesses, and the progress of events has shown, the hollowness of that preëlection pretence. There is not a single report from Manila to indicate that the need for every man of the 70,000 now in the field has diminished. If Congress does not act promptly, the 35,000 volunteers in the islands must be brought home, in compliance with law, long before their reliefs can take their places. Moreover, if 100,000 men are voted by January 1, the physical difficulties of raising new regular regiments and enlarging the old ones, and of transporting them to the Philippines, render it not at all probable that a proper reorganization can be effected within the six months allotted.

The situation demands of Mr. McKinley and the Republican leaders prompt agreement upon some plan of action. With the opening of Congress only five days away, we face the astonishing fact that there is no consensus even as to the exact size of the proposed standing army. Senator Hanna says that the bill "will call for from 55,000 to 75,000 men." Gen. Miles, who is almost as devoted to his ratio of one soldier to every thousand inhabitants as Bryan to 16 to 1, is certain that 76,000 or possibly 85,000 men will suffice; while his rival, Gen. Corbin, declares plumply for 106,000 men. Representative Hull, Chairman of the House Military Committee, is reported to favor a permanent organization of 50,000 men, to be increased in the discretion of the President to 100,000 men if necessary. Senator Elkins favors an extension of the present law for two years. Secretary Root, it is understood, will make up his mind when he has finished killing ducks and alligators in Cuba. The *Army and Navy Journal* is out boldly for considerably more than 100,000 men, perhaps 150,000. In view of the fact that some of the regular regiments now in the Philippines are pretty well exhausted by nearly two and one-half years of tropical service, and that in any event large relief forces must be provided, we believe that the *Journal* has come nearer to the true needs of the McKinley policy than any of the other authorities. It certainly has taken issue squarely with Senator Hanna, who declared on November 10, "I think it will not be necessary to spend much more money or send many more men to the islands. Now that Bryan has been buried, the insurrection is likely to evaporate."

In this diversity of opinion is apparent the same vacillation in army matters which has marked the handling of the military situation for the last two years. Take the case of the existing volunteer regiments alone. Authorized in March, 1899, the Administration, willingly misled by Gen. Otis, was unable to recognize their necessity until July of that year, with the result that the last regiment did not reach Manila until February, 1900. During the recent campaign the public was informed that the withdrawal of these same volunteers was to begin on November 1. The next date set was November 15; December 1 next suited the War Department, which then changed its mind in favor of January 1. Now Gen. Corbin simply affirms in his latest utterance that it is the intention of the War Department to bring all the volunteers home and discharge them before July 1, no exacter date being given. There is little comfort in this for the relatives of the soldiers concerned, and still less if they remember that the first volunteers in the Philippines, the regiments of Western States, were kept there months after they were entitled to muster-out.

How Gen. Corbin proposes to get the volunteers back in time, and how he intends to replace them, if authorized, the public is not informed. Is it to be by shipping to the firing line men so unfamiliar with their rifles as to be unable to load and sight properly, as was done before, according to Gen. Wheeler? In the face of a strong enemy this would simply be to court disaster. Lord Wolseley declared that the English militia army corps assembled at Aldershot as a reserve force was not fit for active service after six months' drill, although many of the men were by no means novices in arms. Is the United States to send more undrilled and undisciplined troops to swell the sick list in the Philippines? This was done a year ago, it is true, but even this task is by no means so easy now. The volunteer regiments were organized by drawing nearly all the officers and all the men from civil life. To recruit only five new regular infantry regiments means that five lieutenant-colonels, ten majors, thirty-five captains, 105 first lieutenants, and 175 second lieutenants now scattered about in the United States, Cuba, Alaska, Porto Rico, China, and the Philippines, must be collected, examined, and promoted, and given the work of organization in this country. No one not familiar with present conditions in the army can estimate the seriousness of this undertaking and its paralyzing effect upon the regiments in the field, already half stripped of officers for various causes, let alone the effect of the disorganization certain to result from a similar increase in the cavalry and artillery branches.

From the way the matter is discussed one might think that the new army would spring from the ground on the interesting, however, to note the great change that has come over the country since the Indianapolis movement took its start in November, 1896. The Presidential campaign of that year had just ended. The Republican party had been brought with fear and trembling to the acceptance of the single gold standard, modified and diluted with the hope of international bimetallism. It had won its victory on that issue, but the popular majority was not large, being a trifle more than 600,000 votes in a total of nearly 14,000,000. The Republican politicians were strongly inclined to "let well alone"—that is, to do nothing to secure the substantial fruits of victory by new legislation. A concession was made to the defeated silverites by sending another futile commission to Europe to talk up bimetallism, but in political circles no steps were thought of to strengthen the gold standard, although that had been the real issue of the campaign.

At this point the Indianapolis Convention put a spur in the side of Congress, and compelled the politicians to do their duty, or rather a part of their duty, for they have not done the whole of it yet. The contrast between the recent Presidential campaign and that of 1896 lies in the fact that, whereas it was extremely difficult to make the Republicans face the gold standard in the former, it was impossible to make them face anything else in the latter. In bringing about this change of tone and temper the Indianapolis movement was largely instrumental, and Mr. H. H. Hanna is properly recognized as its head by our leading commercial organization.

We have adverted in former articles to the need of further legislation to complete the work so happily begun, and it is fitting that Mr. Hanna should take the lead in this also, and that he should receive the encouragement of the Chamber of Commerce in so doing. Although all the money issued or coined by the United States is at par with gold, we are still, like France and Germany, on the "limping standard." We have a vast circulation of silver certificates and silver dollars which may be at par with gold or may not, according as circumstances in the business world are propitious or otherwise. Germany has lately taken a step to clear off the haze from her financial horizon by calling in the outstanding thalers which are full legal tender, and turning them into subsidiary coins of limited legal tender—a process which will extend over ten years. At the end of that time, if no misfortune intervenes, she will be on the gold standard as surely and safely as England is. Her banks can now tender silver to their customers when they ask for gold, as the Bank of France can and does occasionally. When this last measure is carried into effect the only full legal-tender money in Germany will be gold, or Government notes redeemable in gold.

Our own situation cannot be mended in that way, because the silver currency is too large in amount to be utilized in the form of subsidiary coin. It is, or will be, when all the Treasury bullion is coined, nearly $600,000,000. This "fiat silver" ought to be protected just as surely as the Government's fiat paper is protected—that is, by redeemability in gold. The law of March 14, 1900, commands the Secretary of the Treasury to keep the silver dollars at par with gold, but does not give him the means to execute the command. Secretary Gage thinks that there is an indirect and roundabout method by which gold could be obtained and applied to this purpose in case of need, but another Secretary might not construe the law in the same way. It may be argued with considerable force, also, in opposition to Secretary Gage, that since Congress rejected a clause which provided for direct redeemability of the silver dollar, it could not have intended to provide for this indirectly. However that may be, there is a doubt still threatening a large part of our currency, quite needlessly, too, since the country is rich enough to make the necessary provision for every contingency, and since a single line of amendment to the present law would accomplish the end in view. A very few words which were embraced in the bill that passed the House, but were subsequently dropped by the Conference Committee, would remove every doubt, would take us off the limping standard, and make the gold standard as secure in our statutes as it is in those of England.

If the thought flits through the mind of any Republican politician that it will be possible to snatch another victory by controversies over the standard of value, it should be dismissed at once. The Democratic party cannot make the same blunder a third time. Time will pass its sponge over that political issue before people begin to think of 1904, or even of the control of Congress two years hence. The end which should be aimed at now is to put the standard of value quite out of sight as a subject of dispute, so that people shall not think of it hereafter any more than they think of the air they breathe. A Washington dispatch says that the President will insert in his coming message a recommendation that the Gold Standard Act of March 14, 1900, be amended in such a manner as to cure any shortcomings that may exist in it. The particular defect to be cured is that we have just pointed out.

MARK TWAIN, AMERICAN CITIZEN.

Since the return of Mr. Clemens to his native land, he has been giving his countrymen some very valuable instruction in civics. Bettering the university extension lecturer in that kind, he has supplemented precept by example. His action in publicly resisting a small overcharge by a cabman, and securing suspension of the offender's license, was a lesson in public duty which Americans need to take to heart above all men. "Grumble, but pay; pay and avoid a row; submit and keep out of the newspapers"—these are the maxims upon which the lords of all creation act when confronted with cheating tradesmen, extortionate hackmen, thieving officials. Mark Twain has shown us a more excellent way, greatly to find quarrel in a straw when private honor or public decency is at stake. He really struck at the root of our chief city abuses. If citizens of New York had pluck enough to fight Croker and Platt instead of submitting to blackmail, we should be much nearer getting rid of our pair of bosses.

All this has been pretty generally commented upon in the newspapers; but what they have not directed attention to is Mark Twain's bold utterance as respects the larger matters of our national policy. No sooner had he landed than he pricked with his wit the bubble of Imperialism. An old-fashioned American, he did not conceal his disgust for the tawdry and borrowed robes in which his country had suddenly taken to flaunting. His testimony was the more valuable on this point, in that he was one of the Americans who have been living abroad during the transition of their nation from swaddling bands to purple mantle and crown, and who are reported to be delighted beyond words at the new and true grandeur of the United States. But Mr. Clemens, with his fatal eye for folly and humbug, has seen the thing as the vulgar hypocrisy it is. He had enjoyed the European perspective, but he had not lost his American keenness of vision; and he was not afraid to say what he saw. He even refused to fall down and worship Roosevelt—actually made fun of that solemn man!

A dear old lady in New England was lamenting, the other day, the departure of her country from the traditions in which she had been reared. This seizure of the Philippines, this sending troops to the other side of the world to burn and slaughter—"it all seems very strange to me," she said plaintively; but then added piously, "Well, I suppose the Lord wants us to do good in that way now." Mr. Twain, however, suspects that the devil had more to do with it. As a matter of fact, it is always Satan who takes man or nation up into a high mountain to promise all the kingdoms of the world and the glory of them on the simple and easy condition of devil-worship.

Mr. Clemens has also spoken brave and true words about the duty of this country to China. Using his privilege ply considering the several new plays of more or less literary as well as dramatic pretension. These are, first of all, the poetic tragedy "Herod," by Mr. Stephen Phillips, and the four social tragedies or "problem plays," as the critics, in memory of Ibsen, are pleased to call them. Two are by literary men, with whom the drama has hitherto been a secondary medium of expression: "The Wedding Guest," by Mr. Barrie, and "Mr. and Mrs. Daventry," by Mr. Frank Harris, who, rumor says—and I have not the positive knowledge to deny or confirm it—is but partly responsible as author. And two are by men whose entire work has been for the stage—"A Debt of Honour," by Mr. Sydney Grundy, and "Mrs. Dane's Defence," by Mr. Henry Arthur Jones.

"Herod," of course, stands on a plane apart from the others. It is in verse; it has to do not with social problems, but with great primitive passions; it is a stern, heroic tragedy, without a touch of the comedy, or gayety, or humor with which Shakspere was willing to lighten plays like "Hamlet" and "Romeo and Juliet." There is no relief in the action, or in the lines, from first to last. *Herod*, who, to satisfy his large ambitions, sacrifices everything, hesitates not at murder, risks the love of his Queen, *Mariamne*, for whom his passion is less only than his ambitions, finds, at the moment of his supreme triumph, that not the highest honors Cæsar heaps upon him can pay for the loss of that love which was their price. *Aristobulus*, the Queen's brother, the last of the Maccabees, is murdered in the first act, the Queen's death closes the second, and *Herod*, struck with catalepsy in the horror and overwhelming frenzy of his despair, as he stands by the embalmed body of *Mariamne*, is the scene upon which the curtain finally falls. Now, when it is remembered that this unrelieved gloom finds expression in verse, to which we have become unaccustomed on the stage, submitting to Shakspere's only as a matter of duty, it can be understood how daring is Mr. Beerbohm Tree's experiment in bringing out "Herod" at Her Majesty's. He has been complimented on every side for his daring, for his endeavor to "elevate" the drama. No other manager in London, it is said, would have ventured so far, however common such ventures are in Paris; and the good that must result is shown in the fact that Mr. Alexander is preparing definitely for the production next season of "Paolo and Francesca," by the same author, which he had in MS. long before Mr. Tree accepted "Herod." All this may be true. But it seems as likely that "Herod" appealed to Mr. Tree for the very same reason that made him see his opportunity in the spectacular melodrama of "The Three Musketeers." "Herod," fine dramatic poem or not, gives him the same chance for the ingenious and picturesque "make-up" which is his strong point as an actor; and also for a somewhat chastened version of the spectacle that owes its popularity to Drury Lane pantomime. The result is the appearance of Mr. Tree looking delightfully like an old Assyrian gentleman from the British Museum sculptures, and a spectacle provided with all the appropriate dances and marches and tableaux. It only remains, did the dramatist's plot allow, for the introduction of real horses (the crowning achievement of "The Three Musketeers" and "King John") to be outdone by the more poignant realism of *Salomé* actually (by the aid of the conjurer's mirrors) cutting off the head of John the Baptist before the very eyes of the audience.

But the play? I have not waited to read it. I prefer to judge it entirely as a play. However it may read, on the stage it suffers from weak construction. It drags abominably at times. Some of the characters but succeed in parading the fact that they are not needed; like *Salomé*, who, not permitted that stroke of realism, with her "hows" and "whys" serves only as a superfluous interrogation-point. On the other hand, there are scenes that would doubtless hold and fill you with their power and passion, could you follow them in the book; there are lines you are sure would prove musical and rhythmical in print. But on the stage the passion rings hollow, the power is gone, the music is lost in the mouths of the performers. Miss Maud Jeffries, the *Mariamne*, brings with her disturbing reminiscences of "The Sign of the Cross." You may admire Mr. Tree's stage business; you may give him credit for the pains he has taken; but there is not one real thrill from beginning to end, not one instant when you are carried out of yourself, not one when you forget the players. The misfortune is that the drama depends upon the human puppets who are its interpreters. It is not plays that are wanting in England, but men and women who have been trained as actors, who know how to use their voices to enunciate, to recite; who have mastered the elementary rules of the art of acting. Mr. Phillips is to be congratulated. His tragedy, with all its drawbacks, is a notable achievement, but I cannot see that Mr. Tree's staging of it is any more promising for the future of the English theatre than his production of "Trilby" or "Rip Van Winkle."

With the four other plays, we are in a very different atmosphere. In the jargon of to-day, each brings us face to face with a social problem—or is supposed to. In three it is the question of the lover's or husband's purity that is at fault and leads to disaster; in the fourth it is the woman's; and the question is threshed out in everyday prose. One of the "little ironies" of the stage is that Ibsen, who is seldom accepted himself, has made this sort of problem and the philosophical discussion of it, in such contrast to the headlong passion of old-fashioned plays like the "Dame aux Camélias," popular in the English theatre. There is no use to enter into detail as to the four separate plots. The motive is virtually the same, but the treatment varies, and it is the treatment that counts.

In Mr. Barrie's "Wedding Guest," at the Garrick, many of his admirers have seen him, like a giant, grappling with the gravest problems of sex. But, for the life of me, I can see in it nothing but Mr. Barrie grappling successfully with the emotions of the pit and gallery. It is played by an average caste—Mr. H. B. Irving, Mr. Brandon Thomas, Miss Dorothea Baird, Mr. Brandon Vanbrugh—with no actor-manager or manageress to overshadow the rest. But it is as chockfull of tawdry sentiment as it can hold. The revelation of the husband's sin—with him a sin of the past—comes the day after the wedding, but could never have come at all if a perfectly impossible incident were not accepted at the outset, namely, the presence of the cast-off mistress at the wedding. Mr. Barrie dares not trust to the dramatic interest of the situation, as Ibsen would have done; he must drag in a dummy baby, whose bathos sets pit and stalls to sniffling; he must give the poor mistress the benefit of a quite unnecessary mad scene; he must retard the action throughout with touches of weak comedy and broad farce; he must captivate the audience with the well-tried jests they love. In the end he can devise no more suggestive solution than to send the bride to ask counsel of her father, and then, at a word from an aunt—who had given up her lover for a similar cause before marriage and lived unhappy ever since—to order the carriage "home" for her husband and herself, and thus leave the problem just where it was at the end of the second act, *Nora's* banging of the front door was more effective, both dramatically and morally.

At the St. James's, in Mr. Grundy's play, "A Debt of Honor," the revelation also comes after marriage, though not till a longer interval has passed. Here the situation is saved by a decent tribute to "society"; husband and wife will keep up appearances before the world—a highly sensible conclusion; and their wisdom is proved by a wholly inconsequent and irritating epilogue, which leaves them, at the last, clasped in each other's arms. But, at the St. James's, problems and solutions cannot be taken very much to heart. The old "cup-and-saucer" play," the old "clockwork play," Mr. Alexander, as actor-manager, has replaced with what might be called the "cigar-and-evening-dress play." The main thing is for the actor to show that he knows how to appear at home in a dress coat, that he can manage his after-dinner cup of coffee with commendable ease, and that he can smoke as if to the manner born. But I do not think a more subtle method could save a play which, for all the discovery in it of an ethical purpose, is as machine-made, and not half so well put together, as one of Sardou's. Nor has Mr. Alexander's popularity and the fact that this is the drama about which floated rumors and accusations of plagiarism, been able to secure for it a long run. Its last nights are announced just as Mr. and Mrs. Kendal, in the suburbs, are producing the play by Mrs. Clifford to which it is said to bear such a curious resemblance.

At Wyndham's Theatre, by way of change, the unpleasant past falls to the woman. Though the construction is more ingenious than in "A Debt of Honor," you still seem to hear the machinery creak. You are conscious that the love affair, to which you cannot be anything but indifferent, that the virtuously active indignation of Mrs. Dane's neighbors, which is absolutely unconvincing, are merely the cruder aids by which Mr. Jones works up to the one great situation—for, like Mr. Pinero's "Gay Lord Quex," it is a play of one scene—the conviction of the woman's guilt just as she has been proved innocent. As for the problem, there is none, though there is plenty of the moralizing now in vogue to convince you to the contrary. But you have, in this case, what the other theatres are so chary of giving—a little good acting. Mr. Wyndham is one of the very few actors on the English stage, and if he is absurdly wasted in the part, he does something more than wear his evening clothes with distinction, something more than strut about in an irreproachable passage of the law for its creation. Recruiting, clothing, arming, drilling, disciplining, officering, transporting—all these questions are ignored as if they were but the task of a day. It would by no means be surprising if Senator Elkins's compromise should prove to be the only practical measure. Whatever action Congress finally takes, it should in any case refuse to adopt the plan of fixing a minimum, and giving the President the right to call out more men until a maximum figure is reached. It has no shadow of right to abdicate its Constitutional duty to "raise and support armies," still less to evade the responsibility by shifting it on the President, which means on the men who stand behind him. We do not believe that the people, as a whole, favor a large standing army, but whether they do or not, their approval will best be won by straightforward and open methods and not by misleading subterfuges. Everybody knows, too, that the true way to get out of this army difficulty is the path of honor as well. A declaration to the Filipinos similar to our Congressional promise to the Cubans would solve every problem, and enable the United States army to return to its peace footing at once.

THE CASE OF THE ICE COMPANY.

The public has heard with languid interest that the American Ice Company has obtained a decision in its favor from the Appellate Division of the Supreme Court. Calm observers never anticipated very important results from the half-political, half-journalistic litigation which was begun last May. Nevertheless, the present decision must be regarded as the most important episode in this litigation, and it throws light on the future of the anti-monopoly agitation. It is now more than a dozen years since the anti-monopoly issue became politically available. In 1886 Gov. Pattison of Pennsylvania announced that he had discovered the existence of a corrupt agreement between the companies engaged in carrying anthracite coal, and that he had determined to exert the whole power of the State to break it up. This he proceeded to do by beginning a suit against the coal companies, the foundation for which was laid by calling the officers of these companies as witnesses. As we pointed out at the time, that must be a weak case for the plaintiff in which he relies on the defendant for his evidence, and this particular prosecution—Gov. Pattison having meanwhile failed of reelection—collapsed ignominiously.

The New York Anti-Monopoly Statute, under which the proceedings against the American Ice Company have been brought, was framed in accordance with the theory which proved impracticable in Pennsylvania. So far as making monopolies illegal is concerned, there is nothing new in this statute. They have been illegal at common law from time immemorial, and those who establish them have been punishable. The only important feature of the statute consisted in the attempt to establish the existence of criminal conspiracies by the testimony of the individual conspirators. The maxim *Nemo seipsum prodere teneatur* stood in the way of this purpose, but it was considered that it might be evaded. By providing that a particular person might be compelled to testify to his participation in a criminal conspiracy, on condition that his testimony should not be used against him, the framers of the statute thought that they could secure the conviction of the other conspirators. Prosecuting attorneys have often obtained the testimony of accomplices in order to secure the punishment of the chief offenders in a crime, but this is perhaps the first attempt in our modern jurisprudence to obtain such testimony by compulsory process. The estimate which lawyers put on such devices is indicated by the decision now rendered.

It is true that the decision apparently relates chiefly to questions of practice, the particular issue being whether appeals lay from certain orders. Justice Kellogg, however, took occasion to use the following language:

> "Liberal construction of the feature of this law which authorizes an ex-parte inquisition into the affairs of this private corporation, or into the private affairs of an individual, does not authorize or justify the granting of an order to aid the doing of this for the purpose of gratifying public curiosity, or the furnishing of food for scandal, or for affecting the stock market, or for furnishing aid to a criminal prosecution. If the order is to be granted at all, it must be in cases only where the necessity is apparent from what is disclosed in the petition or application."

It was conceded by this Justice that the existence of a monopoly was established, that it was created by a criminal agreement, and that the substantial provisions of the law were wholesome. But, he observed, the agreement had been consummated, and it was too late to enjoin it. The Court could not be permitted to fix the price at which ice should be sold, nor could it confiscate the property of the ice company and distribute it. The petitioner claimed that an action should be brought to annul the certificate of the Ice Company. But the statute provides no such penalty. It would follow that the testimony of witnesses and the inspection of books were not necessary for the prosecution of such an action as the statute authorized. These expressions of opinion certainly indicate that the proceeding against the Ice Company is not likely to be aided by any strained decisions.

As to the main point, the disposition made of it is not without a humorous aspect. It seems that there has been an excess of zeal on the part of the foes of monopoly, and that in the multitude of statutes there has been folly. Congress has acted in the matter, and made penal the acts which the New York statute has also condemned. Now the New York statute exempts the witness from prosecution by the authorities of New York, but it does not, nor could it, protect him against the United States laws, or those of the other States of the Union. If the contract of the Ice Company is obnoxious to our statute, Justice Kellogg says:

> "It comes equally within the condemnation of the Federal statute. If the contract be vicious, the parties thereto are criminally liable, both under our State law and under the Federal law. To require these witnesses to swear to any facts which would establish the making of the contract alleged in the petition, or connect them with its making or execution, would, therefore, be an infringement upon the rights assured to them by the Constitution. The sole basis of the proposed action of the Attorney-General is the alleged illegality of the contract; the fact of its illegality is the sole fact to be proven in the action. The witness sought to be examined is the President of the corporation, presumptively a party to the making, and engaged with the corporation and in its behalf in executing the contract claimed to be criminal. I can conceive of no possible inquiry material to the controversy which would not call for an answer which would tend to convict the witness of a crime under the Federal statute."

Probably this farcical prosecution will not be carried before the Court of Appeals, but should it reach that tribunal there is little reason to suppose that Justice Kellogg's point will not be sustained.

NEW PLAYS IN LONDON.

LONDON, November, 1900.

A literary correspondence, with vague, politely veiled hints of plagiarism, held over one new play; an old scandal revived by the authorship of a second; the first appearance of a young poet as successful dramatist on a popular stage, have made the autumn theatrical season in London unusually brisk, if not noisy. The supply of personal paragraphs, dear to the public, especially to the Sunday-paper-reading public, has been enormously increased. I have rarely seen the theatres so crowded. The critics have been flattering themselves on the intellectual advance of the drama. Altogether, there seems, for the moment, a brilliant interlude in the prevailing despondency over modern dramatic conditions.

I confess I do my theatre-going spasmodically. I am not a professional critic, and do not have to sit out every play produced, good, bad, or indifferent. But my interest in the theatre is genuine, and my hope of finding this interest rewarded curiously youthful, so that all the recent eloquent talk of "advance," and "intellect," and "powerful work" sent me to see for myself just in what the great progress consisted. Conscientiously, I have made the rounds of the principal theatres. And what have I found? I put out of count the various farces, the musical comedies and extravaganzas, the undisguised melodrama, the revivals of a past success like "Patience," or of a classical drama like "The School for Scandal." These things we have always with us in London. I am now sim-which you gave me, and then I think only of this dear object. I converse with it, and it seems to me that you hear all that I say to this dear portrait." She did hear it all, for her father was to her what she was to him. She remembered, in all the pomp of Versailles, the days at Wissembourg; she remembered what her father had been to her; he was a favorite subject in her conversation with the group who formed her intimate circle, President Hénault, Madame de Villars, Nangis, Moncrif, the Duchess de Luynes. She liked to work for him, to send him little presents; every year she sent him an embroidered cushion for his feet. She watched the arrival of every gentleman coming from Lorraine, and was never weary of asking questions about Stanislas, whom she always called "good Papa"; she hardly ever said "the King, my father." In their correspondence father and daughter constantly used Polish terms of affection, such as were used when she was still a child. The Queen, as M. Pierre Boyé says, was really "bourgeoise dans l'âme," the most simple, unaffected creature, entering into the most minute details about her children's petty maladies. Stanislas, on his side, was a real grandfather, and would know all about his grandchildren.

Stanislas went every year regularly to Versailles towards the end of the summer, and this journey and his stay at Versailles near his daughter was the great event of the year. He travelled by short stages, receiving here and there the hospitality of gentlemen who were happy to do honor to the father of the Queen. On the road from Paris to Versailles he was escorted by the Guards, and he was received at Versailles by some prince of the blood, by the Dauphin and the Dauphiness. He was lodged in 1740 in the five rooms of the Grand Trianon which are now called the "petits appartements." Later the Trianon was taken by Madame de Pompadour, and Stanislas had rooms at the Château of Versailles, near his daughter. He could not well be ignorant how much the King neglected his daughter, but Louis XV. was to him a double personage. While deploring the conduct of his son-in-law, he continued to render an almost enthusiastic homage to the King of France (and we can see at Nancy the proofs of this fervent admiration). There was, touching the King, a sort of conspiracy of silence between the father and the daughter. Stanislas remained generally a fortnight, sometimes a month with her. As soon as he returned to his duchy, he wrote incessantly to her, always in terms of admiration and of the deepest affection. She answered him with regularity; they conversed at a distance on all subjects, sometimes on the most trifling topics, often on spiritual matters, as they were both very devout. Stanislas, as a true Pole, was an ardent Catholic; he was very light in his conduct, but it did not interfere with his Slav religiosity. He had his favorite saints, Stanislas of Cracow, John Nepomuk. He built a church for Notre-Dame de Bon-Secours, and remained for hours praying for his beloved daughter before the statue of the Virgin.

At Versailles the Queen spent much time with the Récollets; sometimes she went as often as three times a day to the Carmelites, when she was at Compiègne, her favorite residence. On the death of King Augustus, Stanislas hoped for a moment to return as [illegible] His daughter did not really desire it, and she was quite satisfied when Poniatowski was elected at the Camp of Wola in 1764. Stanislas was extremely strong and enjoyed good health; still, the Queen, when he left Versailles, feared every year that she might never see him again. In 1765 he was eighty-eight years old, and almost blind. He was on the point of leaving Lunéville to go to see his daughter; he went as far as Commercy, but the doctors would not allow him to continue his journey. The Queen resolved to go herself to Lorraine; she left Compiègne on the 17th of August, and went to Commercy, where she was received with great honor. She greatly enjoyed staying with her old father, and visited with him all the places which he had delighted in adorning. She wrote to her friend President Hénault: "I can hardly, my dear President, find a moment to say a word to you. Papa is very well, thank God. I am enchanted to be with him. He is more amiable than ever. Commercy is delightful." The separation took place on the 10th of September, and was very affecting. In the month of December the Queen had a great misfortune. The Dauphin, her son, who was a model of all the virtues, died at the age of thirty-six, after a painful operation. Stanislas was very much grieved and shocked at this news. He had become very feeble, and one day, while he was before the fireplace, his clothes took fire; he fell, and was injured in several places. He tried as much as he could to conceal from his daughter the gravity of the case, but he slowly declined, and died on the 23d of January, 1766.

The preface which M. Pierre Boyé has prepared for the forthcoming correspondence of Stanislas and his daughter is far superior to M. Gauthier-Villars's volume. The correspondence itself will be an important historical document; it will be also a psychological document, as giving an example of the truest and most constant affection between a father and a daughter, both placed in the most exceptional circumstances.

Correspondence.

THE ECONOMIC SURPLUS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I read with much interest the review of Mr. Hobson's 'Economics of Distribution,' which was published in your issue of November 8. Your reviewer brought out very clearly the general character of the book. I am surprised, however, that he should have overlooked one very important line of thought, especially as it is a line of thought with which he is evidently in sympathy. Your reviewer protests that "the taking of property by taxation is by no means the same thing as taking it for public service." He concedes, however, that, if we had a perfectly wise government, the economic surplus which Mr. Hobson describes might, without injustice and without hindrance to production, be taken for taxation and used for public purposes. Mr. Hobson, however, goes so far in one place as to imply a doubt in his own mind about the expediency under all circumstances of taking the surplus for public purposes by taxation. On page 335 he uses these words:

> "A progressive social economy is by no means confined to the difficult, sometimes hazardous, and always wasteful processes of taxation in order to procure for society some of these differential payments which are shown not to be necessary inducements to their recipients to take part in production. More enlightened methods of production, increased equality of economic opportunities, organization of employers or of workers, will often succeed in effecting large reductions of differential rents."

To me, one of the most interesting features of the book is the suggestion of organization, education, and changes in the habits of consumption, as means whereby without taxation the economic surplus may be used for beneficent social purposes.

Yours very truly, Richard T. Ely.

University of Wisconsin, Madison,
November 17, 1900.

SPAIN AFTER THE WAR.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Nine years ago I visited Spain, when she was celebrating the event which raised her to the rank of a first-rate Power, and made her the wealthiest country in Europe. Last month I gladly seized an excuse for repeating the pleasure. I was curious, moreover, to see whether the outward aspect of the national life, as appreciable to a casual observer, bore evidence of the great change which in the interval had passed over her, and had so vitally affected her status in the world. There does seem to be more shipping in her ports and more activity in her field, but the force of habit in the Spaniard is too strong to be broken even by an unsuccessful war. The general opinion is, that there are signs of a faint determination to retrieve the losses of her colonies by throwing a little more vigor into the utilization of her wonderfully rich and varied domestic resources.

So unaltered, however, have the country, its people, and their ways, been by the last few years' events, that we may dismiss all apprehension of any change taking place for better or worse, within our own time. Hence the intending traveller may go to Spain to-day or he may delay his trip till a more convenient season, happy in the assurance that the scenery and the people, the description of which may tempt him thither, will still be there in unimpaired attractiveness. There will be no risk of the old gates of Toledo being torn down to admit a trolley car. Go when he will to Spain, he may step out of our busy world, with its whirl and bustle, into the same narrow streets where trod in succession the Celtiberian and Roman, Visigoth and Moor, Jew and militant, relentless Christian. Even the railroad, with its levelling revolutionary influence, has been powerless to break the spell of the past which enthralls Spain, or destroy the courtesy of its people. The railroad conductor does not there order you to "step lively," but gravely and with courteous gesture requests the passengers as señores to "have the goodness to take their seats." This is, of course, the pleasant side of railroad travel in Spain. There is a reverse aspect which is not so attractive, and railroad travel there presents enigmas which it is not easy to solve. That a people who love ease and are so deliberate in their transactions, should be content to run all but three trains a week, on their main lines, at an average speed of ten miles an hour, is consistent and explicable; but that all important through trains, without sleepers and "make-up." Miss Lena Ashwell, who bears the burden of the past, has genuine emotion at her command, and, between them, they make the most of their one opportunity, the one relief to four long acts of skilful commonplace. Fortunately, the English audience is faithful to its traditions, and, having for years known Mr. Wyndham in comedy or farce, it now roars conscientiously whenever he opens his mouth, except when the tragedy is too obvious to be missed by the dullest, so that "Mrs. Dane's Defence" is perhaps the most conspicuous success of a very successful season.

The fourth of these plays, "Mr. and Mrs. Daventry," presented at the Royalty by Mrs. Patrick Campbell, is no better than the rest; from a strictly technical standpoint, it is rather worse. The whole of the first act could be cut and the action lose nothing. Comic servants are lugged in for no reason whatever, apparently, but to emphasize the cynicism of the author and his estimate of his own work. Epigrams are sprinkled so thickly through all the conversation that you are tempted to believe in the reports as to the real authorship. Old, well-worn conventions and situations are revived, even to an incriminating screen in the second act. And yet, while you cannot but wonder if the author is not laughing in his sleeve all the time, and trying to see how far he can impose on his audience, while the only good acting is in parts where it is least needed—that is, in the scenes with the objectionable comic servants—the play is amusing, which the three others are not. It entertains. It makes you laugh. Its cynicism is too frank to become tragic for a moment; and if its characters are never more than puppets, certainly the things they say and do have the savor of reality. The husband's sin here is an episode of the immediate present, and drives the wife into her lover's arms. But when the lover, careful of her honor, seeks to dissuade her, it is not with the cheap cant that would pass itself off as ethical truth, but with the common-sense reminder of the unpleasant social position to which such a step would lead. When the husband offers to take her back, his argument is that people will forget all about it, or, if they don't, they will crowd to her house anyway, if only she feeds them well; he knows them, and they always do—as true as it is a brutal reflection on much of English society. Sordid, you will say, and so it is, revoltingly sordid. But it has the grace of honesty. It makes no pretence of being what it is not. And, to me, it seems far more wholesome than the veneer of morality with which the dramatic author nowadays feels bound to cover his neat little comedy or melodrama, that it may be applauded by the critics as the "problem" play which, for the present, is most in favor with them.

But it would be unfair to suggest that the dramatists alone are responsible for the hopeless mediocrity of the English theatre. The poorest play interpreted with intelligence—I say nothing of genius—may become interesting and amusing, even delightful. In the English theatre, however, intelligence among actors and actresses is at a discount, and the finest play runs the risk of ruin. This is why I, personally, do not expect much from the Stage Society, which has succeeded the Independent Theatre, and other crusades in the cause of dramatic art. Plays there are. The last performance of this society had on its playbill names as distinguished as Thomas Hardy, Robert Louis Stevenson, and William Ernest Henley. But the grim tragedy of Mr. Hardy's "Three Wayfarers" flickered and went out in the feeble attempt of the hard-working, well-meaning company got together for the occasion; all the light gayety and much of the fantastic swagger of "Macaire"—"a melodramatic farce," Henley and Stevenson describe it—disappeared. I have seen a finer, a more sympathetic *Macaire* in Martinetti, a pantomimist of true genius, who, however, restricts himself to the music hall. The beauty and wit of the lines were occasionally felt across the footlights, but the spirit of the farce had gone—the spirit that makes such stately fooling in Stevenson's 'New Arabian Nights,' that fills the world with romance in Henley's poems. I could have wished its first performance in any theatre could have been postponed until there were actors in England to do it justice. When that day comes, however, I doubt if many of the present generation will be here to see it.

N. N.

THE WIFE OF LOUIS XV.—II.

PARIS, November 8, 1900.

The *Gazette de France* (No. 37 of 1725) has left us copious details of the ceremony of the marriage of Louis XV., which took place in the chapel at Fontainebleau. The Queen had a crown of diamonds; her waist was covered with diamonds; her mantle was of purple velvet with embroidered lilies; it was very long, and was carried by the Duchess de Bourbon, the Princesses of Conti and Charolais. The Cardinal de Rohan, who celebrated the marriage, wrote the next day to the happy father: "I have just seen the King and Queen. I can assure your Majesty that the King is already very fond of the Queen." The affection which Louis XV. really felt and showed for his wife turned the tide of the Court; those who had criticised the marriage most bitterly had to change their language. Songs were made and sung in the streets in honor of the young Queen, in whom

". . . la sagesse
S'offre avec toute la finesse
Des Grâces qui suivent Cypris."

Madame de Prie made herself the shadow of the Queen. "The Queen," says Barbier, "is not free to speak or to write; the Marchioness enters her room at any moment to see what she is about, and has the talent to amuse the Queen by her wit and to please her by her hypocritical ingenuity."

The castle of Chambord was selected for the residence of King Stanislas; he found it "an agreeable solitude," but complained that everything there was excessively dear. Several of his followers fell ill, and he himself contracted a fever. Louis XV. then offered him the castle of Ménars, which has magnificent terraces on the Loire. Stanislas was in constant communication with his daughter, but he did not learn from her how short her honeymoon was. M. Gauthier-Villars's work ends with the quarrel between M. le Duc and Cardinal Fleury, the preceptor of the King, with the exile of M. le Duc, and with the birth of a Dauphin, which filled the court with joy, as Marie Leszczynska had first had four girls, in rapid succession. The Dauphin was born on the 4th of September, 1729.

The time was coming when the virtuous Queen, who had become a mother for the fifth time, was to be completely neglected by Louis XV. The first mistress of the King was a lady of the Queen's household, Madame de Mailly. Long would be the list of those who in turn were distinguished by the King, who surrounded himself with the most profligate men and women of the Court—Madame de Toulouse, Mademoiselle de Nesle, who was the sister of Madame de Mailly. "This tall woman," says Michelet, "just out of the convent, full of gayety, enlivened the dulness of Versailles with her playfulness, her wit, which spared nobody. She astonished the King by laughing at him. He could not live without her. He had her at his suppers with her sister at the *petits cabinets*. Mademoiselle de Nesle had influence enough to turn Louis XV. in favor of Frederick of Prussia against Maria Theresa. She was the scandal of the Court, took the side of the Protestant alliance, was the declared enemy of Austria. She died almost suddenly of a fever, and it was thought by many that she had been poisoned. The Queen had no political influence—her father constantly warned her against the danger of interfering with politics; but the fact could not be concealed that she was in favor of Maria Theresa and the Austrian alliance.

After Mademoiselle de Nesle, came the reign of a new favorite, Mademoiselle Poisson, of low origin, who became famous under the name of Madame de Pompadour. She belongs to history, as her influence was boundless for a time. The Pompadour was accepted by the Queen, but never by the King's sisters; Marie Leszczynska had become resigned to the infidelity of her husband. The Pompadour was a real prime minister. She was very intelligent, a correspondent of Voltaire, and a patron of art and literature. She amused the King with theatrical representations; but the life she led in order to distract him was so fatiguing that her health gave way. The King's mode of living had become deplorable. Madame de Pompadour was obliged to shut her eyes on his actions; she could not hinder him from having nocturnal orgies with a few chosen friends. We will throw a veil over the legend of the "Parc aux Cerfs" at Versailles, and return to Marie Leszczynska.

Much more interesting than M. Gauthier-Villars's volume on the marriage is an article which recently appeared on the correspondence of Marie Leszczynska with her father Stanislas, of which M. Pierre Boyé is preparing the complete publication. It is now preserved in the national archives. The mutual affection of the father and daughter is quite touching. Stanislas had obtained from the great Powers the life sovereignty of Lorraine and of Barrois. Practically he did not exercise this sovereignty, and, by a secret treaty signed at Meudon, he abandoned the administration of the duchies to France. He lived from 1737 to 1766 in complete idleness, adorning perpetually his numerous houses, trying to imitate Marly and Versailles, entertaining many foreigners, chiefly Poles, opening his little court to the philosophers, the writers. In the midst of his feasts, he never forgot his daughter Marie. He was proud of her; her portrait was in all his châteaux, as well as the portrait of the Dauphin, his grandson. "Do you know," he writes to her, "of what I am never tired? When I feel out of sorts, I place myself before your beautiful portrait, figures. The book is prettily bound, and its bid for popularity will not be despised.

The tasteful use of red is very well exemplified in the Dent-Dutton edition of Bacon's 'Essays,' being confined to chapter titles and tailpieces and to initial letters. The print is legible and handsome, and the binding in white and gold. There is an introduction by Oliphant Smeaton.

The *Life* Publishing Company has performed a pious service in compiling the monthly political cartoons of the late F. G. Attwood from January, 1887, to November, 1899, inclusive ('Attwood's Pictures: An Artist's History of the Last Ten Years of the 19th Century'). This is a deserved monument to a humorist more akin to Richard Doyle than to any forerunner, and with as much conscience in not making sport of his own convictions. His moral elevation was remarkable, and his résumés of foreign and domestic events were invariably in the interest of purity and justice, and in pursuit of humbug and wrongdoing. Whether he depicts, *à la* Muybridge, John Sherman striving to assume a popular attitude, or Cleveland's Siegfried's funeral march in November, 1888, he holds up a high civic standard. As he proceeds, the small scale in which he excelled and which he could make fairly decorative, seemed to fetter him, and he struck out more boldly, as in "Hanna's patent reversible McKinley" (padlock on lips to all inquiry about gold or silver predilection); effective, surely, but less masterly than the smaller "McKinley [a real interpretation] and the beef scandal." For pure mirthfulness nothing is better than the vignette of Queen Victoria and Uncle Sam facing each other with bandaged heads ("La Grippe"), or "Poor Old Mississippi full again"; and the best of the recurring June Commencement satires is Alma Mater turning out a fresh batch of underdone gingerbread men. Among the larger designs, striking is the lion's head in pain among South African kopjes, "the first act" of the Boer war. Exceptional skill in portraiture enhances the permanent worth of these cartoons as historical evidence.

Not so indispensable for pleasure or instruction is the same firm's 'Fore! *Life's* Book for Golfers,' in which Mr. Gibson, Mr. Lilbert, Mr. Blashfield, and other artists show the society side of the game in ways quite familiar. Love and inexpertness of play are the leading motives for designs which often are connected with the theme of golf only by the legend. Some prose and verse help to fill out this album for a day.

'Mr. Dooley's Philosophy' (R. H. Russell) is now among the recognized sources of amusement and political education in this country, and it is to the credit of Mr. Dunne that he is never vulgar and does not pander to what is low or base in politics. One would like to think his humor as operative for conviction as it is universally enjoyable, but, in this respect, he and Mr. Attwood alike have perhaps done little more than resist the decline in tone for which all our latter-day forces make. Mr. Dooley's themes in the present volume are as varied as the Servant-Girl Problem, the Future of China, the Paris Exposition, the Boer Mission, Alcohol as Food, the American Stage, etc., etc. Mr. Opper furnishes a majority of the illustrations.

When a popular book gives twenty-eight of its 326 pages to a painstaking and double-columned index, the heart of the reviewer rejoices and his gall subsides. Any index covers a multitude of sins, and a good index is above rubies. But there are few sins which need covering in Mr. John Geddie's 'Romantic Edinburgh' (London: Sands & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.), and it can be safely commended to all who would renew their memories of how gray mist and east wind, gritty paving-stones and sharp cobbles, can be glorified, or, at least, forgotten, in the presence of history and legend. Mr. Geddie handles his old, unhappy, far-off things and his nearer traditions and gossip skilfully and discreetly. The accumulation of fact—more or less so—on every page is tremendous, but nowhere overwhelming; the book is readable to an eminent degree. It is not a guide for use on the street, but for quiet suggestion and reminiscence before and after. Its details we need not criticise; a kindly proscription protects the local antiquary and, still more, the local cicerone. The only drop of the *amari aliquid* is on the illustrations; all the forty-five are from photographs of the most photographic, and by process-reproduction of the worst.

One happy consequence of the Dreyfus affair was the prompting it gave to M. Salomon Reinach to translate Mr. Henry C. Lea's standard 'History of the Inquisition in the Middle Ages.' He began the task, he says, with the author's assent (conditioned on his maintaining our countryman's impartial tone), in June, 1899, and already he produces the first volume (Paris: Société Nouvelle de Librairie et d'Édition). It has the advantage of Mr. Lea's corrections upon the original text, and is remarkable among translations for the intellectual and linguistic ability of the translator. Mr. Lea is certainly fortunate in this. M. Paul Fredericq, too, supplies a brief bibliography of the subject. So M. Reinach's "duty to perform for the French public" in a tragic time has made a good beginning. We remark that the English pagination is regularly indicated in the margin, and 561 pages of the American edition are represented by 631 of the French duodecimo.

In these columns, in March, 1899, we expressed our high appreciation of the remarkable devotion to the cause of local history shown by Dr. Samuel A. Green, Librarian of the Massachusetts Historical Society, in his many and excellent publications relating to his native town, Groton, in that State. Of the more than 3,000 octavo pages which he had published on this subject as there noted, 214 were in a volume on 'Groton during the French and Indian Wars.' He has now added a volume of 343 pages, entitled 'Groton during the Revolution.' This volume is mainly occupied with documents such as muster-rolls, commissary's receipts, extracts from town records, etc., but has large additions of historical items gathered from various sources, and an appendix containing notes on the later military history of the town, coming down even to the present year, to note the death, as a soldier in the Philippines, of a Groton-born boy. We can but renew our tribute to Dr. Green's devotion to his town, indefatigable industry, and skill as an editor; all his volumes are thoroughly indexed, and the typography is of the best. This new work is not published, but copies may be obtained of George E. Littlefield, No. 67 Cornhill, Boston.

The 'Manual of Medicine: Vol. I., General Diseases,' edited by Dr. W. H. Allchin (Macmillan), is a good book of its kind. It gives a large amount of information in a small form, and it carries out its aim, "to present such a picture of the several maladies as will conform to the appearances detected at the bedside, and enable the observer rationally to administer such treatment as our art affords." It recognizes the modern theory of infective diseases, and tells much about bacteria which would not have been found, even a few years ago, in such a book. Small as it is, this volume alone is written by no less than twenty-two contributors, all of them Englishmen. It is to a certain degree a misfortune that, for the sake of completeness, like every comprehensive book, it goes over ground (to be sure, very well) which has been gone over by every other systematic work on medicine, so that the part which somebody else has not already said does not make up the bulk of the book. Perhaps authors find that books do not receive sufficient recognition which contain only new matter, referring to older books for truths already recognized. The typography and paper are excellent. No printer's errors have been observed by us. The small size of the book makes it easy to hold and to consult.

A truly meritorious little volume comes to us from Hoepli, Milan, 'Raccolte e Raccoglitori di Autografi in Italia.' The compiler, Carlo Vanbianchi, is himself an autograph collector, and has performed the service of recording (as far as was practicable) the contents of public and private collections in Italy. His work falls into three parts: geographical, by places; the first attempt at a bibliography of collecting; addresses of collectors and dealers. An appendix gives such addresses outside of the peninsula, while one index gathers up the names of the writers mentioned and another the names of places and collectors. The boon to the student, too, is not slight. To adorn the volume and to increase its value, Sig. Vanbianchi has introduced a large number of facsimiles of the autographs of distinguished personages in all walks, with their portraits. Manzoni, Leopardi, Azeglio, Ugo Foscolo, Cesare Cantû, Giusti, occur in the Italian group; the Italian composers are also well represented, along with Carlo Alberto, Victor Emanuel, etc., etc. America cuts a poor figure in the lists; not a single President of the United States is mentioned in the index, but Franklin is there. So is Edward Everett, in a collection with "G. Banneroft" (*sic* for Bancroft), "H. M. Culloc" (Hugh McCullough?). The "James de Witt-Clirton" in the same series, whoever he may be, is indexed under J. But such blemishes are irevitable.

The attention accorded by scholars of late years to the history of Renaissance criticism has done much to explain the rather obscure origins of modern classicism. A thorough study of early Italian criticism has become a necessary propædeutic to the treatment of the later developments of classicism in France, and such a work as Ebner's laborious treatise on the dramatic unities in Italy has tended to confirm in detail—what had been generally known for some time—how much the French and English playwrights and dramatic theorists of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries were indebted to their Italian predecessors. We are therefore prepared to welcome the recent contributions of Dr. Karl Voesler of Heidelberg to this important field of research. His 'Poetische Theorien in der Italienischen Frührenaissance' (Berlin: Felwith an insufficiency of cars, should start in the evening, must be due to a belief that the railroad is an unmitigated evil, imposed as a substitute for purgatory; and that therefore the more we suffer through its horrible mismanagement in this world, the less we shall have to pay as a penalty for our sins in the next.

War, as I have said, has not broken the spell. Spain has passed through a crisis which should have shaken her political and social system to its foundation, and yet has apparently failed to ruffle the surface of either. From a world-wide colonial power, she has sunk to being an insignificant factor among the geographical and political states of Europe. The truth is that her colonies really yielded her no national strength. The bulk of her people knew Cuba only as the graveyard of their sons, who left home and disappeared into the unknown, never to return. The last, who did return, were landed, with their scanty tropical clothing, to shift for themselves as best they might. Cuba, Porto Rico, and the Philippines were valuable to the civil and military officials, and to a small group of merchants, but the bulk of the people profited nought. Now the greed of the money-making classes has been in part appeased by the wealth of not a few Cubans, who, loyal to the mother country, have returned to spend their money at home. There does not seem to be even a shadow of rancor against the United States. What bitterness survives is vented against Great Britain, and against Britain's Colonial Secretary, for deserting Spain in her hour of need, in order to secure the good will of the Great Republic. Poor Mr. Chamberlain has this sin added to the burden of iniquity he is doomed to carry, that he, a Colonial Secretary, helped to strip Spain of her colonial possessions in a selfish endeavor to gain the support of the United States. Just now Mr. Stead's unpatriotic diatribes and uncomplimentary criticisms of the successful statesman (all the more uncompromising and unfair because he is successful) form a staple and stimulating subject of quotation and criticism by the Spanish press.

The war created only too good a reason for increasing taxation. The readiest means of raising the revenue is by reducing the interest on the national debt, and raising the taxes on the great English and French mining companies, whose profits, in these days of exalted prices, designate them as fit subjects for depletion. Every imaginable mode of diverting their dividends into the national Treasury has been resorted to. The taxation of one of the largest corporations, which, nevertheless, has been able to divide a modest amount among its bond and shareholders, amounts this year to about $800,000. War is an expensive luxury even when successful; but blessed is the country which, when on the losing side, can retrieve its losses out of its neighbor's pockets. The thinly disguised object of the Congreso Hispano-Americano, which is about to meet, is to discuss methods of boycotting Anglo-American goods by encouraging trade between Spain and her revolted colonies. D.

LONDON, November 12, 1900.

Notes.

Mr. Herbert Friedenwald has undertaken, on behalf of the Historical Manuscripts Commission of the American Historical Association, to edit for publication (nominally by that Association, really by the Government) the papers of Chief-Justice Salmon P. Chase. For this purpose he has already the loan of the largest body of Chase papers extant, from the Massachusetts Historical Society. He desires to procure as many Chase letters and papers in private hands as possible, for copying with speedy return; or exact copies in default of the originals being lent. Mr. Friedenwald may be addressed at No. 1300 Locust Street, Philadelphia (Historical Society of Pennsylvania).

Mrs. Freiligrath-Kroeker is engaged on a memoir of her late father, Ferdinand Freiligrath, and desires the loan of any letters of his for copying. Her work will treat especially of the patriot poet's long stay in England, and will embody much unpublished correspondence with English and American friends, Lord Lytton, Lord Houghton, Longfellow, etc. Her address is Cedar Lodge, Honor Oak Road, Forest Hill, London, S. E.

Leslie Stephen's long-awaited 'The English Utilitarians' is set down for publication next month by G. P. Putnam's Sons.

M. F. Mansfield, No. 14 West Twenty-second Street, will shortly publish the first volume of 'Stevensoniana,' a miscellany of fragmentary pieces, portraits, facsimiles, etc.

Besides Sir Lewis Morris's 'Harvest Tide: A Book of Verses,' T. Y. Crowell & Co. will shortly publish Canon Barrett's 'The Jew in London,' 'Religion in Literature and Religion in Life,' by Stopford A. Brooke, and 'The Religious Spirit in the Poets,' by Dr. Boyd Carpenter, Bishop of Ripon.

'Stage Lyrics,' announced by R. H. Russell, will consist of excerpts from the comic operas of Harry B. Smith. It will be illustrated by Archie Gunn, Ray Brown, and E. W. Kemble.

A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, have nearly ready 'The Last Years of the Nineteenth Century,' by Mrs. E. W. Latimer.

The first four volumes of the 'Library of Standard Literature,' which the Putnams publish in coöperation with the Methuens of London, give a favorable impression of the series. In their green cloth covers the books are of modest appearance, but clearly and handsomely printed, and agreeably light in the hand. The editorial handling of the texts varies considerably in plan. The 'Divine Comedy' (the Italian text) appears, for instance, without introduction or notes—save a summary list of various readings—but the name of Mr. Paget Toynbee on the title-page is a sufficient guarantee of the accuracy of the text. In spite of paper imperfectly opaque and the lack of an index, it is the most convenient edition, so far, of English make. 'The Memoirs of Edward Gibbon' and 'The Early Poems of Tennyson,' in the charge, respectively, of Dr. George Birkbeck Hill and of Mr. Churton Collins, are marvels of elaborate editing. The appendix of the 'Gibbon' particularly contains such a mass of entertaining anecdote and illustration of eighteenth-century matters as only Dr. Hill could have afforded. We observe that he disbelieves the consecrated anecdote of Mme. Genlis: "Help Mr. Gibbon up," being the order given by Mme. de Crousaz, when a corpulent habit and gout had made it impossible for the great historian to rise from an unsuccessful proposal of marriage made on bended knee. Mr. G. C. Crump edits 'The History of the Life of Thomas Ellwood,' with the restitution of passages omitted in the fourth and all subsequent editions. While the new series is chiefly contrived for the scholarly reader, it will meet the tastes of all who love good literature and good bookmaking.

Thanks to T. Y. Crowell & Co., one may now have a uniform edition of Tolstoi's writings in twelve fairly good-looking volumes, inclusive of 'The Resurrection.' It has been generally supervised by Mr. Nathan Haskell Dole, who has profited by the occasion to revise his translation of 'Anna Karénina' and rid it of the interpolation of Russian expletives, etc., which had a very irritating effect on the reader, and to restore some omitted parts. Miss Hapgood, too, has revised her three volumes of 'Childhood, Boyhood, and Youth,' 'Sebastopol,' and 'Life.' It would, we think, have been a proper course to print the translator's name on each title-page, but this has not been done. 'My Religion' is here given in a new version direct from the Russian. 'War and Peace' makes three volumes. Scattered up and down is a very interesting series of portraits of Tolstoi at varying ages; and there are some other illustrations. The work must be purchased entire.

Much refreshment can be imparted to a book thirty years old, like James T. Fields's 'Yesterdays with Authors' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), by supplying it with illustrations which might well have entered into the original scheme. Portraits naturally predominate, and of these some are rare. The American group of authors is rather outweighed by the British, which goes as far back as Pope. The facsimiles of manuscripts are fresh and possess no little interest. What a strange collocation is this in a letter from Washington Allston, dated Cambridge Port, Mass., April 19, 1844: "I am sorry that I am unable to inform you whether any part of the ghost story you [Mr. Fields] refer to in your letter, was ever in print before it appeared in Coleridge's Table Talk. I related it to C. as I had it from Mr. S. F. B. Morse, now President of the New York National Academy of Design, when he was my pupil in London." Dickens's autographic account (March 19, 1868) of his making "a jug of Punch (in the bedroom pitcher)" at Utica, N. Y., has a familiar sound.

The "Second Book" of the Society of Mayflower Descendants in the State of New York repeats the list, with revision, of passengers by that vessel, the "Compact," the Society's Constitution; and gives the latest list of members in two arrangements—alphabetical and by Mayflower ancestor. Several views of Pilgrim haunts abroad adorn the volume, which is printed and bound with much elegance.

We may note here the speedy appearance of a fourth edition of Dr. Byington's 'The Puritan in England and New England' (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.). Its chief distinction from its predecessors is an additional chapter, on Witchcraft in New England.

Mr. Will H. Low appears to be responsible for all the "sundry decorations" of Dodd, Mead & Co.'s edition of "As You Like It." We like least the abundance of rubricated borders and bands which hedge in the text, and most the seven illustrations proper, in Mr. Low's careful and graceful manner and firm draughtsmanship in landscape and can diplomacy which will be found useful and generally accurate. An exception must be made in the case of the author's treatment of the Monroe Doctrine, which he insists "declares affirmatively" that "any interoceanic canal across the isthmus of Central America must be free from the control of European Powers." This is the Hayes-Blaine doctrine that any canal across the Isthmus will be "a part of the coast line of the United States"; but as long as the Clayton-Bulwer treaty is not actually abrogated, the doctrine of the exclusive right of the United States in any canal that may be built can hardly be said to be established, and, even assuming that it were, how can it be part of the Monroe Doctrine when the Clayton-Bulwer treaty itself was made in full view of the latter? Whatever opinion may be held on the canal question, it seems to us to confuse matters terribly to suppose that our recent claims are derived from the doctrine promulgated by Monroe in 1823. Mr. Foster's reply to this would be, probably, that the Monroe Doctrine is merely a local application of the right of "self-defence," and that our right to the exclusive use of the canal comes from the same source (p. 477); but this only still further obscures the whole subject. Of course, as long as nobody contradicts us, we can define the Monroe Doctrine to mean what we like. The difficulty will come when some Power quarrels with us over it. Meanwhile, Mr. Foster's chapter about it does not do much to clear up the haze. The book grew out of a series of lectures delivered in the School of Diplomacy of the Columbian University.

—The audience which will be attracted by Frank G. Carpenter's 'South America, Social, Industrial, and Political' (Akron, O.: The Saalfield Publishing Company), will not go without its reward. Mr. Carpenter is an accomplished globe-trotter and an indefatigable note-taker. He has collected a vast amount of information concerning the social customs and industrial efforts of the South Americans. He indulges in little moralizing and less philosophizing, stating what he saw and experienced in blunt English, quite destitute of literary finish and also lacking in systematic arrangement. But one who will peruse the 625 pages of this book will obtain a very correct notion of the ways of living in the Southern Hemisphere. The errors and misconceptions are astonishingly few, considering the author's deficiency in linguistic equipment for such a journey. It is mainly where he writes of things which he has not himself seen that he makes mistakes. It is misleading to say that one can sail up the Amazon almost to Quito, and it is an exposure of ignorance to assert that vast areas of South America remain unexplored. The perpetuation of the old error concerning the feasibility of establishing open navigation from the Orinoco to the Rio Negro is unfortunate. It is time that this impracticable conception of Humboldt, which had a slender basis in the accidental inosculation of these river systems on the elevated plateau where they take their rise, should cease to excite mankind. The author's attempt to present a review of political conditions is not justified in the performance. His ignorance of Latin-American politics is nearly absolute. That these nations possess any sort of ideals, or that the conditions present to view at the moment represent the last term in a series of changes following logically from antecedent circumstances, does not seem to have occurred to him. That a book pretending to discuss politics in part could deal with the chief peoples of South America without once mentioning Bolívar, San Martin, and the other founders of the republics, proves how feebly the author had grasped the problem before him. But the work is interesting as a recital of isolated facts, and the profusion of process illustrations gives almost a panorama of South American life.

—The great volume of literature to which the Dreyfus affair has given birth will soon have been buried, but the Muse of history is now beginning to assert her rights, and to claim the dismal drama as her own. It will be a matter of no slight consequence to the French people how she deals with this extraordinary episode. The recently published twentieth volume of 'Meyer's Konversations-Lexikon' (Supplement for 1899-1900) contains a detailed review of the whole Dreyfus case. It will not be pleasant reading to the dwellers beyond the Vosges, if such there be who would avail themselves of this excellent supplement to all cyclopædias. They will have to swallow "the horrible fate of the innocently condemned Captain," and statements like these: "The report of the police [on the occasion of the trial by the military tribunal of Paris in 1894], favorable to Dreyfus, was suppressed"; Lieut. Picquart, when he "expressed his opinion that Esterhazy and not Dreyfus was the guilty party, was at once, November 16, 1896, relegated to Tunis"; "the General Staff sought at first to stave off an investigation directed against their protégé Esterhazy by giving him warning, and inducing him to address three communications to President Faure, in which he made threats, in case of a suit against him, of foreign complications, especially with the German Emperor"; even a man like Freycinet "spread this nonsense" of a Dreyfus syndicate. In terms like these is the whole melancholy record put forward in the columns of a people's cyclopædia.

PICTURE-BOOKS.

Fifty Masterpieces of Anthony Van Dyck, in Photogravure, Selected from the Pictures Exhibited at Antwerp in 1899. Described and Historically Explained, with a Sketch of the Life of the Artist, by Max Rooses. Edited under the Protection of the Committee of the Exhibition. Translated by Fanny Knowles. London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1900.

Representative Painters of the XIXth Century. By Mrs. Arthur Bell (N. d'Anvers). London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 1899.

Exposition Universelle, 1900. The Chefs-d'œuvre. By Victor Champier, André Saglio, and William Walton. Philadelphia: George Barrie & Son.

Royal Academy Pictures, 1900; Illustrating the Hundred and Thirty-second Exhibition of the Royal Academy. Being the Royal Academy Supplement of the *Magazine of Art*. Cassell & Co.

National Worthies; Being a Selection from the National Portrait Gallery. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1899.

Fairy Tales and Stories. By Hans Christian Andersen, with Illustrations by Hans Tegner and Introduction by Edmund Gosse. Translated from the Danish by H. L. Brækstad. The Century Co. 1900.

Rubáiyát of Omar Khayyám, the Astronomer-Poet of Persia. Rendered into English Verse by Edward FitzGerald. With Drawings by Florence Lundborg. New York: William Doxey.

Characters of Romance. By William Nicholson. R. H. Russell. 1900.

Picture-books used to be mainly for children; now they are mainly for grown-ups. Of the eight publications on our list only one makes its appeal, even nominally, to the child, and of that one we are not quite sure. Picture-books are books in which the pictures are, for any reason, more important than the text, and in this list we have them of three kinds—first, the book in which the text is a mere vehicle for or explanation of the picture; second, the book in which a classic text, no matter how important in itself, is republished only because it is newly illustrated; and, last, the frank picture-book, which makes no effort to be anything else.

Of the first class M. Max Rooses's 'Van Dyck' is easily the most important, from the superiority of the pictures and the more serious and dignified nature of the text. Though Van Dyck was not a painter of the very first rank, he stands very high in the second, a master of real importance in the history of art; and though these fifty pictures are not all of them among his masterpieces, yet many of them are very fine, and many are the more interesting in that they are comparatively unknown. The photogravure reproductions are generally admirable, and the collection gives as good an idea of the scope and quality of Van Dyck's art as is possible in black and white. M. Rooses is an enthusiast, and sees qualities in his hero that are likely to remain invisible to the rest of the world, even finding religious fervor in the pompous and cold-blooded exercises of Flemish academicism. It is safe to say that, for the most of us, Van Dyck's altarpieces will continue to seem pale reflections of Rubens, and that the painter of elegant and gentlemanly, if not over-strongly characterized, portraits will remain the real Van Dyck. The descriptions and historical notes are useful. The translator has not succeeded in being idiomatic as well as faithful, and the text has an odd air of having been written in English by an educated foreigner. The worst thing about the book is the binding, which is in shocking taste, and so conspicuous as to shout at one from any well-regulated book-shelf.

In the selection of one picture each from a number of painters it is difficult to steer successfully between the trite and the unrepresentative, and the editor of 'Representative Painters of the Nineteenth Century' has not always managed to do so. Most of th pictures here given are hackneyed from con stant reproduction, while the few that a not seem hardly to represent adequat their authors, while Turner's "Crossing t Brook" is at once both trite and unrep sentative. The half-tone plates are, gen ally speaking, better than the half-to photogravures, which are, as is so comm the case, rather black and violent in m ling. The text is perhaps sufficient fo purpose, if something perfunctory.

There have been some really great ma

ber) is devoted to the period of Dante and Petrarch and to the critical activity of the first humanists, and traces the theory of poetry from a purely theological conception to the oratorical, and finally the rhetorical, conception of Lionardo Bruni and Battista Guarino. The same author's briefer essay, 'Pietro Aretino's Künstlerisches Bekenntnis,' reprinted from the *Neue Heidelberger Jahrbücher*, is a compact and trenchant account of one of the most interesting figures of the sixteenth century, whose eccentric but important work in this particular field has never before been carefully studied. Since the death of Gaspary, Dr. Vossler is among the most industrious and brilliant of the younger German scholars who have devoted themselves to the study of Italian literature, and it is interesting to note that the literary criticism of the Italian Renaissance, the importance of which was first pointed out in America, is at last receiving proper attention in Germany.

To the forthcoming January number of the *American Historical Review* Prof. Edward G. Bourne of Yale contributes an article on "The Legend of Marcus Whitman," in which he performs a critical dissection of that much-trumpeted story.

Mrs. Marion Mulhall, wife of the well-known Irish statistician, writes to us in reference to his article in the July *North American Review* touching the impending census. He opposed as much too large the estimate of 77,500,000 of total population of the United States and took his stand on 76,200,000—only 95,000 below the official returns.

The Rev. W. C. Winslow gives notice of the distribution of valuable papyri by the Egypt Exploration Fund as follows: To the University of Pennsylvania, 29 papyri; Yale, 16; Columbia, 16; Johns Hopkins, 16; Harvard 16; the Harvard Semitic Museum, 3; Princeton, 13; Hamilton College, 5; Vassar College, 4. This is the initial instalment. These papyri are all numbered and described in the annual volume of the Fund, sent to all subscribers.

—The first part of the great 'Thesaurus Linguæ Latinæ,' which has been in preparation for so many years, will soon be in the hands of subscribers. The 'Thesaurus' is to be published by Teubner, in Leipzig, under the auspices of the academies of Berlin, Göttingen, Leipzig, Munich, and Vienna. The prospectus (a copy of which we have received from Messrs Lemcke & Buechner, New York) indicates that the whole work will be completed in twelve volumes, within fifteen years. Each volume will consist of about 125 quarto sheets, to be issued in parts, of which six or seven will appear annually at the price of about $1.82 apiece. The yearly cost to a subscriber will therefore be in the neighborhood of twelve dollars. Intending purchasers will find it to their advantage to subscribe early, since it is announced that as soon as a volume is completed its price will be raised by 20 per cent. A sample sheet accompanying the prospectus shows that the page will be printed in double columns of 84 lines each, numbered to facilitate reference. The treatment of the word *animosus*, which happens to occur in the sample, is fully analyzed in the prospectus, in order to show the method which will be followed throughout. The nature of the preparations made, and the preliminary work done for this enormous undertaking, are so well known to Latin scholars that we need not speak of them here. It may be enough to say that the sample pages show that expectations will not be disappointed, and that at last we shall have something which will supply the true history of Latin words, their forms, and their usage at the different periods—something which will banish once for all any excuse for that looseness of statement, and that misleading dependence upon one's "general feeling," which have been so often the bane even of the most learned works.

—Only in one particular is there room for regret. It seems certain that, like so many other important reference-books which have issued from the German press, this will prove very trying to American and English readers from its almost complete sacrifice of form to material in the lack of proper typographical devices to help the eye of the consulter. In particular, the "space" is entirely unsatisfactory as a method of distinguishing between the subgroups under each principal paragraph. Without the key provided in the prospectus, nobody would ever imagine, until he had toiled through the whole paragraph ("unleaded," solid, and all in the same size of type except for the small capitals which evade rather than attract the eye), that any such subgroups were intended under *animosus I.* as these which we find explained in the key. A simple perpendicular line, or the usual sign for a section (§), would have taken up no more room than the all but invisible "space," and would have made the subgroup obvious at once. Is it too late for the adoption of some such device in subsequent parts even though much of the first volume is already in type? Surely not; and for this and for one or two easily made changes in the plan subscribers have a right to call. As a whole, however, the mischief is past remedy, and the five great German academies, utterly neglecting to profit by the excellent models in dictionary-printing offered by this country and by England, have made themselves responsible for a work that in its typography is deserving of nothing but reprobation.

—Henning's translation of 'The Thousand and One Nights,' in Reclam's "Universal-Bibliothek," is making rapid progress, and promises, when finished, to be one of the most complete collections of the stories that have been gathered, at one time and another, within the framework of the great Saga-Book. Twenty-two "Doppel-Bändchen" have appeared, seventeen of which are devoted to rendering the 'Nights' proper, according to the second Bulaq edition. The remaining five are *Nachträge*, and have already covered much of the ground in Burton's supplemental volumes. First are given the variant stories from the Breslau text, with the omissions of that of Ins bin Qays and his daughter, and of the two Kings, which is practically a repetition of the framework story. Next, the stories which appear in Galland's translation, but are not in the Bulaq text, Aladdin (there are many Ala-ad-Dins, but only one Aladdin) from Zotenberg's text, Zayn al-Asnam from Miss Groff's, and the rest from Burton's English rendering of a Hindustani rendering of an English rendering of Galland's French rendering of—whatever it may have been. It would have been well if Henning had warned his readers that Galland had had no part in the stories of Zayn al-Asnam and Khudadad, which were slipped in by his publisher without his knowledge. This is worth mention, for Henning is otherwise most scrupulous in stating his sources and their history. The last of the volumes so far published contains the stories translated by Burton from MS. 1723 of the Paris Library, beginning with that of the Sage Hayqar, who has finished his mighty deeds by linking the 'Arabian Nights' to the Apocrypha of the Old Testament, and, if we may trust Prof. Rendel Harris, to the account of the suicide of Judas in the Gospels. These Henning translates from Burton. The purpose of this edition seems to be to exhaust all accessible material that has ever been connected with the 'Nights.' We may, therefore, apparently, look for a rendering of the Wortley-Montagu text through Burton, the Gotha MS. from Weil, the variant stories in the Calcutta edition of the first two hundred Nights, etc. The text is, of course, slightly expurgated, but the stories are not modified. There are very few notes, and the verses are rendered in prose after Lane's fashion. This last element handicaps the translation seriously as literature; but as a combination of completeness, trustworthiness, and cheapness it stands alone. Each of the twenty-two little volumes costs only forty pfennigs.

—M. Rostand's new play of "L'Aiglon" has met with better fortune in translation than "Cyrano." It is true that the entirely modern character of the Napoleonic drama offered fewer difficulties or peculiarities of diction than its forerunner, the vocabulary of which is, in its preciosity, as rigidly confined to a period as that of "Love's Labor's Lost." But, while admitting that Mr. Louis N. Parker's task was relatively light in the matter of deciding on the equivalences of words or phrases, we are glad to note that, in the selection of a translator, the publisher (New York: R. H. Russell) was guided by considerations of fitness and scholarship. Not that the English version, with its often bald and stiff blank verse, conveys in any striking passage the impression of ease and finish which M. Rostand suggests through his rare mastery of the French Alexandrines; a poet alone can properly translate such poetry. Thus, when the young Duke cries out in a rage to his imperial grandfather:

> "Car moi, je suis Wagram vivant qui se promène!"

Mme. Sarah Bernhardt's magnificence of manner and utterance fairly makes her hearers shudder and gasp at the splendid audacity of the line. Miss Maude Adams has no such opportunity in:

> "No! you can only hate me; for I am
> Wagram personified before your eyes!"

The veritable explanation of this lies in the fact that "L'Aiglon" is, both in theme and in treatment, essentially sensational, oratorical, declamatory—in all these respects perfectly adapted to the manner of the eminent actress for whom it was written; but, for this very reason, we venture to doubt whether any English version could ever become the suitable vehicle for interpreting it to a foreign public.

—'A Century of American Diplomacy,' by John W. Foster (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), is a brief review of the foreign relations of the United States from 1776 to 1876. In a volume of some 500 pages, Mr. Foster, whose diplomatic experience has been considerable, gives a history of Ameriher taste (consciously execrable), cherishing no resentment.

Though, as a rendering of the artistic temperament, Mr. Barrie's tale seems to us defective on the tragic or deeper side, it also seems, in comparison with former renderings, to stand alone, unrivalled. Unfortunately, the opinions on this point best worth having are not accessible. It would be very interesting to know whether Mürger and Thackeray, hobnobbing over 'Tommy,' would say: "Here is a franker, freer, altogether better thing than we ever did," or only, "Here is our own old trick, done skilfully enough by a clever fellow, after the fashion of his time, which was not the fashion of our time."

One of the most significant incidents narrated in the history of 'Tommy' is his defeat in a literary competition, because he spent all the allotted time looking for one word. To find the word, though too late, gave him an inward joy, comprehensible only to those appointed by nature to the craft of letters. To pursue the word is the born writer's serious and absorbing occupation, and to find it, though nobody cares a straw, the crown of life. No modern writer of English has aspired to the crown so consistently, worked for it so fervently, and, we fear, been permitted to wear it so exclusively for his own gratification, as Mr. Henry James. From devotion to the word, it follows unfortunately, however inevitably, that a writer loses interest in the common aspects of life and in its broad issues. For plots and situations, for downright tragedy and comedy, for the discussion of definite problems, a plain and vigorous vocabulary always at hand is good enough. The insatiable appetite for the word, growing by what it feeds on, demands more and more for its satisfaction stuff so delicate, elusive, subtle that it is all but inexpressible. Mr. James's craving for that sort of stuff has reached a point where even his most loyal followers acknowledge sadly an occasional desire for an interpreter. He knows what he means, of course, and has said it perfectly, but we have not gone so far, we can't follow him; and that consciousness of limitation brings about depression which tempers admiration, and may finally undermine a robust faith. The contents of 'The Soft Side' (why The Soft Side?) are not tales in any accepted sense, neither are they sermons or poems, essays or articles; we give it to the author to find the properly descriptive word. What we get from the volume is a feeling that all the value of the matter is in what the author makes of it, and that, if one is not happily so constituted as to be in sympathy with his performance, the state of mind induced must be either one of hopeless bewilderment or of irritation that consigns the author and his works to the deepest, darkest limbo.

Besides the pursuit of the word, there are other influences, influences beyond his shaping, which have brought Mr. James so thoroughly (magnificently, he would say) to throw the public over. Most of us, the common run, learn very little from living—otherwise the tree of knowledge would more conspicuously bear fruit; but a chosen few are really unconsciously developed by experience. The development runs to extremes, here of seriousness and earnestness, there of a cynical or genial lightness. Life has wafted Mr. James away from storm and stress and seated him among the smiling philosophers, cheerful gentlemen seeing the folly and futility of passion and strife more clearly than either their beauty or their pain, and regarding the multitude (if regarding it at all) with amused and tolerant contempt.

The scope and variety possible to the modern novel appear illimitable in passing from the nervous complexity of 'The Soft Side' to the restful calm with passionate depths of 'Sons of the Morning.' This is for our time a very remarkable book—poetical, thoughtful, sincere, showing from the first a clear conception of the thing to be done, and proceeding with a rather grand movement to accomplishment. The author's former work has been freely compared with Mr. Hardy's, and here the comparison holds good in a similar feeling for nature and a partial, pagan identification of the human spirit with a universal nature spirit. Otherwise, the authors go far apart, Mr. Phillpotts taking the road of faith, hope, and sanity. In construction he follows the old-fashioned drama, allotting the principal parts to the gentry, and providing a secondary plot for their inferiors or servants. The two parts are not very closely interwoven, so it is possible for those who find Devonshire dialect hard reading to skip most of the secondary without losing the thread of the chief interest. This interest is centred in a situation unusual in fiction and perhaps not common in life. Mr. Phillpotts asks boldly whether a woman may not love two men at once, each so much as to exclude marriage with either, and, if not, why not? The woman who finds herself in this attitude (usurping one of the few remaining privileges of the other sex) is not a man's ideal, but a very real woman, with a good head and a good heart, with impulses swift and strong that dispense with reason for action, and with a reason that criticises conduct, but rarely corrects it. The two men who made life a predicament for Honor Endicott are strongly contrasted, and so clearly characterized that there is no difficulty in seeing how happy Honor might have been with either charmer if she could have permanently got rid of the other. At last, indeed, this chance for happiness comes, but with it the ghost of a past that will not be laid while memory holds a place.

Mr. Phillpotts's style in narration and description is somewhat ponderous and labored, but in dialogue his self-consciousness almost entirely disappears. He does not talk for his people; they talk for themselves, each so expressively that an awful doubt about which person is speaking never presents itself. The conversations between Honor and her lovers are as pointed and characteristic as those of George Meredith's people; and even in the discussions of morals and eternal mysteries, both Myles Stapledon and Honor's wise, blind uncle stick each to his own point of view, preserving an individual manner. Mr. Phillpotts also stands well off from his drama, so the reader participates in what is going on as the audience shares in a play; and as critical moments approach, he gets an exciting sense of adding his personal energy, casting in his lot—a sensation which it takes a very good play to stimulate.

It is impossible rigidly to divide fact from fiction in Mr. Crane's 'Wounds in the Rain,' but, roughly speaking, the events narrated are now historical, while the actors are mostly the unknown who get into print only under fictitious names. The manner in which these sketches and memories of the Spanish-American war are written, is that of a clever and vivacious journalist, tempered by afterthought and softened by the desire to give literary effectiveness to descriptions of episodes in which the note of life is distressing or violent or brutal. The volume contains some of the best work that Mr. Crane has left behind him. The street-boy wit for which he was much admired is indeed rarely heard, and his sparkling flippancies are few; nevertheless, a greater gravity when confronting serious affairs and a more mature outlook largely compensate for such losses. During recent years there has been so much war, and so much more talking and writing about war, that peaceful people are tired and the most bellicose should have had enough. It is very good testimony to the merit of Mr. Crane's book to say that it often gives an exhilarating sensation of freshness, novelty, much as if one had come upon it after a protracted and particularly piping time of peace.

Lest the glory of fresh conquest should obliterate the memory of battles long ago, Mr. Harris has, perhaps, deemed the moment opportune to print "Certain Curious Episodes of the Late Civil War." The episodes are not very curious, and not at all incredible. The narration drags over unimportant matters and then leaps, leaving gaps as if Mr. Harris had forgotten the really critical moves in the games of political conspiracy. Capt. McCarthy, the soul of Confederate intrigue, and, during several agitating years, the imposing head waiter of the New York Hotel, appears to have been an interesting and resourceful person, yet, by his gloomy confidence that Providence had decided against the South, rather disqualified for work requiring for succes a hearty belief that God was with hi Apart from intrinsic improbability and stumbling start, "The Kidnapping of Pre dent Lincoln" is an excellent tale. The President's remarkable personality is vividly presented, and all the detail adds to the accepted portrait of that "patient, kindly man, with the bright smile and sad eyes, with melancholy at one elbow and mirth at the other."

STEDMAN'S AMERICAN ANTHOLOGY.

An American Anthology, 1787-1899. Selections illustrating the Editor's Critical Review of American Poetry in the Nineteenth Century. Edited by Edmund Clarence Stedman. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Mr. Stedman has completed his quartet of volumes, which, taken together, make certainly a literary landmark for the beginning of the new century. The 'American Anthology' is a hundred pages thicker than the 'Victorian Anthology,' the difference being partly due to the fact that the American volume covers a longer time, although most of the added period yields little harvest. Its arrangement varies in some respects from that of its predecessor, while having some points in common. We still hold to the opinion that there is a slight excess of structural arrangement in each of these books, and that each would have been more agreeable, if not more useful, if made more strictly a *florilegium* and less of an illustrated history. But this is a matter which Mr. Stedman thoroughly considered and his judgment must be accepted as controlling, at least in his own book. Another peculiarity, also shared with the 'Victorian Anthology,' is one which we can hardly rank above the grade of a whim, that, namely, of often withholding the date of women's birthdays, presumably on the theory that they prefer this omission. This was mentioned, it will be remembered, in one of his earlier books, namely, his 'American Poets' (p. xv.), but it now extends even to cases where the birthday has already been recorded in other works of reference. Is it not rather below the dignity of history that the candid inquirer should sometimes be able to learn from the 'American Anthology' only that a certain lady was born "about 184—," and then should ascertain without difficulty from 'Who's Who?' that her birthday fell in 1845? In one or two cases a similar omission has been made in respect to the birthdays of men, but this may have been at the author's request, as 'Who's Who?' is in these particular cases equally impenetrable.

Passing now to the distribution of space among authors, to the selection of names, and the particular poems reproduced, we reach points which there is no tribunal to settle; every one will have his own opinion, and the sum total of agreement or difference with the editor will usually determine in the reader's mind his opinion of the book. There are, however, many poems which have so far been accepted in the public mind as truly representative of their authors that they hold their claim on a basis akin to natural selection. It is almost a matter of course that any extracts from Holmes should include his two masterpieces in different directions, "The Chambered Nautilus" and "The Last Leaf." So the fame of Parsons may be said to rest almost wholly upon his poem, "On the Bust of Dante," as does that of Trowbridge on "The Vagabonds," that of Finch on "The Blue and the Gray," and that of Mitchell on "Tacking Ship off Shore." All these are, of course, included by Mr. Stedman, who also follows the same instinct when he begins the selections from his own poems with the beautiful and thoughtful song, "Thou art mine, thou hast given thy word." But when the reader turns with equal confidence to look for Celia Thaxter's "Landlocked," Lucy Larcom's "Hannah Binding Shoes," or Piatt's single fine poem, "The Morning Street," he does not find them. We miss also the rich cadences of Ellsworth's "Tuloom," published originally in *Putnam's Magazine*, and for which his two comparatively prosaic poems, as here given, afford no substitute. Once again, Mr. Stedman compliments (p. xxix) the poetry produced by the Civil War, yet fails to reprint one of its very finest memorials, Aldrich's "Fredericksburg" sonnet. All these omissions are distinctly disappointments.

Still more to be regretted are the instances where not merely is some single poem, already a classic to many readers, omitted, but the omission carries with it into oblivion the name of some especially gifted writer. Thus, in the days of Transcendentalism, there appeared in the *Dial* six lines which at once became practically immortal by their simplicity and depth—the lines, namely, which began,

> "I slept and dreamed that life was beauty.
> I waked and found that life was duty."

The acceptance of Bourdillon's two verses,

> "The night has a thousand eyes
> And the day but one,"

was not more immediate and universal. The author of the *Dial* poem was Mrs. Ellen Sturgis Hooper of Boston, whose early death and the reticence of her children have prevented the publication of her poems as collected, although many of them have been privately printed, and have a higher touch of poetical genius, perhaps, than those of any woman poet chronicled by Mr. Stedman, unless it be Helen Jackson and Emily Dickinson. A similar omission occurs in the case of David Wasson's profound poem, "All's Well," with its fine seventeenth-century flavor. The avoidance of these two suggests that, in spite of Mr. Stedman's inclusion of hymns as poetry (p. xvii), he may share Matthew Arnold's aversion to them. This may account for his failing to include Samuel Johnson's finest hymn, "Father, in Thy mysterious presence kneeling," and also those by Samuel Longfellow, Johnson's friend, and by James Freeman Clarke. Dr. Clarke also wrote a sea poem, "White-capt waves far round the ocean," which should have secured him a place here. A place should also have been given, it strikes us, to that old favorite in the school-books, Edward Everett's "Dirge of Attila," and to Dr. Samuel Gilman's "Fair Harvard," which is thus far the only really poetic American university song. John G. Saxe certainly did in his day something for the gayety of nations, for which he is mentioned in the previous volume, 'Poets of America,' and might well have appeared here. An older reader of the 'Anthology' will sometimes sigh over the disappearance of the Davidson sisters, but for this it is perhaps time.

As we have attributed Mr. Stedman's omission of certain poems in part to a slight disinclination for the didactic, so the solution of some inequalities in the biographical notes may be found by comparing this part of the volume with its predecessors. It is, for obvious reasons, nearly twice as ample in the biographical department as is the 'Victorian Anthology,' and also seems to apply itself in some directions to balance the distribution of fame in 'Poets of America.' It would be difficult to explain, for instance, why Mr. Stoddard should have more space allotted to him in this department than Holmes or Longfellow, and twice as much as Lowell, were it not that each of these authors had a chapter to himself in the earlier book, while Stoddard had not. The same might explain why Hovey should have more space than Holmes. Why more room should be allotted to Bayard Taylor than to any of his contemporaries, save Stoddard and Poe, remains a mystery.

Apart from the difficult question of the distribution of space, we find these biographical notes to be models, although we demur at the expression, borrowed from 'Congressional Memorials,' "received an academic education," for those who have merely studied at a country academy; and we also hesitate at the description of Poe as "the most famous Southern poet" (p. 816), inasmuch as he was born in Boston, and lived for most of his active life in the Middle States. Miss Josephine Peabody does not reside in Boston, but in Cambridge, Mass. Mr. Leland did not translate Heine's 'Pictures of Travels' (p. 806), but of 'Travel.' John Neal can by no means be called "the originator of the woman's-suffrage movement (p. 812), inasmuch as Charles Brockden Brown had published his 'Alcuin: A Dialogue on the Rights of Woman' in 1797, when Neal was but four years old; or the first to establish gymnasiums in America, since Dr. Follen had established one at Harvard College, about 1826, before Neal had returned from England.

Such minor inaccuracies are, however, absolutely inevitable in a work so extended, and the book must simply be pronounced a masterpiece of labor and execution, while Mr. Stedman's preface has that care and comprehensiveness which always marks his critical writing.

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Russia and the Russians. By Edmund Noble. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. Pp. v, 285.

Mr. Noble's 'Russia and the Russians' attempts too much—the entire history of the nation, physical, mental, and moral, from A to Z, and that in far too small a compass to do justice to any single branch of the subject. In the matter of accuracy, it is a most astonishing performance, on the part of so really competent a writer as Mr. Noble showed himself to be in his previous volume, 'The Russian Revolt' (1885). In his prefatory note he gives a long list of Russian authorities from whom he has drawn his materials, but the text itself would convey the impression that the office-boy had been commissioned to employ his spare moments in a careless compilation from the imperfect translation of Rambaud's 'History of Russia.' If that be not the true explanation, we should venture to remind Mr. Noble of the story told concerning a famous English bishop and a young man who had just taken holy orders. The young man besought the bishop to favor him with a helpful motto or foundation principle of conduct. The bishop replied, "Always verify your authorities." Had the author taken this simple precaution, he would have avoided many amazing errors which very seriously impair whatever value his book might otherwise possess as a handy-reference volume.

On p. 28 he makes Prince Vladimir fling the idols into the Volkhov, and locates the baptism of the Russians on their conversion to Christianity in the same river, which is at Novgorod. The scenes in question took place in the Dnyepr, at Kieff, six hundred miles south of Novgorod, as the crow flies. On p. 43 he speaks of the "Dime Church," using the French word minus its circumflex accent, with ludicrous effect. The Russian title, *Desyatinaya*, or the direct English translation, *tithes*, would have been infinitely preferable. However, this is a trifle in comparison with certain errors which follow. On p. 47, Mr. Noble states that the Tatar dominion was ended by Ivan the Terrible in 1480. What he refers to must be either the battle of Kulikovo, in 1380, under Dmitry Donskoy, which broke the Tartar rule; the "breaking of the Mongol yoke" (1480) by Ivan III., grandfather to Ivan the Terrible; or the capture of Kazan, in 1552, under Ivan the Terrible, who reigned from 1533 to 1584. On p. 65, he makes the first Romanoff Czar, Mikhail Feodorovitch, "a descendant of Ivan the Terrible." He was a nephew of Ivan the Terrible's first wife, cousin to the Czar Feodor Ivanovitch, Ivan's only descendant except Xenia, wife of Boris Godunoff (who died childless), and the Tsesarevitch Dmitry, murdered in early childhood by Godunoff. Again, a little care would have prevented the assertion on p. 77 (evidently copied literally from Rambaud's mistake), as to the motto of the Order founded by Peter the Great in honor of Catharine I. The motto is: "For Love and Fatherland." No Russian Order owns the motto given ("For Love and Fidelity"); but the Order of St. Andrew, founded by Peter I. in 1698, sixteen years earlier, bears the device: "For Faith and Loyalty" (or Fidelity). Passing over "Prince Anton Braunschweig" instead of "von Braunschweig"—or "of Brunswick," as this is an English book (p. 81)—we come to "Alexander Alexei Gregorovitch Razumovsky" (p. 91). Mr. Noble must be aware that Russians never own more than one baptismal name; and he should have known that the Empress Elizabeth's favorite-husband was named Alexei. Can he have consulted Mr. R. Nisbet Bain's 'The Daughter of Peter the Great,' recently noticed in these columns, in which Razumovsky is carelessly called by several names? On p. 124 he correctly assigns the Alliance of the Three Emperors to the year 1872; but in the next sentence fixes the Russo-Turkish war of 1877-78 "in the following year." On p. 125 he says that the serf was attached to the glebe in 1648. It happened half a century earlier. As the author is a sympathizer with the revolutionary movement, his book not only is strongly colored by his affiliations, but sometimes misleads by such sweeping statements as that on p. 144: "The new Russia of the sixties broke for ever with the . . . national church." That may be true so far as the revolutionary party is concerned, but it is not true, in any other sense, of "new Russia," which has not broken with the national church yet, and shows no signs of so doing. On p. 160 Maxim the Greek, who lived and worked in Russia at the translation of the Church service books from the Greek during the reign of Vasily Ivanovitch (1505-1533), is said to have caused the schism of the Old Believers (practically) by correcting these books in the reign of Alexei Mikhailovitch (1645-1676).

When such gross instances of carelessness abound on well-established historical points, despite the formidable array of Russian works referred to, what reliance can be placed upon statements which are matters of opinion, such as the attitude and wrongs of certain classes? The book is "machine-made," and not in Germany, for export, or it would have been at least more painstakingly accurate. We have had too many impressionist pictures, with hazy outlines, of Russian topics. Their day is past, and a healthy public taste for clearness has come.

Theodore Parker, Preacher and Reformer. By John White Chadwick. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Mr. Chadwick is well known as being on the whole the best critic, among the younger generation, in respect to the men and women of the "Transcendental" period. He comprehends their diversities of temperament, recognizes the attributes they held in common, and never confounds Emerson with Parker or Parker with Emerson. The defects of Weiss's biography of the great preacher were long since acknowledged, and Frothingham, with all his hearty comradeship, had yet been opposed to Parker in his own earlier and formative period, so that he had still a little youthful prejudice to overcome. Mr. Chadwick is entirely free from any such drawback. He fully recognizes the extraordinary change in the public mind which has put Parker almost in the position of a conservative instead of a radical. Mr. Chadwick's only limitation, perhaps, is that he is still a clergyman and a Unitarian, and hence gives a rather disproportionate allotment of his pages to Mr. Parker's early controversies with his brethren; these being matters which now interest comparatively few, and yet leave less space than might be desired for the national affairs which will give the most permanent interest to his name. It is sufficient indication of this that the chapter on "Anti-Slavery Word and Work" does not come until after the middle of the book (p. 235).

Apart from this question of proportion, we find no better study of personal character in any recent book, and it is based upon intimate study and ardent appreciation. Mr. Chadwick quotes a young man who said of Parker, "He was the only religious man I ever knew," and goes on to add, not too strongly (p. 219):

> "I have read hundreds of biographies, the majority those of religious thinkers and teachers, and I have nowhere encountered in the modern world a man whose religiousness has seemed to me so complete as Theodore Parker's, such a perpetual presence and delight, such an abiding strength and peace, such an abounding inspiration. I do not know of any other who believed so much, whose confidence was so robust, whose optimism was so undaunted."

He also quotes the testimony of the Rev. Dr. Donald, Phillips Brooks's successor, who writes: "I have been a great reader of Parker's writings, including his prayers, which to me, with the exception of one or two blemishes, are wonderful outpourings of a heart in the conscious presence of its Maker" (p. 217). Mr. Chadwick also sums up his whole description in the remarkable phrase used by Novalis of Luther—"He was an absolute man; in him soul and body were not divided."

We find but few points of detail on which to dissent from Mr. Chadwick. We had not supposed that Mr. Parker's pet name for his wife, "Bearsie," had either of the derivations which he suggests for it (p. 59), but that it came from a certain resemblance in her motions to a bear's walk. The name of "Potgeiser" (p. 163) should be Potgieser. It is hardly correct to say (p. 274) that Parker was not convinced that society would be a gainer by women's voting, inasmuch as he was more criticised than any other of their advocates for placing them, in his sermon on the "Public Function of Woman," in too exalted a position. It is doubtful whether he shared the highest honors of the lecturing field with the five leaders mentioned (p. 278), for, although he lectured ninety-eight times in his most active year, the net proceeds were only $1,783.96, an income probably not a quarter part of Gough's, who, moreover, is said to have spoken 386 times in his very first year. We cannot assent to Mr. Chadwick's spelling of the name of Parker's favorite imaginary society, which he certainly pronounced "'ciety" and not "sirty" (p. 295), nor can we agree that there was little of wit or humor in those imaginings, if we include, as we properly may, Parker's infinitely amusing imitations of deceased Unitarian ministers, in rendering their supposed messages from heaven. It would certainly have been possible to identify the lecturer Dr. Solger (p. 358) from the newspapers of the day. Again, when Mr. Chadwick says, "Even Sumner and Phillips, to the Beacon Street manner born, were frozen out of the society of which they were the brightest ornaments" (p. 309), he shows himself too young or too fortunate to appreciate the microscopic lines of social distinction which pervaded the little Boston of those days, and which fatally discriminated the son of the ex-Mayor from one who was only the son of "Sheriff Sumner." But we dwell on these items of criticism only to enhance the merits of a book which exhibits no greater drawbacks.

Paris of To-day. By Richard Whiteing. With pictures by André Castaigne. The Century Co. 4to, pp. 249.

Except for a few passing allusions, Mr. Whiteing has nothing to say of Dreyfus or the Exposition. Museums and monuments he leaves to Baedeker, nor does he dwell upon historic associations except of our own times. There still remains, however, an ample field. Mr. Whiteing writes as a man of the world, telling of the modes of life and thought of a foreign people, and especially intent to make clear their *manière d'envisager les choses*. He passes successively in review the machinery of government, the fashionable world, the sports and pastimes of rich and poor, the panorama of the Boulevard, and, finally, the Paris of letters and the arts. He shows himself a shrewd and sympathetic observer, familiar with the currents of Parisian feeling, appreciative of the best sides of French character, and moderate in criticism. If he occasionally allows himself a bit of quiet irony, it is still of a friendly sort. If he suggests that the all-night restaurants should be closed, the fortifications razed, and the Chamber of Deputies in some way prevented from too frequently upsetting ministries, these are the only changes in the established order that he directly recommends. What previous visitor has ever exercised such self-restraint? But we must remember that Mr. Whiteing has been rather a resident than a visitor.

The book is entertaining throughout. Mr. Whiteing draws many spirited pictures, and enlivens his pages with keen reflections. The reader who knows Paris from a vacation trip will find many of his impressions revived by the chapter on the Boulevard. Still more illuminating are Mr. Whiteing's exposition of the fixity of the bureaucratic machine ("As a piece of clockwork, it is one of the greatest of human inventions"), and his account of the French notion of athletic sport as "mainly social rather than mainly competitive," with rules aiming less at business-like procedure than at beauty and grace. A brief description of the needlessly famous cafés of Montmartre was perhaps inevitable, but Mr. Whiteing is not impressed; he understands the sham too well to be either impressed or scandalized.

The style of the book has sparkle and literary quality, with a felicity in the apt coinage of phrases, as where, lamenting the stiffly formal arrangement of the roadways through the forest of Fontainebleau, the author consoles himself that we cannot see the plan for the trees. Lapses from accuracy are rare, but the French name is Parc Monceau, not Parc *de* Monceau (p. 160), and the "Aoh, yes," popularly supposed to be the password of Englishry, is misprinted "Ach, yes" (p. 194).

Mr. Castaigne's illustrations furnish

excellent commentary on the text. His Parisian types are well rendered, and his scenes are full of characteristic life. The art-dealer's window, as seen from the inside, with the figures in the street viewed through the plate-glass of the shop-front, and the realistic night-scene which shows the crowd before the entrance of a music-hall, are among many striking successes, in which the initiated may enjoy verifying the details.

A History of Greece. Part III. From the Thirty Years' Peace to the Fall of the Thirty at Athens, 445-403 B. C. By Evelyn Abbott. London: Longmans, Green & Co.; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1900.

In bringing out the volumes of a history of Greece at long intervals, an author runs the risk of seeing the beginnings of his study grow old and unserviceable before he reaches the end. Part I. of Abbott's History, which extends from the earliest times to the Ionic revolt, published in 1888, already needs thorough revision in view of recent discoveries in archæology as well as in other fields. In Part II., which comes down to the Peace of 445 B. C., the author reaches firmer historical ground, less subject to change under the influence of research; and in the present volume he enjoys the advantage of treating the best-known period of Greek history. With Thucydides for a leading authority, the historian of the Peloponnesian war may feel confident of the main facts. And Mr. Abbott has not lost his opportunity; in this volume he appears so painstaking and scholarly that the reader finds few errors of statement. On p. 11 the author assumes that Pericles suppressed the Delian Synod. Is it not as reasonable to suppose that this institution failed through neglect of the allies to send deputies? Or what is to prove that it did not come to an end before the supremacy of Pericles? Again, on p. 16, the author's assertion that "the Tyrrhenians had been beaten back for a time," implies that they again assailed the Greeks—certainly a mistaken idea.

Such criticisms, however, should weigh little in our general estimate of the work. Throughout the volume there is every appearance of mature, sober judgment, and of a desire to be fair. Often in disputed questions the author judicially presents arguments on both sides, and leaves the reader to draw his own conclusions. But occasionally Mr. Abbott has omitted facts which would tell strongly against the view he seems to favor. For instance, he gives us to understand that, had it not been for the imperialism of Athens, the Ægean cities would have been free (p. 12). Nothing can be more certain, however, than that they would soon have been reconquered by Persia; or, escaping that evil, the masses would everywhere have become slaves of the oligarchs. "Athens was detested by Greece," he says, "for the same reason that Pisistratus was detested by the Athenians." In offering this apt analogy, he should have informed the reader that those Athenians who detested Pisistratus were doubtless a few of the nobles who wished to exercise all the political power themselves. As there is good evidence that most of the Athenians were satisfied with Pisistratus, we have reason to assume that a majority in the allied states welcomed Athenian rule as a protection against oligarchic oppression at home. The common man was not so sensitive on the subject of autonomy as historians have usually imagined. Enough has been said to indicate that, though outwardly fair, Mr. Abbott's treatment of the Athenian Empire is extremely one-sided. The same criticism generally applies to his attitude toward democratic statesmen and institutions. It is not that he is intentionally partial; rather he has not acquired the habit of taking the common people into account.

Mr. Abbott is conservative. Though he introduces some fresh material from inscriptions and from literature, he studiously avoids novelties; we must not look to him for the most recent view of men and institutions. His admiration for the Greeks is strictly limited; he betrays no enthusiasm for Pericles, for the Athenian democracy, or indeed for anything. If we hope he will warm up a little over the Sicilian expedition, we are disappointed. While he quotes some vigorous passages from Thucydides, he himself moves through the great tragedy with unruffled calm. And when he prepares to tell Xenophon's story of the fall of Athens, he first carefully removes from it all traces of tears.

Serenity, if not especially attractive, is no grave fault. In fact, if we accept Mr. Abbott's limited view of politics and society, we shall find his work admirable. Though lacking in spirit, the language is elegant and clear; and the well-proportioned narrative includes nearly everything essential to a good knowledge of the subject treated. Few will wish to read any one of the volumes through, but all students of ancient Greece will find this history an excellent and unusually reliable work of reference.

The Devil and the Vice in the Early English Dramatic Literature before Shakespeare. By L. W. Cushman. Halle: Niemeyer. (Morsbach's *Studien zur Englischen Philologie*, Heft VI.).

Professor Cushman has written a monograph of unusual interest and value. It brings together, in an orderly arrangement, a great amount of detailed information, and it subjects current views to frank and dignified criticism. For a subject that has been so long and so laboriously investigated, the history of the English drama is in a parlous state. In fact, it must be rewritten from the beginning if anything like certainty is to be arrived at. Every student knows how untrustworthy most of the regular "authorities" are. There is hardly any literary sin that they have not committed. Not the least of their offences is their parrot-like repetition of the blunders or the unsupported assertions of their predecessors. Another exasperating fault—now very prevalent in some quarters—is the habit of identifying quite distinct phenomena by virtue of insignificant traits that they happen to possess in common. There is no remedy for these abuses except in the encouragement of exacter methods than those which have hitherto prevailed. A certain amount of pedantry will no doubt accompany these methods, especially at the outset; but the gain will be worth the price. Professor Cushman's treatise is an intelligent attempt to conduct a minute investigation in a regular manner, and to arrive at such results as the evidence may warrant, and no others.

He finds that many writers have confused the devil of the religious plays with the "vice" of the moralities, and have held that from the latter character were developed the fools and villains of the later drama. After sifting the evidence with infinite labor, he arrives at a very different conclusion: "The devil, Vice, clown, fool, and villain are parallel characters of quite independent origin and function." With this categorical statement we cannot entirely agree. It seems to blink a very important principle of literary development—the principle of continuity. It is inconceivable that any influence once operative in a particular department of literature should perish without bequeathing something to the times that follow. Thus, though it is certainly a mistake to maintain that Shakspere's fools owe their actual origin to the "vice" of the moral plays, it is idle to deny that this same "vice" was one of the ancestors of the Feste of Twelfth Night. However, the conclusions that Professor Cushman arrives at are much nearer the truth than the assertions of his predecessors, and no student of our early drama can get along without his book.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbey, Henry. Phaëthon, with Three Other Stories in Verse. Kingston: Styles & Kiersted. 75 cents.

Albee, Helen R. Mountain Playmates. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.

Armstrong, Sir Walter. Sir Joshua Reynolds. London: William Heinemann; New York: Scribners. $25.

Beverly Town Documents. (The Publication of the Selden Society.) Vol. xiv. London: Bernard Quaritch.

Bixby, J. T. The Ethics of Evolution. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. $1.25.

Bruce, R. I. The Forward Policy and its Results. Longmans, Green & Co.

Childe-Pemberton, William S. The Baroness de Bode. Longmans, Green & Co. 12s. 6d.

Connelley, W. E. John Brown. Topeka: Crane & Co. $1.

Corbett, J. S. The Successors of Drake. Longmans, Green & Co.

De Bazancourt, Baron. Secrets of the Sword. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $3.

Dorr, L. S. The Mills of the Gods. A. S. Barnes & Co. $1.

Doyle, A. Conan. The Great Boer War. McClure, Phillips & Co. $1.50.

Fore! Life's Book for Golfers. Life Publishing Co.

Fowler, Ellen T. Cupid's Garden. D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.

Gray, Elisha. Electricity and Magnetism. (Nature's Miracles, Vol. iii.). Fords, Howard & Hulbert.

Griffis, W. E. Verbeck of Japan. Fleming H. Revell Co. $1.50.

Heredia, José-Maria de. The Trophies: Sonnets. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. $2.50.

Herford, Oliver. Overheard in a Garden, etc. Scribners. $1.25.

Huxley, Leonard. Life and Letters of Thomas Henry Huxley. 2 vols. D. Appleton & Co. $5.

Hyde, Solon. A Captive of War. McClure, Phillips & Co. $1.

John Drew as Richard Carvel. Souvenir. R. H. Russell.

Jókai, Maurus. The Day of Wrath. McClure, Phillips & Co. $1.25.

Keith, G. S. On Sanitary and Other Matters. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan. $1.

Korschelt, E. and Heider, K. Text-Book of the Embryology of Invertebrates Vol. iv. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $4.

Lear, Edward. The Pelican Chorus. Frederick Warne & Co. $1.25.

Lee, Sidney. Shakespeare's Life and Work. New and abridged ed. Macmillan. 80c.

Leroy-Beaulieu, P. The Awakening of the East. McClure, Phillips & Co. $1.50.

Macleod, Mary. The Book of King Arthur and his Noble Knights. London: Wells Gardner, Darton & Co.

Mahan, A. T. The Problem of Asia and its Effect upon International Policies. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $2.

Maher, Michael. Psychology: Empirical and Rational. New ed. Longmans, Green & Co.

Martin, W. A. P. The Siege in Pekin: China against the World. Fleming H. Revell Co.

Mathew, Frank. Love of Comrades. John Lane.

Nicholson, Meredith. The Hoosiers. Macmillan. $1.25.

Pickering, Edgar. The Dogs of War. Frederick Warne & Co. $1.50.

Porter, Alma F. Nigger Baby and Nine Beasts. Ess Ess Pub. Co.

Porter, Charlotte, and Clarke, Helen A. The Complete Works of Elizabeth Barrett Browning. 6 vols. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. $4.50.

Riley, James Whitcomb. Home-Folks. Indianapolis: The Bowen-Merrill Co.

Riverside Biographical Series: (1) More, P. E. Benjamin Franklin; (2) How, Louis. James B. Eads; (3) Brown, W. G. Andrew Jackson. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 75 cents.

Robinson, W. C. British Poets of the Revolution Age. Belfast: Olley & Co.
Rogers, Robert William. A History of Babylonia and Assyria. 2 vols. Cincinnati: Jennings & Pye; New York: Eaton & Mains. $5.
Sangster, Margaret E. Winsome Womanhood. Fleming H. Revell Co. $1.25.
Sellers, J. F. An Elementary Treatise on Qualitative Chemical Analysis. Boston: Ginn & Co. 80 cents.
Shields, C. W. The Scientific Evidences of Religion (The Bishop Paddock Lectures for 1900). Scribners. $1.50.
Shinn, M. W. The Biography of a Baby. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Sime, James. William Herschel and his Work. Scribners. $1.25.
Snyder, W. H., and Palmer, I. Ó. One Thousand Problems in Physics. Boston: Ginn & Co. 55 cents.
Stitson, J. R. The Human Hair: Its Care and Preservation. The Maple Pub. Co.
St. John, M. Things a Boy Should Know about Electricity. T. M. St. John.
Stratemeyer, Edward. On to Pekin. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.25.
Sutherland, H. V. Jacinta, and Other Verses. Doxey's.
Swete, H. B. An Introduction to the Old Testament in Greek. London: C. J. Clay & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $2.50.
Temple Classics: (1) The Romance of the Rose; (2) Macaulay's Essays. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 50c. each.
Tennyson, Alfred. The Day Dream. John Lane. 50c.
The Cozy Corner Series: (1) Sleight, C. L. The Water People; (2) Fellows-Johnston, Annie. The Story of Dago; (3) Saunders, Marshall. For his Country. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. 50 cents each.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 6, 1900.

The Week.

Secretary Gage's report is rather barren of suggestion this year, but it can not be said that any subject of current interest is neglected. He recommends reduction of the revenue by $30,000,000 He suggests additional legislation to enable the Secretary to maintain parity between silver money and gold money, and he hints that the bank-note currency is far from perfect, that it does not adapt itself to the changing requirements of trade; its volume being governed not by the requirements of business, but by the price of Government bonds. He goes in for ship-subsidies like a good Administration man, and he makes some minor suggestions of more or less value. The tone of the report is that of a man who finds his affairs going well, with a comfortable balance on the right side of the ledger, and who is disposed to take things easy. The principal item in the Secretary's report is the statement of receipts and expenditures. One year ago he estimated that the fiscal year ending June 30, 1900, would show a surplus of $40,000,000. It turns out to be within a small fraction of $80,000,000, and it happens in this instance that three-fourths of the error was in an underestimate of receipts. The estimate in the last report for the year 1901 was a deficit of $18,000,000. The present estimate for 1901 is a surplus of $80,000,000. This large surplus brings up the question whether a reduction of taxes to the amount of only $30,000,000 is sufficient to meet the present exigency. Looking at the temptation to subsidies and jobs which a large surplus presents to the appetite of the cormorants who always hover around Congress, we think that the time is ripe for a tax-reduction of $40,000,000, if not more.

There is a necessarily comic air about the President's pious hope that Congress will be economical. Coming on the heels of recommendations that call for needless millions, and coupled with the well-known fact that McKinley would no more veto an extravagant appropriation bill than he would try to fly from the White House to the Capitol, it will induce Congressmen only to exchange solemn winks, and then fall to legislating that surplus out of the Treasury in as neat and speedy and thorough-going a fashion as possible. How intent the eye of Congress is on the main chance, we may see by the indecent haste with which the Shipping-Subsidy Bill has been thrust to the front. The President asks for Philippine legislation by Congress, and the prompt response of the "steering committee" is the displacement of the Spooner Philippine resolutions by the Subsidy Bill, which is to have right of way in the Senate from now on.

Mr. G. Weaver Loper of Philadelphia writes a very strong letter to the *Times* against the Ship-Subsidy scheme. He treats the subject like a man who understands both navigation and shipbuilding. It has been often pointed out that the subsidy-hunters are doing a good business now, and that the demand for additional money from the public treasury is merely to pay them twice over for earning their own living; as though this were such a meritorious act when performed on shipboard that it ought not to go unrecognized and unrewarded. Mr. Loper touches up this precious scheme as follows:

> "They request that the United States Government shall expend the sum of $9,000,000 per annum for the purpose of increasing the profits of ships already in existence and now under contract to be constructed, both in this country and in Europe; and it might be well to bear in mind that all of such contracts must now be carried to completion irrespective of the fate that might befall the Ship Subsidy Bill. The pretence, therefore, that the purpose of the bill is to promote an increase of American merchant shipping is one which hardly rises to the dignity of a fairly disguised bunco-game. The real effect of its passage would be a mere bounty upon property owned or contracted for."

He then applies a deserved lash to the back of Mr. Chamberlain, the Commissioner who opposed subsidies during the Cleveland Administration, when the shipping interest was much poorer than it is to-day, but now has the effrontery to tell us that our shipbuilders need help from the Treasury because the principal element of cost in their trade is steel—as though we could not compete with foreigners in producing this raw material of the shipbuilding art, while we are actually sending steel to England from furnaces situated on the other side of the Alleghanies. Mr. Loper points out also that those shipbuilders are even now appropriating to themselves the subsidy as a part of their own profits, by charging for new ships not merely the cost and a fair profit, but the sum on which the buyers will be able to earn interest if the Subsidy Bill passes. Why should they not do so? They have more orders for ships than they can fill. Why should they not pocket all that the subsidy act will enable them to charge?

Every sign of awakened conscience on the subject of our national disgrace, the lynching habit, is surely to be welcomed; and the Chicago protest on Thanksgiving Day was of good augury. But the eagerness to get the President to "refer to the matter in his message to Congress" was disconcerting. Did not the movers of the resolutions know that a President's message is the graveyard of pious sentiments—that it rivals the abode of the lost in being paved with good intentions? If you want Congressmen utterly to disregard any given aspect of public morality, get the President urgently to call their attention to it. Very likely there was also, in this curious desire to induce the President to take official notice of lynching, a vague feeling that, in this way, we might salve our consciences. A sin officially deprecated can scarcely be charged up against us. We will stay the recording angel's hand by reminding him that our Chief Magistrate really wishes we would be good. As for the President's going beyond a gentle aspiration, and actually recommending anti-lynching legislation, that was, of course, out of the question. The only place in which the United States, as a nation, can intervene to protect the lives of black men is in the Philippines. Our soldiers there habitually describe their present occupation as "nigger-killing." That the President can order stopped; he can do nothing to punish negro-slayers in Colorado or the South.

Sifting out truth from rumor in all the talk about a treaty with Nicaragua for the construction of a canal, it is clear that all that Secretary Hay can have done is to prepare the way for action after the Hay-Pauncefote treaty shall have been ratified. Till that step is taken, our hands are tied. The Administration is absolutely committed to the binding force of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, till modified or abrogated. To say, therefore, that Mr. Hay has made a treaty with Nicaragua which the Clayton-Bulwer treaty binds him not to make, would be to say that he has been trifling with the national honor. If the Hay-Pauncefote treaty were ratified, we might then honorably and properly enter into an agreement with Nicaragua, or Colombia, for the policing of a canal built through the territory of either. It is, we are convinced, only a tentative arrangement of such a nature, to become operative solely in the future, which the Secretary of State has effected. More we could not ask, more neither Nicaragua nor Colombia could give. They are as much inhibited as we are by treaty from doing what they are loosely said to have done. The condition previous to any rational action about an Isthmian canal of any kind anywhere is approval of the Hay-Pauncefote treaty. All roads lead to that conclusion. Secretary Hay has simply taken precautionary steps so as to be able to say exactly what can be done in the canal business after we get the right to do anything.

As it now stands, the Administration's Army Bill is a perfect type of the hasty and ill-digested legislation which is coming to be more and more characteristic of Congress. Almost the only plain things about it are that the greatest period of expansion in its history is at hand for the army, and that some 70,000 men are needed on the Philippine firing lines. Of the Filipinos themselves, some 12,000 are to be recruited under this bill to help us shoot down their brethren, and the Porto Rico regiment is to be retained, provision being made for native officers up to the rank of major. To make up for Mr. McKinley's failure to do his duty and dismiss the foul-mouthed Commissary-General Eagan, the bill contains a provision which will permit the latter's retirement on three-quarters pay. So many will be the promotions under this proposed law that the grades of first lieutenant and second lieutenant will be emptied of their present incumbents—a fact which will doubtless help to reconcile many legislators to our coming heavy military burdens. To fill the vacancies recourse will first be had to the present volunteer officers, who are, fortunately for the army, to be examined before appointment. After this list is exhausted will come the deluge of sons and cousins of politicians who are fortunate in their pulls.

Of true army reform, there is scarce a trace in the bill as it now stands after changes made by the House Military Committee. Secretary Root not only failed to strike a blow at the real evils of the staff organization by recommending the consolidation and reduction of the present topheavy departments, but actually included in his measure additional officers for every one of them, thus turning his back completely on the best European methods and traditions. He did recommend the adoption of the staff-and-line transfer principle, for which he deserves all credit, and in an emasculated and weakened form this still remains. The reinstatement of the permanent tenure system for bureau chiefs by the Committee is inexcusable in view of the Eagan episode and the navy's happy experience with the opposite plan. Secretary Root had wisely confined the appointment of volunteers to the grade of second lieutenant. The Committee's decision that the President shall have the right to appoint volunteers to any rank in the army is another triumph for the political soldiers, and will be received with groans wherever trained regular officers are stationed. If the bill passes in its present form the country will pay heavily for it, not only in taxes, but in the possession of a political army, over-officered and in many places badly officered. It means simply the enlargement of an antiquated, inefficient machine, with an intensification of nearly every one of its now well-proved defects.

The growing tendency of Congress to shirk responsibility by shifting it on to the President's shoulders is perhaps the most alarming sign of the decay of republican government noted for a long time. The Republican Philadelphia *Ledger* sees in it a real ground for the charge of Imperialism, and finds it "shocking testimony" to the ability of Jingoism to lead us away from the spirit which should actuate men of republican beliefs living in a democracy. It does not believe that Mr. McKinley will abuse the privileges given to him, but it rightly fears the result of setting such an un-American precedent as to confer on him, respecting the size of our army, greater power than the German Emperor's, who cannot add a single soldier to his army. A proof of this is that the Reichstag has been teeming with protests during the past month against the unauthorized dispatch of a volunteer East Asiatic corps to China, and the defenders of the German Constitution have been outspoken in their attack upon this violation of its sanctity, using the very same arguments which apply to our own case. What a change has come over the spirit of our institutions when those who stand for its organic law can make common cause with the most liberal subjects of what we have so long considered a "down-trodden" monarchy! It is already "feared" in Administration circles in Washington that Congress may, after all, limit the President's power to raise armies to two years. We trust that it will not even give him this power for two days.

The War Department's Division of Insular Affairs has issued the annual report of the army officer in charge of the licensing of saloons in Manila. From this it appears that between February 1 and June 30, 1900, the number of licensed saloons was reduced from 224 to 155, including hotels and restaurants. The cause of this was a large increase in the cost of licenses, and it is certainly gratifying to hear that this same reason and the fear of the loss of their privileges made the barrooms more orderly and saloon-keepers more careful in complying with the law. There are none the less many persons who are of the opinion that 155 saloons are still far too large a number for a city as full of troops as is Manila, if their health and welfare are to be considered, as well as their relations to the natives, to whom drunkenness is an inexcusable vice. Some of the disadvantages of the American saloon in the tropics are set forth in the San Juan (Porto Rico) *News* of November 10, from which it appears that the casualties in "Sam" Owens's and W. H. Beers's places on the previous night were one killed and seven wounded. All the participants were Americans except two policemen who had their heads smashed, and one whose leg was broken by a bullet. Murderer and murdered were Americans, and in Owens's saloon the fight was between infantrymen and artillerymen. The actual details could not be obtained before going to press, the *News* reports, as all concerned in the row were "considerably the worse" for liquor. It would be unfair to assume that such occurrences are daily ones in either Manila or San Juan. But in view of the feeling of contempt and disgust of both Filipinos and Porto Ricans for drunkards of any nationality, such happenings attain a serious character, and our military authorities in Manila will be more than justified if they take steps to prevent similar demonstrations of the benefit of a higher civilization, by largely reducing the existing rumshops.

It is, to put the case no more strongly, an ungracious policy for the Government to "hold up" a benefaction on its way to an organization of public utility. The Federal inheritance tax, which is bad enough when it reaches only gifts of money, is doubly burdensome when it affects bequests other than in cash or securities. It is here that the museums suffer. The bequest of a collection of pictures becomes an immediate draft upon the general fund, so much so that the very largeness of a gift may prevent its acceptance. How, for instance, the Metropolitan Museum is to pay a tax estimated at $37,000 on the pictures bequeathed to it by the late R. G. Dun, does not appear. What is clear is the injustice of a law that forces such an institution into the position of a purchaser at a bargain sale every time that it receives a considerable bequest. A clause exempting such institutions from the inheritance tax is urgently required, and the museums of the country look to Congress for prompt relief.

It has long been felt that the Territory of Oklahoma would soon press its claim to Statehood; it has been generally recognized, too, that the future of the newest Territory is bound up with that of the adjoining Indian Territory. That this identity of interest is fully recognized by the parties chiefly concerned, is shown by the call for a joint convention of the two Territories, at which the question of separate or united appeal for Statehood will be considered. Oklahoma has already a population large enough to constitute a State, but it is obvious that the Indian Territory ought to constitute a part of the new commonwealth. Opposition to this plan will come not so much from Oklahoma as from the Indian Territory, where there is natural jealousy of the flourishing settlement that has grown up almost overnight in the vacant lot of the Five Nations. There is a feeling, too, that the more prosperous Territory must profit most by the union. Such considerations, however, should weigh little with the Indian Territory against the anomalous condition in which it now finds itself. Since the Curtiss bill abolished the old tribal governments, the Indian Territory, which had enjoyed an excellent government of its own, has reverted temporarily to the condition of a great reservation ruled by appointive officers. Such a condition of things is not only humiliating, but also practically inconvenient, and there is little doubt that the Indians will welcome Statehood on almost any terms.

Mr. Bryan, in his new rôle as writer for the magazines, informs us in the December *North American Review* that the election was "not necessarily conclusive upon any question." Granting this, if we must, we may yet insist that it was conclusive upon one personality. It demonstrated beyond a peradventure that W. J. Bryan is a very poor vote-getter. East and West he ran behind his own ticket. Democratic candidates for Governor beat him by thousands of votes in New York and Connecticut, in Illinois and Minnesota. Democratic Congressmen left him far in the rear. Now this may be wholly deplorable. Mr. Bryan may be a weak candidate through a cruel misunderstanding of his personality. He may be suffering like Aristides from being too just. But the fact is that he did suffer personal repudiation at the polls; that he was a weak candidate, weaker than his party. And no party can be expected to go into Presidential election after Presidential election simply for the sake of making a flourish. The time will come when party managers will cast about seriously to command party success; and then they will drop Mr. Bryan, for they will perceive that, with him, success cannot be had. This was settled in the last election, whether anything else was or not.

To a man of Mr. Chamberlain's pride, it must have been galling to have to confess that he had, despite his denials, been connected (unwittingly, he says) with a company interested in Government contracts. His assertion in the House was that neither directly nor indirectly had he any such interest. It was proved, later, that his family were the controlling stockholders in a great contracting firm, Kynochs & Co., having large dealings with the Admiralty. His wife, his son, his brother, and a lot of dummy clerk-stockholders from his office were the majority interest in that corporation; yet Mr. Chamberlain, with Roman firmness, disowned his own kith and kin by avowing that he had not even an indirect interest in their investments. But the public saw a kind of rough truth in Mr. Labouchere's assertion in a public speech, "If Mr. Chamberlain were in the dock, where he probably ought to be, he would be known as Chamberlain, alias Kynochs." And there are other unpleasant revelations concerning the financial connection of the Colonial Secretary with companies affected by Government action. He was a stockholder in the Niger Company, lately bought out by the Crown. He is interested in a Ceylon land company, and the wicked are noting it as a curious coincidence that prisoners of war are sent to Ceylon. The Hon. Joseph may be as innocent as a babe in all these matters, but he is singularly unlucky in having so many of them come out. He will be asked ugly questions about them in the Commons, and cannot always say that he is attacked only because he is the great pillar of the Empire. The parallel between Blaine's career and that of Chamberlain has often been remarked; it would be strange if the latter's loss of public esteem should also result from his having seen too many official "channels in which he might be useful."

When so conservative and influential an organ of opinion as the London *Statist* lifts up its voice against the policy of extermination in South Africa, and calls for some honorable compromise with the burghers still in arms, we may be sure that it utters the unexpressed thoughts of many Englishmen. The war has already cost $500,000,000. The force with which the War Office at first proposed to conquer the two republics has been increased eightfold, and the end is apparently as far away as ever, if unconditional surrender is to be insisted upon. Where the mistake was made was after Roberts had taken Pretoria and Buller had driven the Boers out of Natal. Botha and De Wet then asked for terms, but the British Generals, under orders from London, replied that no terms but unconditional surrender could be admitted. That was a very un-English blunder. Always before, in the history of modern British colonization, English statesmen have been only too glad, after whipping a force in the field against them, to come to a speedy agreement with the native leaders, utilizing them in the work of administration when possible. But now the Dutch are treated with more unbending truculence than Indian rajahs or Malay chiefs.

"Letters from the Huns" (*Hunnenbriefe*) was the general title which Herr Richter, with mordant satire, gave to the letters of German soldiers in China which he read out in the Reichstag. Their tale of rapine and slaughter was, indeed, gruesome, but it is probable that the civilized world will be left even more aghast by the news of the latest official looting in Pekin. It appears that the astronomical instruments, some of them with superb mountings of bronze, which have been for more than two centuries, ever since they were erected by the Jesuits, one of the glories of the Pekin Observatory, are already packed for shipment to Berlin and Paris. The other Powers are said to have protested against this act of the German and French commanders, whether because they consider it vandalism, or because they did not get their fair share of the plunder, might seem a little doubtful. But even Dr. Morrison, who has all along advocated severe measures in order to "teach the Chinese a lesson," protests in his dispatches to the *Times* that this is not the lesson which the Chinese need. We should hope not. A higher civilization which begins the work of educating a lower by robbing it of what few instruments and symbols of culture it possesses, might as well be, but for the name, a set of howling savages. Napoleon was franker, Lord Elgin was more honest, in stripping Spain and Greece of art treasures. They indulged in no mummeries about the blessings of civilization, but said simply that they wanted the paintings and the marbles, and took them without more ado. Gen. Waldersee has now given the practical comment on the saying of the German Chancellor, "We desire our share in what is to be won from China."

The most humiliating aspect of this course of stealing and butchery in China is that it has been followed by nations which had scarcely done vowing, in the Hague Conference, that they would never do anything of the kind. The declarations there made concerning the laws of war asserted that prisoners of war "must be humanely treated." We know what the Russians have done in Mantchuria; and German soldiers have written that they had been ordered to bayonet batch after batch of prisoners "in order to save cartridges." As for the practice of pillage, the Hague Conference was explicit in condemnation. It specifically reprobated the seizure, destruction, or damaging of religious, charitable, or educational institutions. In the light of this prohibition, the razing of temples and now the looting of the Pekin Observatory must make China thankful that she at least did not sign the final act at The Hague. That hypocrisy she might well be content to leave to the Powers who went out from the Conference to violate straightway their solemn agreements.

THE PRESIDENT'S MESSAGE.

The President's message, after the usual introductory clauses on the blessings of self-government, takes up the Chinese question as the dominant one in our relations with foreign Powers. It first gives a narrative sketch of the Boxer outbreak and of the attack upon the legations at Pekin. It is interesting to note that practically the President supports the contention expressed by Sir Robert Hart in the *Fortnightly Review*, that the great peril into which the legations were thrown was caused by the bombardment of the Taku forts by the allied fleet, in which the United States forces did not join. Thereupon the legations were ordered by the Chinese authorities to leave Pekin within twenty-four hours under a promised escort. They asked for more time, and also asked for an interview with the Tsung-Li Yamen. As an immediate answer was not returned, Baron von Ketteler, the German Minister, set out for the Yamen to obtain a response and was murdered on the way to the palace.

This is nearly identical with Sir Robert Hart's account of the origin of the trouble, as regards the Chinese Government, and it shows conclusively that, until the allied fleet bombarded the forts, the outbreak was in the nature of a riot. After that event the Chinese uniformed troops took part in the attack on the legations under their regular officers, and members of the Tsung-Li Yamen who counselled protection to foreigners were beheaded. In notable contrast to the action of the Government at Pekin was the friendly action of the Viceroys of the southern and eastern provinces, who made every exertion to preserve peace and to protect all foreigners within their jurisdiction.

The policy of the United States, the message shows, has been a consistent effort to allay the evil in China, not to aggravate it. To this end our military forces were withdrawn as soon as the legations were properly safeguarded, and the Russian proposal for the restoration of the Imperial Government at Pekin was agreed to by us. The President "favorably inclines" also to the Russian proposal that, in the event of protracted divergence among the Powers as to the indemnities to be exacted from China, the matter be referred to the Court of Arbitration at The Hague. If this may be construed as an acceptance by us of the principle of arbitration touching this matter, it is the most important step yet taken toward final settlement. We are sure that it will be approved by the majority of the people of the United States, as the general policy of the Administration in China has been heretofore.

The announcement is made that ratification of the Hague treaty has been given by the United States, Austria, Belgium, Denmark, England, France, Germany, Italy, Persia, Portugal, Rumania, Russia, Siam, Spain, Sweden and Norway, the Netherlands, and Japan. As arbitrators under the treaty, the President has appointed ex-President Harrison, Chief-Justice Fuller, Attorney-General Griggs, and the Hon. George Gray to represent this country.

Taking the lynching of Italians at Tallulah as a text, the President renews his recommendation that Federal courts have jurisdiction in international cases where the ultimate responsibility of the Federal Government may be involved. The President advises in conclusion that Congress make provision for indemnity to these Italian sufferers in the same form and proportion as heretofore. He improves the occasion to repeat the words of a previous message that "lynching must not be tolerated in a great and civilized country like the United States," but does not suggest any method of putting an end to it.

The most important question in our foreign relations next to the Chinese affair, and perhaps more important than that, relates to the Isthmian Canal and the pending Hay-Pauncefote treaty. The President passes over this subject lightly, and does not commit himself to anything. He says that overtures from Nicaragua "for a convention to effect the building of a canal under the auspices of the United States are under consideration," but he thinks that they may be properly postponed to await the report of the commission appointed to examine the comparative merits of the various trans-Isthmian ship-canal projects. The Hay-Pauncefote treaty is rather dryly "commended to the early attention of the Senate."

Coming to domestic affairs, the first subject considered is that of finance. The recommendation of most importance under this head is one which has been urged in our columns, that the defect in the Act of March 14, 1900, shall be cured so that it shall be really a Gold-Standard Act. "Whatever further legislation is needed to insure the continued parity, under all conditions, of our two forms of metallic money, silver and gold," he considers it the duty of Congress to supply. He recommends a reduction of internal-revenue taxes by the sum of $30,000,000, and especially points out the legacy tax on bequests to public institutions as one to be wholly removed.

He refers to our remarkable progress in steel-manufacturing and ship-building as reasons for adopting a policy of ship subsidies, which he says will increase transportation facilities and reduce freight charges in the vast volume of products brought from the interior to the seaboard for export. The curious logic of this part of the message we shall deal with hereafter.

The Philippine question is treated on the same lines as heretofore. The President puts the responsibility of determining the future status of the islands wholly upon Congress, and says that until Congress takes definite action he has no alternative but to enforce the laws of the United States and put down the insurrection. He alludes without comment to the fact that Congress has hitherto neglected to take any action whatever, and says that although the military arm must be supreme while opposition to our rule exists in the islands, he has nevertheless sought to establish local self-government by peaceful means. He thinks that favorable progress to this end has been made, and says that we exercise "general control" over the islands, which is interrupted only in places by a guerrilla warfare that begets a feeling of insecurity among the inhabitants.

The work of the Taft Commission is adverted to. Late reports from the Commissioners, he says, "show an encouraging advance toward insuring the benefits of liberty and good government to the Filipinos in the interest of humanity and with the aim of building up an enduring, self-supporting, and self-administering community in those far Eastern seas." How far this information differs from that part of the report of Gen. MacArthur which deals with the same subject, everybody who has read the latter document knows. Gen. MacArthur said that most of the towns where we have organized municipal governments have secretly organized complete insurgent municipal governments proceeding simultaneously and in the same sphere as the American governments, and in many instances through the same personnel. This contrariety of action he attributes to a "peculiar psychological condition" of the Filipinos. In other countries it would be called love of liberty.

The President concludes with one of his most nauseous and characteristic phrases, viz.:

> "Our growing power brings with it temptations and perils requiring constant vigilance to avoid. It must not be used to invite conflicts, nor for oppression, but for the more effective maintenance of those principles of equality and justice upon which our institutions and happiness depend. Let us keep always in mind that the foundation of our Government is liberty; its superstructure peace."

And let us not lose sight of the fact that we are now calling for 100,000 troops and spending $100,000,000 per year to extend our sway over an unwilling people on the other side of the globe, not to promote liberty or peace, equality or justice, but commercial expansion so called—that is, in order to make money for our own pockets, which there is not the smallest probability that we shall ever get.

THE CHARTER REVISION.

The reception by the public of the Charter Commission's report is as favorable as could be expected. It would be impossible for any body of fifteen men to attempt so difficult and delicate a task, and reach conclusions which would command unquestioning support from all classes in a city of three and a half million people. The most that could possibly be hoped for would be a general recognition of the non-partisan spirit which has characterized the work, and an equally general endorsement of the wisdom manifested in some of the most important recommendations. This we already see, and discussion can only strengthen the tendency to accept the main conclusions of the Commission as sound.

The principle of centralizing responsibility, which underlies some of the most radical changes, is one that must be accepted before we can secure reforms which are urgently needed. The Mayor now has the power to remove officials only during the first eighth of his four years' term. He may get rid of every head of department whom he finds in office during his first six months, but if he discovers, a year later, that he has made a bad mistake in some selection of his own, he cannot get rid of the offender. The Commission rightly advise that he shall enjoy the power of removal at all times. They propose also that his appointees shall hold office without definite term. Having thus made the position even more influential than it now is, they would have him hold office for four years. There is much to be said for a system under which a bad Mayor may be got out of office in two years, but it is urged with great force that the people are more likely to elect a good Mayor if they realize that he will wield his power for a long term.

The provision for a single-headed Police Commission is another application of the same principle of undivided responsibility. The existing "bi-partisan" system has been tried a great while, and it has always worked badly. The single-headed Police Department was tried for many years in Brooklyn before consolidation, and it was successful. The present régime is so offensive that neither Tammany nor the Republican machine has been inclined for some time past to defend it. The provision that the Chief of Police may be selected by the Commissioner outside of the force is wise, but the requirement of the Mayor's approval for the removal of that official by the Commissioner is an exception to the rule of undivided responsibility. We suppose that the explanation must be the feeling of the Commission that the position of Chief of Police is so important that such a change should not be made without the consent of the Executive, but that argument would seem to apply as well to the original choice of a chief, and here the Commissioner is wisely given sole power.

The Commission report that all who expressed an opinion on the subject were opposed to the perpetuation of the present two-chambered Municipal Council. Here again the professional politicians have been forced by the test of experience to change their ground, and it would stagger an "organization" man in either party to make an effective plea for the maintenance of the existing system. The Commission recommend that the one legislative body which they would substitute shall be much larger than the present Board of Aldermen, and that its power shall be increased. The first impression of most students of such problems would probably be against so large a Board as the 123 provided for, and experience with State legislatures has not always sustained the theory that, "the larger the body, the more difficult it will be to improperly influence it"; but it is reasonable to expect that there would be more men in the larger body vigilant to oppose bad measures, and that the body would be more representative of the various interests and localities concerned.

The borough system has been for the most part a failure thus far. It ought to be either abolished or radically changed. The argument from theory is so strong for the preservation of the principle that it would have been a serious mistake to recommend abolition. What the Commission have done is to advise an increase of power for the Presidents of the boroughs, and to make local improvement boards more important than before. Feeling about this matter will be more pronounced in the other boroughs than in Manhattan, but no reason appears why the changes proposed should not be endorsed.

One feature of the borough changes is that which gives each President a place in the very important Board of Estimate and Apportionment, which would be composed entirely of officials elected by the people. This is a sound principle, and by giving the various members of this board votes according to the importance of their offices, the Presidents cannot outvote the Mayor, Comptroller, and President of the Board of Aldermen, who are elected by the city at large. The removal of the power to fix the salaries of his subordinates from the head of a department is most commendable.

The work of the Commission is so comprehensive and detailed that only the most salient features can be treated in a single article. As to all important features it merits hearty praise, and public opinion should be organized to secure the ratification of its recommendations by the Legislature.

PATRIOTISM BY MANUAL.

There is a theory abroad that everything must be taught. Earlier it was believed that certain primitive instincts came by nature, while the higher moral qualities were the gift of God. Now, no modern Dogberry would dare assert so rash a doctrine. Everything must be taught, including patriotism. There lies before us a 'Manual of Patriotism' for use in the public schools of the State of New York. The manual is authorized by act of the Legislature, and compiled, arranged, and edited under the direction of Charles R. Skinner, State Superintendent of Public Instruction. But Mr. Skinner lends only his name and authority, as a kind of Shaksperian "only begetter" of the work. It is Prof. William R. Wickes of Syracuse to whom the actual pains of editorship have fallen. The book has been prepared in accordance with Chapter 481 of the Laws of New York (1898): "An act to provide for the display of the United States flag on the schoolhouses of the State, in connection with the public schools; and to encourage patriotic exercises in such schools."

The idea of displaying the flag and of celebrating its daily raising by a brief ceremony has something to be said for it. It would seem, however, as though such exercises should be as brief and formal as possible. Any haranguing of the young on the general matter of patriotism appears as inappropriate as introducing revivalistic appeals at the daily morning prayers would be. So a plain citizen might think. *Diis scholasticis aliter visum.* The compilers of the book before us have constructed an elaborate flag-ritual, a kind of patriotic year, with "Old-Glorification" as its informing spirit.

The line for a critical analysis of this new flag-cult is marked out in certain prefatory "suggestions to teachers": "Do not look upon this manual as a text-book in American history," is implored; "seek the philosophy of events and teach it as far as possible. But when you take this book in your hands, let the light of sentiment and imagination play over facts and theories—tingeing all as with the beautiful Red, White, and Blue of the Flag." Following these directions, let us also allow the light of sentiment and imagination to play over this book, tingeing it with as favorable colors as may be.

First come some forty daily exercises, to be used selectively through the year. There is always a patriotic song to be sung, a number of patriotic extracts in prose or verse—these often well selected—prefaced by a patriotic exordium of the editor, which apparently is to be read before the school. Each exercise centres around some single American idea—the home, the stars, the stripes.

In lieu of criticism we here reprint the opening remarks on "The School:"

> "Let us all praise and thank the Legislature of our great Empire State for that law which compels every schoolhouse to keep the flag flying during school time. For if home is 'the dearest spot,' hardly less pleasant should the schoolhouse be. And what can help so much to make it pleasant as the sight of the flag? Faces of the sunniest teachers will sometimes be overcast with clouds; pleasantèst voices sometimes be edged with sharpness; sweetest tempers sometimes grow sour, like the richest cream after a thunder-storm; but the flag, ah, the flag! As it floats over the proudest or poorest schoolhouse in the State, it always greets you in the morning wtih a smile of welcome on its pleasant face, and when you start home, waves its benediction over you, and shakes out from its folds this cheery voice: 'Come again! I'll be here to greet you.' "

Here, we presume, teacher and scholars say Amen, with no unpatriotic grin on their pleasant faces. Continuing the exercise, all break into a song of which the second verse runs:

"Thy safeguard Liberty,
The school shall ever be,—
Our nation's pride!
No tyrant's hand shall smite,
While with encircling might
All here are taught the Right
With truth allied."

Then follow two elegant extracts from the State Superintendent, Mr. Skinner, ("only begetter" of the volume, it will be remembered), and an interview with General Francis Marion, all arguing the desirability of universal education. So much for a specimen patriotic day as we are to have it in our schools.

We pass on to that part of the book which provides ceremonies for the national holidays and great anniversaries. These are, in a word, only the daily exercises writ large, and a few of the rubrics will show that the tone is unchanged. For example: "The Flag hallows Memorial Day," "The Flag consecrates the Birthday of George Washington," "The Flag blesses the Birthday of Abraham Lincoln," "Flag-day makes sacred June 14." But enough of this quite idiotic flag-fetishism. Suffice it to say that the whole *raison d'être* of the book lies in a belief that the sight of the flag is a signal for emotional hysterics; that Nature cannot be left to direct these transports, but they must receive the form of pedagogical art; that patriotism must be uttered periodically and by book, or die.

What solemn nonsense it all is! Men loved the flag before they called it "Old Glory"; men died willingly for their country without special instruction in color symbolism; statesmen gave their lives to the public service without repeating a flag pledge every day. Lowell and Lincoln were never told to rejoice in the flag's "pleasant face," and were good patriots withal. Has the State Board really found a more excellent way? Reading drivel to children and making them sing doggerel can hardly have any effect except to vulgarize them. We believe that there is left enough of the old saving grace of humor to send this big and foolish book into the obscurity which yawns for the bathetic. What is really serious—and the only thing that warrants our giving it a moment's attention—is that it bears the imprimatur of the State Superintendent, and that it is to be inflicted upon our schools.

THE ATTRACTION OF GREAT MEN FOR CRANKS.

One of the smiling pages in the recent Life of Huxley is that wherein his son gives a condensed account of the various kinds of folly that used to press into the Professor's presence. Huxley often vowed that "suffer fools gladly" was a "pet aphorism" of his; though it sometimes did look as if he read the injunction, "gladly make fools suffer." At any rate, they pursued him as assiduously and relentlessly as Wellington complained that they did him. The man who could demonstrate that the world is flat; the investigator who could prove that the atmosphere has no weight; people with ten thousand pages of manuscript which they would like arranged and published in the proceedings of some learned society—Huxley was fair game for such mighty hunters, of course. Among the more remarkable applications of the sort made to him was a communication by cable from the United States in 1892. It ran as follows:

> "Unless all reason and all nature have deceived me, I have found the truth. It is my intention to cross the ocean to consult with those who have helped me to find it. Shall I be welcome? Please answer at my expense, and God grant we all meet in life on earth."

Mr. Leonard Huxley does not tell us whether his father took advantage of the tempting "reply-paid" to answer a fool according to his folly. Darwin had a printed form for use in such cases, though his son admits that the great man was so great in gentleness and kindness that he rarely had the heart to return it even to the most starkly crazy correspondent. He gave a civil answer even to the wonderful young man who, being exceedingly busy, and having to maintain the doctrine of evolution in a debating society, would, as he was without time to do any reading himself, be deeply indebted to Darwin if he would write out a handy little sketch of his views. It is but the common lot of great men. The unbalanced, the feeble-minded, the buffeted and disheartened, are drawn like moths to the flame of a brilliantly successful intellect. Think of the poetry that Tennyson had to read (or look at) and keep a grave face! Hallam Tennyson records one "pathetic incident of this kind," as his father thought it:

> "A Waterloo soldier brought twelve large cantos on the battle of Waterloo. The veteran had actually taught himself in his old age to read and write that he might thus commemorate Wellington's great victory. The epic lay for some time under the sofa in my father's study, and was a source of much anxiety to him. How could he go through such a vast poem? One day he mustered up courage and took a portion out. It opened on the heading of a canto: 'The Angels encamped above the field of Waterloo.' On that day, at least, he 'read no more.' He gave the author, when he called for his manuscript, this criticism: 'Though great images loom here and there, your poem could not be published as a whole.' The old man answered nothing, wrapped up each of the twelve cantos carefully, placed them in a strong oak case, and carried them off. He was asked to come again, but he never came."

This attraction which men of distinction have for aspiring but cracked brains has its admirable and even useful side. It is often a kind of instinctive hero-worship. Sometimes it runs into dog-like devotion. The wife of a fervid New England reformer once asked him, according to Col. Higginson, "Why is it that you seem to have such a strong fascination for crazy people?" Perhaps the theory of Dryden that great wits are sure to madness near allied partly accounts for it; but there is a deeper truth in it, namely, that certain kinds of desperate work can be done in this world only by men who wreak themselves upon it with a species of fanatic fury. Appearing almost insane in their absorbing life-passion, it is not strange that the completely mad sometimes hail them as fellows. At several removes from the lunatic, we have the plain ass who hangs upon great men. Now if he happens to be, not merely an ass, but what Disraeli called "a clever ass," he may prove a kind of Boswell to help perpetuate the fame and name of the hero upon whom he dotes. Lord Rosebery thinks he has found in Gourgaud, chronicler of Napoleon's last days at St. Helena, a serviceable donkey of this sort. The other memoirists and letter-writers are obvious liars, but Gourgaud makes himself out such an ass that it must be he tells the truth. There must, however, be a vein of cleverness in the ass. Carlyle was quite right in contending, against Macaulay, that a fool, *quâ* fool, could never have produced Boswell's Life of Johnson.

Doubtless another reason why the poor routed leavings of humanity have such a fondness for the society of the great is that they think eminence and recognition the result of luck. It is only chance, they say, that our theories of gravitation have not been accepted in place of Newton's; it is only because Helmholtz happened to get the ear of the world that his views on optics are preferred to ours. This datum firmly fixed in their minds, their motive in approaching the successful man is twofold. In the first place, they count upon tolerance and sympathy. Huxley will have no illusions about his own distinction; he will know that it was a piece of pure good fortune. So he will naturally be kind to a crank from New Mexico with a revolutionary doctrine of astrophysics in his pocket. As distinguished men usually are, in fact, exceeding kind to the fools who devastate their day, the fools go away more strongly than ever of the opinion that they are right and all the world wrong, and that nothing but an unkind fate has prevented them from directing the course of thought for mankind. If they could only get a hearing, all would be well yet. That is their second main object in storming the doors of the great. If Darwin would only help the wild-eyed man from Tasmania to get his refutation of Pasteur published, biology would be re-created, and the learned world would recognize its new master. So the foolish besieging goes on, and will to the end of time. As long as intellectual eminence exists, so long will it be a shining mark for folly, and so long will the intellectually eminent be subject to such alarms as the one which Huxley described in the last year of his life:

> "I had a letter from a fellow yesterday, to the effect that he had been reading my essays, thought I was just the man to spend a month with, and was coming down by the five o'clock train, attended by his seven children and his *mother-in-law!* Frost being over, there was lots of boiling water ready for him, but he did not turn up."

FRANCIS PARKMAN.

I have been reading with much interest the lately published life of Francis Parkman, recently reviewed in your columns. It was not an eventful life, owing to the state of his health. He may be said, in the stricter sense, to have "pursued the even tenor of his way" for thirty years. While I really have nothing to add to his biography, there are some traits to which I could wish that more prominence had been given by Mr. Farnham, and, with your permission, I should like to call attention to them.

I made Parkman's acquaintance in 1863 at the house of Mr. Charles Eliot Norton, in Cambridge, and my later intercourse with him was, if not frequent, continuous. I never went to Boston without spending some hours in his company, either at Milton or at his house in Chestnut Street. There were few subjects of the day on which I did not become intimately acquainted with his views, and I can safely say that he impressed me, of all the men I have ever known, as the most of an American. His tastes were singularly American, as a traveller and an explorer. He cared little for the works of man, either here or in Europe, but a great deal for those of nature, and had certain fixed views concerning American politics and society. Our last interview was about a year before his death, and he then had nothing to alter or retract of the things I had heard from him when we first met.

To sum up, he had, in the rarest degree, that virtue which the Romans called "constantia," and placed so high among the qualities of character. "Constantia" was, in fact, simply the firmness of a man who, before adopting any opinion or deciding on any course, had duly considered from all sides the reasons for which he thought and acted. I do not think I perceived, in my last talk with him, the least variation in his views on conduct or policy in Church or State. This ought not to be a singular thing among educated men, but, as a matter of fact, nothing is rarer. One of the effects of democracy, on which he often dwelt, and concerning which, I confess, I agreed with him, was the disappearance of what might be called "the men of light and leading," for to be a man of light and leading one must certainly provide himself, early in life, with a set of opinions which will bear rough usage. When I was a young man, there were several men, Seward, Calhoun, Webster, Clay, and the like, who were acknowledged to have occupied such a position, and to have furnished numerous disciples with thought and arguments. Such disciples were found in every State, ready to solve every question of the day by the aid, if not in the words, of their master. But men of this type have disappeared wholly from public gaze. We have hardly a public man among us who does not change his political clothing, from his skin out, for no other reason than that the majority has differed from him. At the outbreak of the war with Spain, I remember a general in the Mississippi valley who was a noted Anti-Imperialist. Within a month he was an equally violent Imperialist, for the simple reason that "the people of the Mississippi valley," he said, "knew better than he what was best"—which was not true, as he had studied the matter, while they knew nothing about it.

In fact, the number of those who are able to stand defeat, and continue the work in a losing fight, is very small. This increasing tendency of democracy to kill opposition by sheer weight of numbers was a subject I often discussed with Mr. Parkman, and found that he had paid more attention to it than I had. He had long remarked the growing horror among Americans of what they call "getting left," meaning thereby being left in a minority. Nothing seemed to fill them with more dread than being abandoned by the larger number of voters. In fact, the greatest use I see of an aristocracy in a free country is the supply of a number of men, however small, who are not afraid to stand alone; whose faith in their own opinions is not shaken by the fact that most people do not hold them.

As I have said before, Parkman, though a fervent Democrat, believed only in what might be called a "led democracy"—that is, a democracy whose opinions are shaped and whose action is determined by a few men of known capacity. That any good can eventually come from "buffalo stampedes," either in Congress or in the country, of an ignorant and excited multitude, he refused to believe. That way, he considered, the danger lay. To the effect of this on young men I need not draw attention. Youth is the period in which character is formed and guides are adopted for conduct through life. This is something to which, as far as I can see, our colleges pay little heed. Our college youths are harrowed by agitators, just as much as the mobs in our streets. At the outbreak of the late war, a swashbuckler was allowed to raid our undergraduates, and carry them off in considerable numbers from their studies, to serve as recruits in a contest of whose causes and objects they were equally ignorant.

Parkman was a man who had none of the recently begotten horror of war; he was as much prepared to fight as anybody, in defence of his country, but he was not prepared to attack anybody without cause. This cause being given, I never looked him in the face without seeing the possibility, if engaged in a fight which he understood, of his using Henri de la Roche Jaquelin's address to his Bretons, "Si j'avance, suivez-moi; si je me recule, tuez-moi; si je tombe, vengez-moi." He had a chin which we are accustomed, I know not with how much correctness, to consider an indication of unconquerable resolution, of "courage never to submit or yield." One of the reasons for which I most regretted his invalidism was that it prevented his taking a more prominent place in the education of American youth.

Parkman often reminded me of Walter Scott. His mental make-up was very much the same; he had the same deep and abiding love of his native land, of "the brown heath and shaggy woods," in which his boyhood had been passed, and the same reverence for the America of his ancestors that Scott felt for the Borderland. It was the respectability and social station of such men, and their high standards, which touched him a great deal more than the growth of the population and the immense exports of hogs and corn of later days. His imagination was fired by far other things about his country than these, and he was not kindled by the thought of being "a world power." In fact, we may imagine his being in much the same state of mind about Expansion that Scott was about the gradual effacement of the house of Buccleuch. He was affected far more by the quality of his fellow-citizens, by their fitness or unfitness for the management of a great state, than by their numbers. I can imagine how much he would have suffered, had he lived to see open abuse or depreciation of the Constitution by its paid agents, and the ship of state sent adrift on the stormy waves of one-man power. Of course, it is a misfortune to be no longer in tune with the tendencies of one's day; and, perhaps, it is as well that he did not live to see the wreck of early hopes. Taking him for all in all, we probably shall never look upon his like again.

E. L. G.

TASHKEND.

TASHKEND, October 4, 1900.

The reason for the existence of this great commercial and political capital is easy to discern. It is just about half way between the Irtish River, the natural boundary of Turkestan on the east, and the Caspian Sea on the west, being about 1,200 miles from each. It is where two of the great caravan routes to Central Asia converge in the valley of the Syr Daria (the ancient Jaxartes) River, which opens a natural line of passage to the plains of southeastern Russia. For thousands of years active communication has been kept up between Europe and Central Asia along these lines.

Tashkend is not on the Syr Daria, but about forty miles from it, on a tributary coming down from the snow-clad Aksai Mountains, which half encircle it on the east. The waters from this stream, spread out by irrigating channels over the wide plains of loess which appear here as all along the northern base of the mountains of this region, produce the highest state of fertility imaginable. Wherever the water touches the soil, it becomes a veritable garden, producing abundantly a great variety of crops. Wheat, barley, rice, millet, maize, tobacco, cotton are the most common grains and staples. Apples, peaches, pears, and a great variety of most luscious grapes are so abundant that one can eat his fill for a mere trifle; while melons of all sorts are superabundant. Tashkend is a city of 156,000 inhabitants, about 25,000 of whom are Russians. Their part of the city, although it is only thirty-two years since they took possession, is already magnificent in its parks and long avenues of lofty trees. Indeed, in the early days of October the shade seems excessive. But beneath the scorching rays of the midday summer sun in this clear and cloudless atmosphere, it must be refreshing in the highest degree.

After crossing the low range of North and South mountains west of Vernoe, which bound the Balkash basin on that side, the post-road runs for 150 miles along the base of the Alexander range of mountains, which rise very abruptly 12,000 feet above the plain to a total height of 14,500 feet above the sea. All along this distance short streams of living water issue from the numerous gorges leading from the mountain-heights to the plain. Most of these are tributary to the River Chu, which has its origin in Issik-kul, a lake situated in a fertile valley in rear of the central Ala-tau range, and 5,000 feet above the sea. The River Chu finally ends in the desert 300 miles to the northwest, and is of little use in its lower portions, on account of the depth of the channels it has cut in the plain. But near the mountains, it and all its short tributaries conspire to render most fruitful an area about fifty miles broad and extending more than a hundred miles east and west. Przhevalsk, with 7,987 inhabitants, on Lake Issik-kul, and Pishpek, at the base of the mountains, with 6,622, are bustling little cities, with large Russian colonies, and full of every variety of Eastern life. Auleata, amid the head-waters of the River Talas, is another bustling city, still further west. It has a population of 12,006. The River Talas also ends in the desert, feeding a small salt lake, known as Kara-kul. It is only after crossing a spur of the Aksai range west of Auleata that we come into the basin of the Aral Sea. This we reach at Tchimkend, a city of 10,756 inhabitants, and of special importance, from the fact that it is at the junction of the great post-road which we have been following along the base of the mountains, with a tributary of the Syr Daria River, which we are now following to the Aral Sea, and thence on across the desert to southeastern Russia. For some distance down, this great river carries life along its course. The city of Turkestan, about one hundred miles below, has 11,592 inhabitants, and Perovsk and Kasalinsk, still farther down, have each more than 5,000. Each city of this size means a very large agricultural and nomadic population in the surrounding country.

The total population of the province of Syr Daria is 1,479,848. A few statistics will show what a treasure the Russians have obtained in the acquisition of this region. According to their last census, that of 1897, this province produced nearly 10,000,000 bushels of wheat, 6,000,000 bushels of rice, 2,000,000 of millet, 1,200,000 of Indian corn, 50,000,000 pounds of cotton, 80,000 pounds of raw silk, and 40,000 pounds of tobacco; besides many articles of minor importance. Its great dependence, however, is on stock-raising. Its sheep numbered 4,265,600, its horses 466,300, its cattle 432,100, its camels 501,200, and its goats 755,360. Much attention is also given to arboriculture. The cities and villages founded by the Russians are already hidden in forests of trees whose growth supplies a large amount of needed fuel. With the unfailing water from the mountains, and almost perpetual sunshine, this isolated region amidst the deserts of Central Asia is almost an ideal place of residence.

Nor has the value of the region ever been wholly unknown. It was a disturbing power of much moment to the successors of Alexander the Great. The Greeks of that time planted colonies in the valley of the Jaxartes, and left many mementos of their civilizing power. In the museum of Tashkend there is a large number of Græco-Bactrian coins of that period. But the most interesting object yet discovered is a life-size camel's leg cast in bronze. This shows clearly the influence of Greek art, and raises hopes of finding still more. All through this region, also, I have noticed large mounds, entirely out of proportion to any now constructed or used. Indeed, they are as much separated from the present life of the people as were the mounds of Ohio from those of the roving Indians. We can speak of the Mound Builders of Turkestan as truly as we can of those of the Mississippi Valley. The country was formerly more densely populated than it is now.

The Kirghiz Tartars, who form the bulk of the country population, are a wholesome-looking, independent class of people. Though they are Mohammedans, their women have a reasonable amount of freedom. They wear a peculiar head-dress of white cloth which completely surrounds the face but does not cover it. They are not veiled. Riding on their camels with all their household goods beneath them, or, with their girls, pounding the millet or cooking before the door of their dome-shaped felt tents, they are self-possessed and to all appearance self-satisfied. The cities, however, are mostly filled with Sarts, who are Mohammedans of another sort. These are of Usbeg rather than of Tatar origin, and have become very corrupt in their city life. Their women go about the streets in dirty, loose-fitting outer garments, with a large close black veil over their faces extending half-way to the ground. They are the most forlorn-looking objects that I have ever seen. From all that I can learn, also, their life is as forlorn as they look. The men will not allow them to eat in their presence, and feed them only after their animals have been fed.

The salutary influence of the Russian occupation is everywhere seen throughout this region. Besides the large settlements of civil and military officials in the cities, thrifty villages of Russian peasants are scattered all along the post-roads. These rarely contain less than a thousand inhabitants, and present every appearance of great prosperity. In them all, the tasteful Greek church is a prominent centre. Tall trees line all their roadways. At this season of the year (the beginning of October), immense stacks of grain surround their yards, and all hands are busy in threshing and winnowing it; while swarms of healthy flaxen-haired children everywhere enliven the streets. Preëminently are these Russian settlements an example of Christian civilization which must powerfully react upon the surrounding Mohammedan population. Russian occupation in the twentieth century after Christ will not be temporary like that of the Greeks in the second century before the advent of Christianity.

G. FREDERICK WRIGHT.

Correspondence.

IN REGARD TO THE SHIP-SUBSIDY BILL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

RESPECTED FRIEND: In the Philadelphia *Press* of recent date the public are informed that—

> "The Pittsburg Coal Company has recently received requests for bids on tremendous quantities of coal from Italy, France, Germany, and Austria. . . . The officials of the company look forward to the passage of the Hanna-Payne Ship-Subsidy Bill by the next Congress, and say that if this be done American coal will be enabled to enter the markets of Europe and all the world, and beat out the dearer and poorer qualities of the foreign coal."

Obviously, this means that it is proposed to tax the people of the United States for the purpose of furnishing coal, for less than cost, to the people of Europe. Is it possible that our people are so anxious to get rid of their reserve coal supply that they are willing to have part of the cost of transportation paid out of the public Treasury? If the people of Europe want our coal and are willing to pay the cost of delivering it to them, well and good. But to send it to them and pay for transporting it ourselves is another matter. Before taxing ourselves in order to induce other nations to help consume our coal, would it not at least be well to consider the possible needs of our own posterity? The coal imposes no expense on the nation as it lies in the ground. Why tax the people in order to disturb it before it can be used profitably?

Indeed, why should we tax ourselves in order to induce other nations to help us consume any form of wealth that we are producing? If a manufacturer should conclude to make a certain kind of goods and sell them for less than cost of production, it would only be one way of ridding himself of his wealth and distributing it among the people. It would save him much trouble, and yield practically the same result, if he distributed his wealth in the form of money, or alms, pure and simple, and let the people exchange it for the goods in the open market. And if a nation delivers goods in the markets of other nations for less than cost, it is only ridding itself of its wealth, whatever the further result may be. Doubtless we shall be told that no one proposes to deliver the goods in the foreign market for less than cost. But then, what is the subsidy for? If the price in the foreign market covers everything, where is the need of aid from our public Treasury in order to deliver the goods? The subsidy is wealth taken out of the public Treasury and placed in the hands of those who transport the goods. This much is evident: if the price of the goods in the foreign market covers all cost of transportation, of course none of the subsidy is expended in transporting the goods—all of it remains in the hands of those who are transporting them. If the price in the foreign market does not cover cost of transportation, and the subsidy is expended in transporting the goods, it is manifestly utterly wasted. It does not benefit the foreigners, because it does not enable them to get the goods for less than they are otherwise getting them. It does not benefit the people of this country, because it is all expended on utterly useless labor. In either case, the wealth is taken from the people of the United States by general taxation. In the one case, it is a gratuitous transfer of wealth from the masses of the United States to a very few of our own people—an ancient and renowned method of promoting the welfare of a nation by enabling a few to prey on the many. In the other case, it is a gratuitous transfer of wealth from the people of the United States to unproductive and, therefore, valueless labor. If the labor of transporting the goods produced sufficient value to pay for itself, there would be no need to pay for it out of the public Treasury.

Here we have the two horns of a dilemma. I should be pleased to learn, from the advocates of the Subsidy Bill, which of these is their choice. I should be much more pleased to have the people of the United States instruct their chosen representatives that the scheme will not be tolerated, whether it be for plunder or waste.

FREEMAN STEWART.

PHILADELPHIA, 11th mo, 28th, 1900.

KRUGER'S ULTIMATUM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The *Evening Post* is perfectly justified in calling Kruger's "ultimatum" fatal and foolish. Kruger is the weak point in the Transvaal case. Too much attention has been paid to him; too little attention has been paid to the people of the Transvaal rising unanimously and with almost unexampled self-devotion in defence of the covenanted independence of their little commonwealth.

Kruger's "ultimatum," however, was, after all, but an acceptance of the British declaration of war. War was morally declared when Milner demanded his "irreducible minimum" and massed troops on the Transvaal frontier for its exaction. The same construction would have been put upon that proceeding by any State capable of maintaining its independence.

Kruger, it should be borne in mind, tendered arbitration, which was refused as derogatory to British "sovereignty," though the status of the Transvaal as a foreign and independent State had been distinctly recognized in the trial of the Jameson raiders.

EQUITY.

CICERO AND THE TROGLODYTES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In a recent number of the *Century*, in an interesting and well-illustrated article on "Troglodyte Dwellings in Cappadocia," the author, Professor of Greek at Amherst College, in trying to indicate the method of determining the age of the dwellings he is describing, writes as follows:

> "In a passage in Cicero mention is made of hiding in the *latebræ* of Pontus and Cappadocia. Now 'latebræ' means hiding-places, retreats, lurking-places, hidden recesses. There can be little doubt that, in speaking of the hiding-places of Cappadocia, Cicero had precisely this region of country in mind, for as proconsul he must have seen it with his own eyes. The point is inherently probable, but it cannot be definitely proved. I am familiar with the greater part of Cappadocia, and I can think of no other region to which Cicero could be referring. If we may assume, then, that he does refer to this region of cone- and cliff-dwellings, we gain a date before Christ."

The passage of Cicero which this vague reference naturally suggests is the famous one in the Manilian Law, in which the orator animadverts on the effrontery of Mithridates, who, instead of lurking in the "latebræ" of Pontus and Cappadocia, has emerged into the light of the Roman possessions. As this passage belongs to the year of Cicero's prætorship, 66 B.C., and the proconsulship "during which he must have seen it [this region of Cappadocia] with his own eyes," was some fifteen years later, either Professor Sterrett has fallen into an anachronism which invalidates his whole argument, or he has reference to some less familiar passage of Cicero, written subsequent to the year 50 B.C., which does not readily suggest itself to the general reader.

W. F. P.

KENYON COLLEGE, GAMBIER, OHIO.

Notes.

Approaching publications of Cassell & Co. are 'Our Bird Friends: A Book for all Boys and Girls,' by R. Kearton, with 100 illustrations; 'The War Office, the Army, and the Empire,' by H. O. Arnold-Foster, M. P.; 'The Tale of a Field Hospital,' by Sir Frederick Treves; and 'Reminiscences of Oxford,' by the Rev. W. Tuckwell, with full-page illustrations.

What promises to be the most magnificent memorial publication of the Gutenberg semi-millennium celebration is announced by the famous Leipzig house of Drugelin, in a volume of some 150 folio pages, entitled 'Baensch-Drugelin; Marksteine der Weltweisheit vieler Voelker in Originalschriften, mit Buchschmuck von Ludwig Suetterlin.' The avowed purpose is the production of a typographical masterpiece, in which literary unites with technical science to do each its best. The work will consist of selections of masterpieces from the best ancient and modern literatures of the Orient and the Occident, in the type of the original language, accompanied by a modern translation; the whole being intended for the scholar and the bibliophile, and especially for public and private libraries. Only 300 copies, numbered, will be printed, with the names of subscribers and patrons added. The cost per copy will be 100 marks.

The market teems with new editions of novels reissued with illustrations. Of these, many are too trivial for notice, while some have a cheap and almost vulgarizing effect. Mr. James Lane Allen has been fortunate in having his 'A Kentucky Cardinal, and Aftermath' (Macmillan) decorated rather than illustrated by Hugh Thomson. This English artist, as may be imagined, is not to the manner born of local color, but his hundred drawings decidedly enhance the attractiveness of a more than pretty book. Typographically we miss the running-title, especially as two stories are bound in one. The ornamentation of Hawthorne's 'Scarlet Letter,' in Dodd, Mead & Co.'s new edition in generous print, goes little beyond a scarlet rule above the text. There is a frontispiece in black-and-white, with a few dashes of color, but it is not remarkable for drawing or historical imagination. Finally, Miss Porter's 'Scottish Chiefs' is not to be allowed to round out *its* century without another edition, that, namely, of J. M. Dent & Co. (New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.). The broad page of fifty-three condensed lines in small but legible type is multiplied till the total number of words between the two covers exceeds 350,000. This need not daunt any one who has made light of 'War and Peace.' Mr. T. H. Robinson's illustrations are more numerous than appears to one turning carelessly the deckle-edge leaves. They are mostly in the text, sketchy, but not amateurish, and do much to lighten the mass.

Among the host of miscellaneous reprints a line may be given to the revised and enlarged edition of Austin Dobson's 'Henry Fielding' (Dodd, Mead & Co.). It is introduced by a high testimonial from Lowell's 'Democracy'; and the author, in a short preface, expresses his satisfaction in being able to better a work which first saw the light seventeen years ago. The volume is a handy one, very prettily bound.

We chronicle again a complete edition of Mrs. Browning's Poems, this time of handy size and in six volumes (Crowell). The annotations are by Charlotte Porter and Helen A. Clarke, known for their editing of Robert Browning, and surpass in extent any ever before attempted. The sixth volume contains the prose remains; the first a chronological bibliography. Each one of the set is provided with a frontispiece, portrait or landscape. Where so much pains has been taken, one could wish that a better quality of paper had been indulged in.

An illustrated edition, in two volumes, of the late Grant Allen's 'Paris' (Boston: L. C. Page & Co.) is somewhat of an anomaly. The author of a guide-book assumes that his reader is on the spot, in the presence of the things described. In that case the reader needs no pictures, and would prefer to have his guide in a single volume. The reader who is differently situated desires not so much a guide-book with pictures as a different kind of book. Mr. Allen's 'Paris,' which first appeared in 1897, is intended to acquaint the beginner with the aims of mediæval and Renaissance art, through the study of architectural monuments and artistic collections. For this purpose it is undeniably stimulating and serviceable, though the free-born American will probably resent its paternal, indeed peremptory, mode of counsel.

'Episodes from "The Winning of the West"' (Putnams) is a convenient volume abridged from Mr. Roosevelt's larger work, and provided with illustrations and map. It will serve very well as supplementary reading for schools in the domain of American history from 1769 to 1807.

'A Garden of Simples,' by Martha B. Flint (Charles Scribner's Sons), is a new book of old lore of out-of-doors. The lines from George Herbert, with which the name chapter opens, breathe the atmosphere of the whole book, "For Salve she seeks not the city, but prefers her garden and the fields before all outlandish gums." Other characteristic chapters are "Wild Berries," "The Secrets of a Salad," "A Fagot of Herbs," "Indian Plant Names," "A Posy from Spenser." They make a book of folk-lore, plant-lore, and poet-lore, good to read in winter by the driftwood fire. The beautiful type, paper, and binding deserve remark.

in 'The Chronicle of a Cornish Garden,' ie of John Lane's "Books for Country ouses," the author, Harry Roberts, begins is record at Christmas, 1897, and fills up he pages which represent the barren weeks with a pleasant retrospective and contemplative garden-making. His English calendar grants him early grace of blossoms, and so we have him in January rejoicing in blooming periwinkles and green clumps of cyclamen and saxifrages. On the 2d of February his primroses are blossoming by hundreds, and the garden boasts crocuses, anemones, and daisies galore. In June the author sees his way to "a continuous show of flowers until November," and the "Chronicle" offers pleasant reading to all who would do likewise. In no sense a "hand-book of gardening," this is a delightful record of how a "little garden" was made to blossom out of land "waster than a warren."

The lack of interest formerly felt in palæontology by the student of botany, because of the absence of any working relation between the two lines of study, seems to be waning with the appearance of works dealing with the geological material in the same way in which the student of the structure, morphology, and relationships of the contemporary flora deals with his material. The newer investigations of fossil plants have also gone far in developing many points of plant relationship left uncertain by the study of living forms. Dr. Dukinfield Henry Scott, in his 'Studies in Fossil Botany' (Black-Macmillan), has brought together in fourteen lectures the results which have the greatest significance for botanists. The evidence, and the conclusions supported by it, are given in not too great detail with admirable clearness. It would be out of the question to enter into a discussion of the subject-matter of the book in this place, but it may be said that the lectures deal especially with researches on the sub-kingdoms of the Pteridophytes and Gymnosperms, or those parts of the subject which have yielded the richest returns to more recent investigators.

Mr. John Percival, author of 'Agricultural Botany, Theoretical and Practical' (Henry Holt & Co.), is a teacher in the Southeastern Agricultural College at Wye, England. He has endeavored to supply a lack in botanical literature by writing a book, at once correct from the standpoint of theoretical science, and adapted to the needs of the practical agriculturist. As would be expected, a rather stout volume, treating of many subjects, is the result. A strong technical leaning, reënforced by the effort to limit the size of the work, has resulted in a somewhat distorted view of the vegetable kingdom. Plants are given place which have agricultural significance, leaving one to derive his ideas of the plant-world from forms which are either helpful or harmful. Hence the fungi described are parasites on crops, and the seed plants either furnish the crops themselves or are weeds. The desire to economize space doubtless leads to this suppression of three-fourths or more of the vegetable kingdom. Perhaps the perspective would have been truer had the Algæ received some mention, even though the Gramineæ, treated in about 100 pages, were given less space. The structure and physiology of plants are discussed in a very satisfactory manner, affording a good basis for the applied phase of the sub- [illegible] for the recognition of the commoner (in England) woods and twigs are commendable features. The figures, largely original, are often of doubtful excellence. Taken as a whole, the book seems adapted to meet a large demand, and will, no doubt, prove acceptable to many.

A ninth edition of Thomas Erskine Holland's 'Elements of Jurisprudence' (Oxford University Press; New York: H. Frowde) has been brought out simultaneously in England and the United States. In the preface, the author states that an unauthorized reprint, issued by the "West Publishing Company," was a reproduction of the seventh, "and not, as is stated in the 'Publishers' preface,' of the (then non-existent) ninth English edition." He adds that "it is hoped that the present edition, which has been carefully revised, will be found to contain new matter of considerable interest." We hoped so too; but the manner in which the edition is brought out puts it out of our power, within any amount of time at our disposal, to either express an opinion upon the "new matter" or point out what it is. The eighth edition, which came out in 1896, was a volume of 404 pages. The present edition contains 430 pages, but almost all this increase seems to be accounted for by a change in the type. In the eighth edition there was a table of cases; this is left out in the ninth, so that the reader cannot tell whether any new cases have been cited or not. In the index there are some new titles, but, so far as we have examined the references, nothing more than trifling additions to the notes are to be found. It is a pity that the author did not give the reader some hint as to where to look for his "new matter," for not one person in a hundred would derive any other impression from this publication than that it was a reprint.

Eaton & Mains, New York, have published a "biographical, geographical, historical, and doctrinal" encyclopædia, entitled 'The People's Bible Encyclopedia,' intended to be in style and form a companion to 'The Teachers' Bible.' It is edited by the Rev. Charles Randall Barnes, D.D. (New York University). The work is in one volume of a little more than 1,200 pages, on thin paper, so that it is not cumbersome to handle. It is "illustrated by nearly four hundred engravings, maps, charts, etc." From the frontispiece onward the work is antiquated. The frontispiece, "Gethsemane and the Mount of Olives," is taken from a photograph fifteen or twenty years old. The cuts appear to be in many instances old ones, which did duty in the magazines and Bible books of the last generation. They are mostly cheap, rubbishy, and incorrect. At least one of the cuts does duty twice under two different titles. The maps which we have examined are equally antiquated and unreliable. The text is, if anything, more antiquated than the illustrations. The results of modern scholarship are so completely ignored that the views of twenty-five or fifty years ago are represented as the "common opinion," "the general conclusions of Christian scholarship," etc. Such statements indicate either a peculiar intellectual density or a certain moral obliquity. It is one thing to state one's own views as the truth; it is quite another thing to represent one's own views as the "common opinion" or "the general conclusions of Christian scholarship." The etymologies of Hebrew words are often if not generally incorrect, and the same is true of the pronunciations indicated by transcriptions of the Hebrew. There are, of course, some good articles in the volume, but they are lost in the great mass of trash. It would be a shame to put such a volume as this in the hands of Bible students.

Part 2 of the General Catalogue of Italian Publications during the past half-century (Milan: Ulrico Hoepli; New York: Lemcke & Buechner), concludes the letter A on page 111, and makes good progress with B. Ariosto editions to the extent of one and a half columns show this author's vitality; and in the case of some popular foreign writers it is curious to observe that Auerbach and Augier have had no later edition than 1889, while Balzac's latest is 1894. Old Baretti fairly renews his youth in inedited Letters (1895, 1897). The unlucky commander of Eritrea, O. Baratieri, figures here not only in defence of his operations, but as a general military critic. The publishers Barbèra, father and son, make a brave showing as authors also. Long is the list by Adolfo Bartoli, but nothing in comparison with "Proceedings" (*Atto, Atti*), which fill twelve columns, and are a veritable wilderness because of the mode of alphabetizing adopted. "Adventures" (*Aventure*) form a little section, and there are not a few other anonymous entries.

The *Geographical Journal* for November opens with Capt. Deasy's paper narrating his Central Asian journeys, which were remarkable for the energy and ability with which, in his devotion to scientific geography, he carried a "triangulation across the most desperately difficult mountainous country," surveying in a few years 40,000 square miles of new country. He referred to the growth of Russian influence in Chinese Turkestan, but the British resident at Leh, in the discussion which followed the reading of the paper before the Geographical Society, asserted that British prestige was not waning, yet added that Tibet was a far more hopeful field for trade with India, especially in tea. The hostile attitude of the Tibetans is due entirely to the Lhasan priesthood, who fear the loss of their supremacy if British influence is felt in their country. The prospects, however, are that this opposition will be overcome, and that "the closed doors of Tibet will soon begin to turn on their hinges." This attitude of the lamas is confirmed by Mr. E. Amundsen in his brief narrative of a recent journey in southwestern China. He passed through a region rich in gold, iron, and coal, where the monks reigned supreme, even a Chinese official confessing: "We stand powerless before them." When leaving the city of Li—Kiang in February of last year, he says that the cry "Kill the foreign devil!" was heard from every quarter. An interesting account is given of an expedition to the so-called "Cleopatra's Emerald Mines" on the west coast of the Red Sea. They proved to be of the most primitive character, being a network of long and very tortuous passages just large enough to allow of the body being dragged through. They were very numerous, at one spot more than a hundred being visited, some of which took more than an hour to crawl through. The industry, once very extensive, as is evidenced by the numerous ruins of villages, tombs, and watch-towers, was abandoned centuries ago, though only in a few instances have the whole beryl-bearing seams been excavated. Maps accompany each of these articles, as well as some interesting illustrations.

The entering wedge has been found to the German gymnasium system, and in Pforzheim a young lady, formerly a pupil in the girls' gymnasium of Carlsruhe, has been admitted to full membership in the Upper Prima of the city gymnasium, with the full consent of the Baden authorities. This is the first instance of a young woman admitted to a boys' classical college in Germany, although isolated cases of admittance of young ladies to several Real or scientific schools in the smaller towns of the same duchy have been reported, and in all cases the experiment has been a success. As yet no other government in the German confederacy has followed the precedent of Baden in this regard.

December 27 to 29 of this year is the date set for a congress of learned societies in Philadelphia, comprising the following bodies: the American Oriental Society, Spelling Reform Association, Archæological Institute of America, American Philological Association, Society of Biblical Literature and Exegesis, Modern Language Association, and American Dialect Society. The meetings, both joint and separate, are to be held at the University of Pennsylvania.

—A volume of 850 pages, entitled 'A Study of English and American Poets: A Laboratory Method,' by Prof. J. Scott Clark of Northwestern University, is published by Scribners. Method, method, and ever more method, in the study of literature, is the cry of these late Alexandrian days. Professor Clark's method is ingenious, and ought to furnish the student with plenty of class-room work. Twenty poets are selected for study. Under each are provided a "Biographical Outline," a "Bibliography of Criticism" (in which obviously too much space is given to second-rate and second-hand critics, such as W. F. Collier, Phillips, Reed, and the like), and a series of extracts from the critics arranged under topical heads, enforcing the peculiar characteristics of the poet studied. Under each of these heads follow brief illustrations drawn from the poet himself, which sometimes are of dubious application, but which are intended to exemplify the quality under discussion. The introduction suggests a method by which all this material is to be used. The work lies in the field of rhetoric, and aims at the study of style. For intensive study and analysis in this field, it ought to prove interesting, suggestive, and helpful to the student, especially if the method be not applied too rigorously and carried on too long. For, of all studies, in literature intensive work must be abundantly supplemented with extensive work. Reading, reading, and yet more reading, is the ineluctable rule and requisite here. Room must be left for this, and this our modern teachers of literature must not forget. So excellent is this book in many respects that we regret to be compelled to add that it shows some lack of care in the execution, and is defective in scholarly habit—perhaps partly a result of the author's practice of leaving much of the verification to the members of his "seminary." Thus, under the biographical outline for Spenser, some four or five dubious conjectures on the life of the poet are advanced as facts; a phrase from one of Spenser's letters to Harvey is misquoted and misapplied; there are four misprints in proper names; Spenser's phrase, "long sithens composed" appears as "long rithems [for *rhythms?*] composed"; and Cowden (*sic!* Qu.—Cowden Clark or Camden?) is cited as (apparently) the original authority for the statement that Spenser's hearse was "attended by poets, and mournful elegies and poems, with the pens that wrote them, were thrown into his tomb." It is by the help of such work, alas! that misinformation is so widely spread in these modern days of extension and popularization. The author and the publishers owe it to themselves to subject the book to a scrupulous revision.

—Prof. Jesse Macy of Iowa College has written for the "Citizen's Library" a volume on 'Political Parties in the United States from 1846 to 1861' (Macmillan). The dominant feature of the book is its practical assumption of the desirability of two great national parties, and the perniciousness of all attempts to secure political ends through new party organizations. With the spirit of rigid adherence to principle, which makes it practically impossible for some men to act with parties that do not at all represent their ideas on important questions of public policy, Professor Macy has no sympathy. He will have none of the Elijahs of politics. "In the setting up of a righteous state on this earth, such a man is an obstacle. He has to be gotten out of the way before the first step can be taken in righteous institutional state-building." Elisha was more acceptable to the Lord, he thinks, because he was "a prophet with a much more accommodating and adjustable conscience." Such men as Phillips and Garrison were, of course, mere mischief-makers in the political field. Quoting Garrison's characterization of a certain editorial (not cited), criticising the alleged extravagances of Abolitionists, as "an article as full of falsehood, misrepresentation, caricature, hypocrisy, cant, and fiendish malignity as Beelzebub," Professor Macy asks us to "judge whether the language is the utterance of the hero, the saint, the lover of his kind, such as the modern apotheosis of Garrison represents him." Are Professors of Political Science in the habit of settling such questions in such an off-hand way? It is generally allowed that we may call Whittier a lover of his kind, and somewhat of a hero in his way, yet it was he who said of Carlyle's "Occasional Discourse on the Negro Question": "With a hard, brutal audacity, a blasphemous irreverence, and a sneering mockery which would do honor to the Devil of Faust, it takes issue with the moral sense of mankind and the precepts of Christianity." The Abolitionist was utterly unable, the author thinks, to study slavery from the Southern point of view. Perhaps the anti-slavery men sometimes appreciated the real position of the Southerner better than he thinks. Whittier's "Randolph of Roanoke" is evidence in point. No man can read that understandingly and say that its author was unable or unwilling to recognize and love all that was lovable in an opponent, and to appreciate the opponent's point of view.

—The fault was, not that the agitators were standing in the way of a calm settlement by the moderate and rightly disposed on both sides, but that there was not on either side any great body of moderate men who had either the necessary influence or the intention to take up the problem of slavery and bring it to a satisfactory and permanent conclusion. We are ready enough to believe with Professor Macy that such catastrophes as the civil war grew out of definite wrong-doing which might have been avoided, and are not simply the mysterious caperings of something called "Destiny"; but to admit that is not to admit that the final breaking of the storm in such cases is to be charged to the account of the few who realize the growing evil and the general apathy, and cry out with a prophet's fervor against both. If it was an *a priori* possibility, as the author thinks, that the old Whig organization, placing Douglas at its head, might have taken in the Douglas Democracy of the North with the Bell and Everett following in the South, and settled the difficulties of the time in such a way as to have insured the comparatively rapid extinction of slavery without war or the organization of a Northern sectional party, that possibility was not destroyed by the existence of the abolition movement. If it existed at all, it existed because that movement had compelled a large body of people to realize that there were really some problems connected with slavery which could no longer be safely disregarded. Every virtue presupposes not only the fault which lies opposite, but another which lies closely by its side, and so the freedom from passion in politics for which our author contends lies parallel, we must remember, with a lack of vital concern as fatal as passion itself, and from which nothing less than a certain degree of passion may be able to stir us.

—The Quarterly Statement of the Palestine Exploration Fund for October contains the regrettable announcement of the resignation of Dr. F. J. Bliss, so long the Director of Excavations, on account of ill health. His report, contained in this number, covers the excavations just concluded at Tell Sandahannah (St. Anna), which he is inclined to think was the Mareshah or Moresheth-Gath of the Bible and Josephus. A Seleucidan city was laid bare at this place. Among other objects some fifty fragments of stone tablets, inscribed in Greek and Hebrew, were found in the ruins of this city, which Professor Sayce considers to be "certainly charms and incantations." The Israelite remains beneath the Seleucidan city were touched at only one point. If this were really the site of Moresheth-Gath, it was of importance to explore the ruins of the Israelite period. The Seleucidan city which has been excavated is of little interest or value. It is the Israelite ruins beneath about which the world wants to know. But time was limited; there were seventy-two days of excavation, and the work came to a close. It seems as though a fatality had attended all the later excavations in Palestine conducted by the Fund. In Jerusalem the firman expired just as the important and valuable Ophel region had been reached, and that was left unexplored. At Tell es-Safi, supposed to cover the site of ancient Gath, "the centre of the mound is occupied by a village; the south end, where the ancient Acropolis probably once stood, is covered by the ruins of the crusading fortress of Blanche Garde, over which extends a large modern cemetery, and even on the northeast plateau, where we began to dig, operations were limited by another cemetery. Choosing the few unencumbered spaces, we practically exhausted the possibilities of discovery by a series of large clearances and carefully disposed shafts. The results were very disappointing." In other words, it has been impracticable to explore this important site. At Tel Hesy, the ancient Lachish, an apple-pie slice was made, which gave an admirable chronological scheme of the city, showing how the strata rested one upon another. An inscribed Babylonian tablet was found, the only object of the sort yet discovered in Palestine, suggesting the possibility of more remains of the same description in the mound. In view of this discovery it would seem as though, instead of resting content with one small slice cut out of the mound, an endeavor should have been made to explore at least the important strata of the ruins more fully; but the firman expired and that work was abandoned.

--In this Statement there is an interesting paper, by F. B. Welch, on "The Influence of the Aegean Civilization on South Palestine." In whatever other respect the Palestinian explorations may have failed, they have at least established pretty thoroughly the history of the pottery of the region, and rendered it possible to compare that history with the similar histories of Egypt and the Aegean shores. Mr. Welch points out that, in and before the period of the Mykenæan civilization, the influence was from the Aegean eastward, but that with the beginning of the Iron Age "the current was reversed, and the decadent Mykenæan art gave way to the young Phœnician civilization." Dr. Schumacher contributes an interesting note on the lava-streams recently discovered in the plain of Esdraelon, and presents evidence that these lava-streams "took place in historical times." The Rev. Dr. S. I. Curtiss describes a most interesting high place and altar at Petra, which was discovered by Professor Robinson of Chicago in the early part of this year.

BOOKS ON ART.

Sir Joshua Reynolds, First President of the Royal Academy. By Sir Walter Armstrong, Director of the National Gallery, Ireland. With Seventy-eight Photogravures and Six Lithographic Facsimiles in Color. London: William Heinemann; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1900. Folio, pp. xii—251.

Roman Art: Some of its Principles and their Application to Early Christian Painting. By Franz Wickhoff. Translated and edited by Mrs. S. Arthur Strong, LL.D. With Fourteen Plates and Numerous Text Illustrations. London: William Heinemann; New York: Macmillan. 1900.

Fra Angelico. By Langton Douglas. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 1900.

Sodoma. By the Contessa Priuli-Bon. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 1900.

Line and Form. By Walter Crane. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 1900.

Sir Joshua Reynolds: A Collection of Fifteen Pictures and a Portrait of the Painter, with Introduction and Interpretation by Estelle M. Hurll. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1900.

Sir Walter Armstrong's 'Reynolds' is far more than the most splendid and sumptuously illustrated volume of the year; it is distinctly a book to be read, though its bulk and weight make reading a difficult task. If many books of this physical presence are to be published, we shall have to go back to the stately fashion of study at a lectern that prevailed in the days when the quarto form was used for light reading and all serious publications were in folio. Yet in manner Sir Walter Armstrong's book is far from heavy, nor is it very long. It is characterized rather by a bright alertness, and seven chapters suffice for the biography, while three more contain estimates of Sir Joshua's character as a man, of his art, and of his value as a writer and theorist, and the whole is rounded off with a "Catalogue of Pictures" and an index. And this is enough. The biography gives all that is essential without the wearisome detail, and the even more wearisome guessing and padding, that are too common in the recording of uneventful lives; and the estimates of man, artist, and writer are acute, impartial, and convincing. Sir Walter is too great an admirer of Gainsborough to make the partisan mistake of considering Reynolds the only painter of his time or even the indisputable foremost, and there are many contrasts, implied and express, between the great, careless, impulsive, temperamental artist and the coolly ambitious and calculating one. Sir Joshua was born with the character of a fashionable portrait-painter and a predestined President of the Royal Academy, and, had his talent been much less than it was, he could never have been other than a materially successful man. Suave, courteous, even flattering, yet always dignified and honorable; easy of intercourse and unprejudiced, keeping on friendly terms with every one, Whig or Tory or Radical revolutionist, yet making few real friends; acquainted with all ranks from King to courtesan, yet in his own life an eminently respectable and virtuous bourgeois; just and even kind, but cold-hearted, and, if he ever had any feelings, keeping them under marvellous control; never enthusiastic and always tolerant —he was above everything the perfect man of the world. His intellect was timid and commonplace, and he accepted the current criticism of his time, and solemnly preached the theories of high art and the "grand style," while in practice he was sacrificing everything for brilliancy of immediate effect and sensuous richness of surface. An eclectic, who had no belief in genius and thought everything could be done by rule, he was yet a real painter with a strong sense of character in men and of beauty in women and children, and, when he did not let his theories ride him, produced admirable pictures, handsome in pattern, good in light and shade and color, and not much worse in drawing than those of his contemporaries. Add to all this an unerring choice of popular incident and a pretty sentiment that generally remains this side sentimentality, and there is enough to account for his prodigious vogue in his own day and since. Besides, he was intimate in a circle of the foremost literary men of his day, and his fame has been so closely associated with that of Goldsmith, Burke, and Johnson that it has become a household word to people of literary culture to whom the very name of Gainsborough has been almost unknown.

This is our reading of Sir Joshua, and, as we understand him, it is Sir Walter Armstrong's reading also. The illustrations are admirably selected and admirably reproduced. In the selection the best-known pictures, except where they are also intrinsically the best, are sacrificed to those less commonly accessible, and there is consequently an air of freshness about the collection that is as surprising as delightful. Also the photogravures, by Mr. Walter Colls, are so superior to the common run of reproductions as to give a new look even to old friends. Best of all is the magnificent frontispiece after Sir Walter Armstrong's own favorite, the beautiful and surprisingly modern-looking portrait of Nelly O'Brien in the Wallace collection. The three or four reproductions from old mezzotints are noticeably inferior, at the first glance, to those from the pictures themselves; and as the whereabouts of the original seems, in each case, to be known, we are at a loss to account for their presence here. It is perhaps easier to reproduce a mezzotint than a painting, but there seems to be a superstition among critics that these contemporary engravings are adequate representations of Reynolds's work. The half-dozen lithographs from drawings are principally valuable as showing how badly Reynolds could draw when he had a point in his hand, and could not rely upon the disguise of handling and color.

Another richly and beautifully illustrated volume is Professor Wickhoff's 'Roman Art.' The thesis of the book is that Roman art was something else than an inferior continuation of Greek traditions, that the Romans introduced into art certain elements which were practically new and national, and that from them is derived much that was notable in early Christian art and in the art of the Middle Ages and the Renaissance. It must be confessed that the book is written in a lumbering German manner, and that it is not always easy to follow it, or to understand exactly what is meant by "illusionism" and the "continuous method of narration" which Professor Wickhoff considers the great contributions of Rome to the practice of art. "Illusionism" seems to be something not unlike what others have called impressionism—that is, the production of the appearance of nature rather than the registering of actual fact; and the "continuous method" is that employed as late as Michelangelo, and occasionally since, in which the same characters appear more than once within the same scene and with a continuous background. Our knowledge of antique painting is so limited that we can hardly judge of its development except by analogy. Professor Wickhoff seems to show that just before the destruction of Pompeii a very few paintings were produced which began to have the illusionist quality; and he argues that, as Roman art in sculpture reached its highest development as late as the time of Trajan, the same thing must have happened in painting, and that the latest Roman work, if painting continued on its natural line of development, must have been much more modern in its character than anything that remains to us. His endeavor to show an analogous development of "illusionism" in sculpture seems not quite clear, though he certainly does show a difference in kind between Roman and Greek art. As to the "continuous method" the case is simpler. Something like it existed occasionally in Greek work, but it was pushed much farther by the Romans, the great typical example being the reliefs of Trajan's Column.

Laying aside questions of terminology and of particular methods, the general result of the book is to show continuity where, in art histories, there has generally been a gap. Instead of a long decadence, the art of Rome is here put before us as an art, however inferior to the art of Greece, yet living and progressing in certain directions till it was overwhelmed by the barbarians; while some of the earliest Christian art is shown, in the midst of its degradation, to have inherited qualities singularly modern, and which could have descended to it only from a very fully developed Roman art, all the examples of which have ceased to exist. It was almost our own day before any artist again saw or interpreted Nature, in some respects, as it was seen and interpreted by some of the painters of the very childish and barbarous 'Vienna Genesis.' The book is a conscientious study of the art of a period usually neglected, and, as such, is most welcome.

We have seen no better book on art, for a long time, than Mr. Langton Douglas's 'Fra Angelico.' Mr. Douglas himself considers that, "above all else, the scientific critic should cultivate humility, skepticism, reasonableness, good temper, and, not least of all, a sense of humor." By all these qualities and by acuteness, clearness, and sympathy, his own work is marked. He is not afraid to confess ignorance, and he is much less prone than most modern critics to make wild guesses, and then take them for facts, and reason from them as such. He has spent much pains and intelligence in the effort to reconstruct the real Fra Angelico and to ascertain the probable order of his works, but he seldom advances a conclusion without a sound reason for it; and he does not habitually assume that all traditional biography and traditional attributions are necessarily wrong. His theme is Angelico the conscious artist. "The Dominican painter," he says, "was not merely a saint—a saint with a happy knack of illustration. . . . He was above all else an artist to his very finger-tips, . . . *an artist who happened to be a saint.*" The popular legend of Fra Angelico has grown up naturally enough. Vasari's biography, as Mr. Douglas shows, was based upon the information given him by the monks of San Marco, and, while it is true as far as it goes, it is necessarily partial. To the Piagnoni, the *Beato* was a saint, and his art to them was merely one outcome of his saintliness. They thought of him as of a holy man, who saw heaven and the angels in his visions, and pictured them with prayer. They did not know that nothing is accomplished without means to an end; that artistic results presuppose artistic labor and artistic preoccupation, and that no saint ever pictured heaven without being first a painter. Their point of view has been that of countless writers since—indeed, coincided with the average feeling about art of those not trained to it, who always think that the artist's soul somehow gets translated by miracle into his work, and that "technique" is a thing of no importance. And then Fra Angelico "is perhaps the only master of his own rank of whom it is true that the feeblest of all his productions are those by which he is most widely known. . . . For once, a great master was shorn of his strength" and condescended to the "celestial dolls" on the frame of the Madonna dei Linajuoli, and "it is just these figures in all their inane prettiness that the public have chosen to regard as his most characteristic works." Even his pictures in the Louvre and the National Gallery "are not by any means among the most remarkable even of his paintings in tempera," and the best of these are vastly inferior to his less-known and more inaccessible frescoes. The result is that a legendary Fra Angelico, a reactionary who "bolted his monastery doors and sprinkled holy water in the face of the antique," has become the real frate alike to admirers and contemners, and their eyes have been blinded to the things that exist in his works. This has gone so far that, when confronted with the wonderful frescoes of the chapel of Pope Nicholas, where study of Nature and study of the antique are shown too plainly to be denied, the critics have taken refuge in the declaration, in spite of all the evidence in the case, that these are not by Fra Angelico at all, but by his pupil, Benozzo Gozzoli; Benozzo who, years afterwards, was doing work so immeasurably inferior even to Angelico's work at Orvieto as are the Montefalco frescoes. The common conception of Angelico is formulated by Mr. Douglas in four propositions: "(1) that 'he was not in sympathy with the artistic influences and aims of his time'; (2) that 'he turned completely aside from the antique'; (3) that 'he rejected all study of Nature'; (4) that he thought little of technique, and 'adhered to the methods of the Giottesques.'" Starting with the useful reminder that Angelico was born fourteen years before Masaccio, and was already famous when the latter was beginning his epoch-making frescoes in the Brancacci Chapel, Mr. Douglas begins a careful, lucid, and convincing study of the Dominican's paintings in their chronological order, so far as that is ascertainable, and arrives at the following somewhat surprising results: (1.) Angelico was a close student "of the works of his great contemporaries in sculpture and of the frescoes of Masaccio. In every way, he was in sympathy with the great art movement of his time." (2.) "He was an eager student of the antique, and keenly interested in the new movement in architecture. . . . And, as he was the first of the painters systematically to make pictorial use of classical forms, so there are more representations of them to be found in his works than in all the other pictures of the first half of the fifteenth century taken together." (3.) "Under the guidance of Masaccio and the sculptors, he studied . . . the human body. . . . He was . . . the earliest of the painters . . . to paint the holy child entirely naked; the earliest to give us a complete presentation of babyhood." Moreover, "he was the first Italian artist of the Renaissance to represent an actual landscape from Nature, as he was also the first to attempt to solve certain problems of aerial perspective." Finally, "he is to be reckoned one of the fathers of modern portrait painting." (4.) "In technique, as in other things, Fra Angelico was an innovator," being "the first great fresco-painter to make a large use of painting in *secco*." Of course, this view of the great frate is not entirely new. Something not unlike it may be found, for instance, in the notes to the Blashfield-Hopkins Vasari. But the marshalling of evidence, the cogency of reasoning, the fulness of illustration, in the present work are admirable. We think it safe to say that the advocate has gained his cause, and that the earlier verdict is reversed.

The other books on our list may be dismissed more briefly. The 'Sodoma,' the latest issue of the series of "Great Masters in Painting and Sculpture," is easily up to the average of its fellows, and deals adequately enough with that curious personality and fascinating talent. The book rather accentuates the tendency of this series to deal with second-rate men. Of the ten volumes now published, only three, or perhaps four if we include Donatello, deal with artists of the highest rank, while only two of the eight advertised as in preparation are devoted to indisputably first-rate men. Meantime such names as those of Leonardo, Giorgione, Titian, Veronese, Tintoretto, Dürer, Holbein, and Rubens seem to be unprovided for.

Mr. Walter Crane's 'Line and Form' probably answered its purpose well enough in its original shape of lectures delivered to the students of the Manchester Municipal School of Art, but as a printed book it is confused, unsystematic, and repetitious. It is, however, full of practical knowledge, and, in spite of its defects of form, may prove stimulating and suggestive to art-students. It is profusely illustrated with sketches by the author, and with reproductions from well-known works of art.

The last, like the first, the smallest like the largest, of the art books before us deals with Sir Joshua Reynolds. It belongs to the "Riverside Art Series," by Estelle M. Hurll, and is, we think, whether as to illustration or comment, one of the least satisfactory of the series so far. Four of the fifteen illustrations are from engravings, and of those from the originals only one or two are really good, while the text degenerates into what can hardly be dignified by any other name than twaddle.

CHILDREN'S BOOKS.

To the student of folk-lore it belongs to trace through many tongues the variants of the few world-old tales, but why should children be dosed with the endless slight variations of the same old themes? Imagine their perplexity, diligent study of last year's Christmas books having taught them that the prince escaped from the wicked magician by galloping away on a black horse, and, hotly pursued, by dropping his whip to form a broad river behind him, when this year's book turns their prince to simple "Jack," puts an Irish brogue on his tongue, and mounts him on a mare by whose advice he throws a drop of water behind him when the giant gets too near, and so improvises a lough a hundred miles long and a hundred miles deep! Jack the Giant-Killer had name as well as fame; Beauty and her Beast had at least good solid nicknames; but to-day's Protean heroes change name and manners too fast to gain lasting friends. The far-sighted Sibyl must have foreseen these rehashed fairy-books when she valued one leaf at thrice the price of three. The 'Grey Fairy Book,' by Andrew Lang (Longmans), and 'Donegal Fairy Stories,' by Seumas Macmanus (McClure, Phillips & Co.), fall into this class of more than twice-told tales. The stories which are allowed to shelter under Mr. Lang's name are, of course, well told; and he hopes, in his preface, that children may be less sensitive to repetitious incident in their stories than Mr. John Stuart Mill was regarding music. The Irish stories have the wild, barbaric flavor of some of their Teutonic counterparts, the Grimm tales, and, like them, can be highly recommended where something very bloody is desired. The large clear type and quaint pen-and-ink pictures will prove attractive to readers old or young.

'The True Annals of Fairyland,' edited by William Canton (London: Dent; New York: Macmillan), strings on a new thread the old stories—literally quoted (with acknowledgment) from well-known books, Kingsley's 'Heroes,' Lamb's 'Tales,' 'Arabian Nights,' etc.—and rests its claim to originality solely upon Charles Robinson's illustrations. Some of these are happy enough, particularly a head- or tail-piece here and there, where an artful line or two prompts fancy, while others are sadly confused and crumbly.

'The Princess's Story Book,' edited by George Laurence Gomme, F.S.A. (Longmans, Green & Co.), is made up somewhat upon the same plan with the foregoing, consisting of stories illustrative of English history, chosen from our literature of romance. Such authors as Scott, Lytton, Fenimore Cooper, Froissart, are represented, together with many others. The close, under-leaded page demands a word of warning to parents who wish to guard eyes already taxed by lesson-books.

'Yankee Enchantments,' by Charles Battell Loomis (McClure, Phillips & Co.), offers us something more original in a group of whimsical short stories full of the naturalized impossibilities with which it is so amusing to bridge the chasm between fact and pure fancy; and, surely, brand-new material is used in the stories of "imitation liquid air," "Aminadab Skelch's Free Library," and "The Boy Who Made a Trolley-Car."

The "dream fox," the night mare, the barber's parrot, the ash-barrel cat, a strange collection of animated toys, and, withal, a sleepy boy who, after too much cocoanut candy, joined the Old Year as he left the scene, and visited his mid-terrestrial cave, there to learn philosophy and dubious physics—these are the elements shaken together by Mabel Osgood Wright to crystallize into 'The Dream Fox Story Book' (Macmillan). The pictures by Oliver Herford are a decided addition to its attractions, and the printing is all one could wish.

The odd title of 'The Book of Saints and Friendly Beasts,' by Abbie Farwell Brown (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), would seem to promise something fit to fill that long-empty place beside 'The Bible in Spain' upon the young person's Sunday shelf—the saints serving to suit the day; the beasts, the taste. But, unfortunately, these stories of beasts which befriended saints are all improvingly told from the saintly side, and will be found quite insipid by the young person whose week-day reading includes 'Wild Animals I Have Known' and 'The Jungle-Book.'

Each year brings up a new crop of Golliwoggs, Topsies, Pudgies, and Wobbledies as surely as of jimson-weed and wild carrots, though, like these superfluities of vegetation, it is hard to believe that we need them (unless their names are wanted as substitutes for profanity). 'The Golliwogg's Polar Adventures,' by Bertha and Florence K. Upton (Longmans, Green & Co.), promises but cold cheer for Christmas. We suggest letting it wait to cool heated imaginations next Fourth of July. 'Urchins of the Sea,' by Marie Overton Corbin, Charles Buxton Going, and F. I. Bennett (Longmans, Green & Co.), disport themselves variously through seventy-odd pages of pictures and rhymes, where their gambols may amuse the nursery in some vacant hour.

Edith Farmiloe's 'Piccalilli' (London: Grant Richards; New York: Dutton) is an oblong folio of colored drawings of child life, largely Italian or Italianesque, with text from the artist's hands. The designs are to be praised as clever and sure to interest, but in not a few instances improvisation could easily better the story, and convert themes of theft and mock brigandage, for example, into something fitter for the very young.

While the outward attractiveness of 'The Pelican Chorus, and Other Nonsense Verses by Edward Lear' (Frederick Warne & Co.) would captivate any child, opinions may differ as to the suitability of this particular extract from the great nonsense-maker. A cordial reception may, however, be extended to Mr. L. Leslie Brooke's illustrations, except when he plagiarizes from Mr. Gelett Burgess; and older readers will be greatly interested in a prefixed letter of Lear's relating his career as artist and traveller in the East. He there appears as a serious student, who began with important zoölogical drawings, afterwards took to landscape, and taught drawing in Rome so successfully that he "was able to make a very comfortable living." He even, in 1846, the year of the first issue of the 'Book of Nonsense,' gave lessons, in England, to Queen Victoria. His serious publications, 'Rome and its Environs,' 'Journals of a Landscape Painter,' and 'Views of the Ionian Islands,' are quite forgotten beside his happy-hitting foolishness.

An exceptionally well-made and attractive volume is 'A Hundred Anecdotes of Animals, with Pictures by Percy J. Billinghurst' (John Lane). Each anecdote has a full-page design facing it. Both are open to criticism—the text for its often-stilted language, as in No. xii.: "She [the hen] put a final period to the nocturnal invader's [the rat's] existence; nimbly turned round, in wild but triumphant distraction, to her palpitating nestling, and hugged it in her victorious bosom." Nor are the pen-drawings masterly; but they are bold and taking like the letter-press, and, on the whole, we commend the book as likely to interest a child, for whom the language may easily be simplified.

It is a pity, since an explanatory text was necessary, that a better quality could not have been procured for the 'Pictures from Birdland' (London: J. M. Dent; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.) than the doggerel manufactured to order which accompanies them. The drawings representing in color the birds of varied climes, by M. and E. Detmold, are singularly striking, and are the more remarkable as the work of two fifteen-year-old boys. The artists have clearly demonstrated both a thorough acquaintance with their subjects from an ornithological standpoint, and their ability to portray them in such a broad and artistic manner as to give promise of still better results in their future work. In several pictures—the Duck and Ptarmigan, for example—there is a strong Japanese suggestiveness.

The hero of the 'Boy's Book of Explorations' (Doubleday, Page & Co.), by Tudor Jenks, is Dr. Livingstone, and next to him is Stanley. The story of their African journeys—and that of other recent travellers in the Dark Continent, though in less detail—is told in an entertaining way; information being judiciously joined with narratives of exciting adventures with man and beast. W. Woodville Rockhill and Sven Hedin are chosen to represent the explorers of Central Asia, and a chapter is given to Australia. The sub-title, "True Stories of the Heroes of Travel and Discovery in Africa, Asia, Australia, and the Americas, from the 'Dark Ages' to the 'Wonderful Century,'" is somewhat misleading, as there is barely mention of the earlier travellers, and there is nothing about the Americas. The book is attractively got up, with numerous excellent pictures.

Messrs. Dent (New York: Macmillan) have added to their "Temple Classics for Young People" five 'Fairy Tales from the Arabian Nights' in a delicious little edition. Type, printing, illustrations (twelve by T. H. Robinson), are all that could be desired, and the text is expurgated from the English vulgate of Galland with a vigor to suit the most precise of parents and inquisitive of children. Times must be changing and children with them: the infantile equivalent of the mediæval "Græcum est: non legitur," with which earlier generations slipped over the franknesses that Galland suffered to survive, apparently no longer works its charm. If so, it is a pity; and the judicious must grieve and acknowledge that such fencements of virtue as this edition offers, queerly as they read, are fit and called for. But where are we going to stop?

STUDIES IN IMPERIALISM.

Liberalism and the Empire: Three Essays, by Francis W. Hirst, Gilbert Murray, and J. L. Hammond. London: R. Brimley Johnson. 1900.

L'Angleterre et l'Impérialisme. Par Victor Bérard. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie. 1900.

These two books both deal with the same subject up to a certain point; the first is as English as the second is French. 'Liberalism and the Empire' is a small volume containing in three essays what the authors consider the gist of the Liberal view of the present situation in England, Mr. Hirst's essay dealing with "Imperialism and Finance," Mr. Murray's with "The Exploitation of Inferior Races in Ancient and Modern Times," and Mr. Hammond's with "Colonial and Foreign Policy." The writers have, of course, no new view of Imperialism nor of Liberalism to bring forward, and their papers are mainly important as an effective summing up of the case against the English reactionary party headed by Mr. Chamberlain. Some facts are brought out, however, in a novel way. For instance, we are reminded that the Jingoism which brought on the Crimean war and that which brought on the Boer war were both preceded by periods of prosperity (pp. 1-25). We may infer (especially as the same thing has often been observed before in history) that, unless there is some force in existence which will check such a consequence, prosperity causes war. The philosophy of this, in England, apparently is that the privileged classes and the aristocratic "services" are always on the watch for some channel in which to spend public money so as to advance their own interests, and that a surplus gives them an opportunity which they always improve, in order to distract public attention from domestic business. Such a channel must in most cases be foreign adventure and war. (The same impulse leads to the artificial panics got up in England over the fear of a foreign invasion.) This process goes on until a Crimean or a Boer war is actually brought on, and then, when the surplus is gone, the nation sobers down again.

The privileged classes must always be Tory, and are always in danger from democratic attack. The same thing is true of our privileged classes over here. When an American who has made his money for a generation out of a "protected" industry hears of a movement to break up "the Trusts," or to overhaul the tariff, he is filled with enthusiasm for a foreign war and Empire, and will quake with terror over the defenceless condition of our coasts, and vote any amount of money to build big battle-ships. According to the Liberal tradition, surpluses ought to be spent in paying off your debt, reducing taxes, and strengthening the country by freeing thrift, intelligence, and industry from every burden. But it cannot be done while the fit is on. If this view is correct, England will have fits of Jingoism whenever it has plenty of money and has thoroughly forgotten the last great war, and will plunge into temporary disaster, from which she will recover by application of the old Liberal remedies. In 1858, even Disraeli is said to have moved a resolution in favor of economy, to the great embarrassment of Lord Palmerston.

The Jingoes are greatly helped just now by the fact that all the promoters and speculators who want the assistance of the army and navy to exploit foreign inferior peoples and make fortunes out of improving them and bestowing on them the benefits of Anglo-Saxon civilization, are busy distributing stock and "options" among editors and titled and "smart" people; so that when the pinch comes, there is a universal cry for a vigorous foreign policy from the educated classes and the press. Corruption, like everything else, has been systematized, and Cecil Rhodes is looked upon as a public benefactor ready to give any man who will back his projects a "pointer."

The best of the essays is perhaps Mr. Hammond's. He points out that the new Imperialist cares nothing for our tradition of free speech, and is both cowardly and cruel.

> "Four years ago we were told that we could stand idly by while the Sultan massacred in thousands a community which we were bound by treaty to protect. Two years ago Russia ordered us to withdraw our ships from Port Arthur, and the Government complied. The indignity was not redeemed by persistent assertions after our retreat that our ships had the best of rights to be there. During the South African war the German Government presented certain demands in its most peremptory manner, and our Government first obeyed and then complained. Recall our action on these occasions, and then recollect the exuberant enthusiasm with which certain of our chief papers and politicians adjured the greatest of empires to make war upon a couple of tiny republics with a united peasant population comparable to that of a respectable English borough—a romantic enterprise to which was to be summoned, as though to a crusade, the valor of her colonies in all the distant corners of the world" (p. 187).

These are stinging words, but they are mild compared with those in which the writer scores Mr. Chamberlain. Yet the book, as a whole, leaves on the reader's mind a rather painful impression of impotence. What is said is true, and the writer's suggestion that the remedy is *stare supra antiquas vias* unanswerable; but, in the present temper of the public, such suggestions are fruitless. The discussion they evoke is barren, and the only reply made is to build more battle-ships. Parliament is there, but the Opposition is timid and nerveless. It contains no longer any Foxes, or Cannings, or Peels, or Gladstones.

In Victor Bérard's book the question of Imperialism is approached from a different point of view. His theory of the subject may be abridged as follows: Imperialism in England is an economic heresy, which had its rise in the desire to obtain more markets. Free trade and good government had made England the great commercial nation of the modern world; but, for some reason, its industries showed signs of ceasing to expand, and its rivals in trade began to prosper. Birmingham was the centre of the depression, and hence Birmingham produced in Mr. Chamberlain a statesman with a remedy. Seeing that Germany was competing for the first time with England in foreign markets, and seeing also that Germany had just had a successful war and become an empire, and had protection and a Zollverein, the conclusion was reached that the thing to do was for England to imitate Germany. The new thinkers accordingly began to preach empire, protection, and colonial federation. Protection, however, being a word of ill omen in England, is called in the new vocabulary "Fair Trade." Now, says M. Bérard, the whole fabric rests on a pure delusion as to the sources of German prosperity. He brings forward a great quantity of evidence, and the best of it is that it is official English evidence, which shows conclusively that the reason why Germany has been driving England out of foreign markets—so far as she has done so—is that her traders, and clerks, and merchants have learned their business more thoroughly than their English competitors; that while the English were going on in their old ways, the Germans were studying foreign markets and adapting their wares to the wants of foreign customers. If we inquire why the Germans should be specially able to do this, the answer is that they are the most highly educated and thorough people in Europe, and have in the last generation "gone in" for scientific and technical industrial knowledge, just as their fathers and grandfathers "went in" for pure erudition. Their war with France has been followed by a long peace, and this peace they have employed by training themselves for industry and commerce. Even their protective system has been mitigated by commercial tariffs which have left trade comparatively free, and hence modern Germany is a great commercial, industrial, and eminently peace-loving country; superimposed upon it is a sort of mediæval Imperialism (there is nothing mediæval about the mass of the army, which is merely a highly organized militia, without much professional military interest or instinct), which in foreign eyes assumes such importance as to mask the real Germany behind it. Consequently, if the English want to recover their industrial headship, they must train themselves in the way the Germans do. Instead of this, they have proceeded on the theory that the true source of German prosperity is its Imperialism (though they cannot copy it, for the English Empire is mainly titular, and the English military service unpopularized), and Mr. Chamberlain is engaged in persuading them that Empire is the key to "markets," and Mr. Rhodes that their flag is their great "commercial asset."

It is all made plain here, and the reader wonders why the English do not see it aright themselves. Why, after having once waked up to the truth seventy-five years ago, and having proved to the world that the secret of national success was peace, freedom, thrift, and hard work, have they suddenly rushed into the delusion that it was all a mistake, and that national prosperity is really produced by War, Empire, Privilege, and Protection? If the views of M. Bérard and the three English essayists are correct, the case is that of the heads of a whole electorate being turned by too much prosperity. Having attained prosperity and honor and wealth, England wishes to keep and increase them without going on with the hard work which brought them. Every one has seen this state of mind addle the brains of individuals in private life and bring them to the poorhouse. Can the same sort of folly introduced on a great scale into public business end in anything but disaster? The Boer war is costing $500,000,000 and has struck a serious blow at England's prestige on the Continent; notwithstanding which the nation, as one man, ratifies the action of the Government, and bids it go on. Meanwhile the German is hard at work in his Realschule and his laboratory, and his *commis-voyageur* is mastering his three languages for use abroad, and saving money, while his English rival is playing golf, cursing the Germans for underselling him, and spending his superfluous cash in distant and profitless wars. The disease is one which must run its course, and promises to leave the patient in a very depleted condition; so, at least, the wretched foreigners on the Continent think. But then it must be confessed that the English have a wonderful recuperative power, and that the follies and vices criticised by M. Bérard—the insularity, the pride, the greed, the contempt for science, and rule-of-thumb empiricism—have always hitherto been counterbalanced by virtues which in the long run have prevented national decay.

The Progress of Invention in the Nineteenth Century. By Edward W. Byrn. New York: Munn & Co. 1900. 8vo, pp. 476.

It is a primary rule of the ethics of rhetoric that every prose composition should begin by informing the reader what its aim is, with sufficient precision to enable him to decide whether to read it or not. If the title can do this, all the better. 'Under the Red, Red Rose' tells us what we have to expect better than any description in abstract terms that the writer could furnish. The man who puts pen to paper to produce anything like a treatise should, for his readers' sake, and for his own, begin by defining precisely what his book is intended to tell. If the title of this work does so, then certainly among the characteristics of the nineteenth century must be reckoned the peculiar meaning it has imposed upon the word "invention." Nobody, of course, will expect to find here anything about poetic invention, nor about imaginary quantities and homogeneous coördinates; nor about Trusts, clearing-houses, trade-unions, and postage-stamps—great inventions all; nor yet about Bunsen's ice calorimeter and the Holtz machine. One may search the pages in vain for the second-sight trick, the bunco game, or spiritualistic manifestations. It would seem at first, therefore, that under the term "invention" the author means to include only patented inventions; but that is not so, either, for, among the "leading inventions of the nineteenth century," he reckons the different systems of medical practice, the Voltaic pile (which was neither patented nor produced in the nineteenth century), the discoveries of the different chemical elements, Babbage's calculating machine, the Suez Canal, the Brooklyn Bridge, the Capitol at Washington, etc. We can only conclude that the writer has never defined to himself what it was that he proposed to treat of. If he had done so, he certainly would have made a much better book, for he has shrunk from no amount of labor and research.

In the same way, under the different heads, we are furnished with no means of foreseeing what will be found in the book, and what not. For instance, as long as bridges are included at all, one would expect to find here some mention, at least, of the first Niagara bridge, which involved whatever invention there was in the Brooklyn bridge; and this receives a paragraph and picture. The chief inventional feature of these bridges, the stiffening-truss, is not pointed out. The manner in which all the small bridges of the country are now supplied, almost ready-made, by bridge companies is an inventional characteristic of the century worthy of note; but it is not noticed. Almost every chapter is open to similar criticism. Many of the features and circumstances which are the most fundamental, characteristic, and otherwise worthy of attention are passed by unrecognized. The book is, of course, not addressed to persons of any particular technical or scientific knowledge; and those to whom it is addressed will, in any case, necessarily remain ignorant of much that is highly significant. Yet if the author had made space by cutting out all that does not relate, directly or indirectly, to patented inventions, and had used that space to explain the importance of the matters best repaying the ordinary reader's attention, he would have immensely increased the usefulness of his work. Take, for example, the cut-off of a steam-engine. From the few words that are said about it, no definite idea can be obtained of how much it accomplishes. A single paragraph might have given the ordinary reader an insight into the steam-engine which he would have been very glad to gain.

We should not have taken the trouble to make such criticisms if this work belonged to the ordinary type of picture-books about inventions, of which there are so many. It is a serious attempt to give an account of the "inventions," whatever that may mean, of the century, of their successive improvements and gradual adoption, such as every intelligent men must desire to read. It has no value as literature; but it goes over the ground with a good approach to thoroughness. The index contains nearly nine hundred entries. It is a work upon which far more labor has been expended than can be paid for by the money it can be expected to bring to its author. It is, therefore, worthy of respectful criticism, and not of being passed by as "highly interesting." It may be hoped that in a future edition the improvements above suggested may be made. If it is thought that they would render the book too dry, insertion concerning the personality of some of the most remarkable inventors—most of them men of marked personality, and of various different types—would enliven the text. But, as far as we remember, this has been done only in the case of Goodyear.

An advertisement slipped into the volume admonishes us that the work makes claims to "human interest." If this means that it has the sort of value that literary power might give to such a book, we cannot allow the claim. But it certainly is curious to see how human life appears as seen from the windows of the Patent Office. There are some three hundred illustrations and figures, all most pertinent and clear. A view of the steamer *Occanic* as if sailing above the best-known part of Broadway is striking.

Colonial Days and Ways, as Gathered from Family Papers. By Helen Evertson Smith of Sharon, Conn. With Decorations by Guernsey Moore. The Century Co.

Stage-Coach and Tavern Days. By Alice Morse Earle. The Macmillan Co.

"Colonial days and ways," as gathered from family papers and interpreted by Miss Smith, become very real to us. Having family connection with the several lines of colonists which took possession of the New World, she is able to set forth their individual characteristics and modes of initiating and carrying forward settlement and home life in a very fresh and effective manner. Her opportunity for research has been exceptional. She has had access to great ancestral mansions of the colonial period, and gives vivid pictures of Yankee, Dutch, and Huguenot interiors in minute detail. We read with envy of that wonderful Sharon garret in which were stored such masses of ancient papers, legal documents, sheepskin-bound ledgers, diaries, family letters, "reaching back to the earlier immigrants in Massachusetts and Connecticut." Those who know the difficulty of unearthing the "true inwardness" of home life in those early days will appreciate the great value of some of these treasures. Here is a fragment of a letter found in the charred interior of the Great Bible, partly consumed with other books and papers when the great house was barely saved from destruction. It was written in 1699 by Samuel Smith of Hadley, Mass., son of the Rev. Henry Smith of Wetherfield, Conn.:

> "My Reverend Father was an ordained Minister of y^{e} Gospelle, educate at Cambridge in England, and came to y^{is} land by reason of y^{e} Great Persecution by which y^{e} infamous Archbishop Laud and y^{e} Black Tom Tyrante (as Mr. Russell was always wont to call y^{e} Earl of Strafforde) did cause y^{e} reign of his Majesty, Charles y^{e} First, to lose favor in y^{e} sight of y^{e} people of England. . . . I do well remember y^{e} face and figure of my Honored Father. He was 5 foote, 10 inches talle and spare of build tho not leane. He was as active as y^{e} Red Skin men and sinewy. His delight was in sportes of strengthe, and withe his owne hands he did helpe to reare both our owne house & y^{e} Firste Meetinge House of Wethersfield, wherein he preacht yeares too fewe. He was well Featured and Fresh favored with faire skin & longe curling Hair (as neare all of us have had) with a merrie eye & sweete smilinge mouthe, tho he coulde frowne sternelie eno' when need was."

Where can one find a more attractive portrait of a Puritan minister? His son continues:

> "Ye firste Meeting House was solid mayde to withstand y^{e} wicked onsaults of y^{e} Red Skins. Its Foundations was laide in y^{e} feare of y^{e} Lord, but its walls were truly laide in y^{e} feare of y^{e} Indians for many & grate was y^{e} terrors of em. I do minde me y^{t} alle y^{e} able-bodyed men did work thereat & y^{e} olde and feeble did watch in turn to espie if any Salvages were in hidinge neare & every man kept his musket nighe to his hande. . . . .
>
> "After y^{e} Red Skins y^{e} grate Terror of our lives at Weathersfield & for many years after we had moved to Hadley to live was y^{e} Wolves. Catamounts were bad eno' & so was y^{e} Beares, but it was y^{e} Wolves y^{t} was y^{e} worst. The noyse of theyre howlings was eno to curdle y^{e} bloode of y^{e} stoutest and I have never seen y^{e} man y^{t} did not shiver at y^{e} sounde of a pack of em. What with y^{e} way we hated em and y^{e} goode money y^{t} was offered for theyre Heads we do not heare em now so much, but when I do I feel again y^{e} younge Hatred rising in my bloode & it is not a Sin because God mayde em to be hated. My mother & sister did each of em Kill more y^{an} one of y^{e} gray Howlers & once my oldest Sister shot a Beare y^{t} came too neare y^{e} House. He was a goode Fatte one & keept us all in meate for a good while. I guess one of her Daughters has got y^{e} skinne."

Equally fresh and realistic is Miss Smith's report of the persecutions endured by her Huguenot ancestors in their mother country, and their marvellous escape in casks across the British Channel, and later voyage to America. She gives a most attractive picture of those light-hearted French refugees, with their adaptability and deftness, their aptitude for art, music, fine work, and all the gentler courtesies of life. Besides all these personal narratives, Miss Smith relates many interesting incidents connected with the Revolutionary period. The book also abounds in descriptions of old-time customs—soap-making, candle-making, merry-making—and gives us glimpses of a far-back Medical Society and Literary Club. It would be difficult to find another volume relating to this period comprising so much of personal, general, and public interest.

In 'Stage-Coach and Tavern-Days,' Mrs. Alice Morse Earle has found a theme as exhaustless as her own patience and industry. Geographically it extends from Atlantic to Pacific, from Maine to New Mexico; chronologically from the compulsory Puritan ordinary to the modern tally-ho. It takes in the famous old Revolutionary and pre-Revolutionary taverns where liberty was cradled, and the jovial, rollicking, free-and-easy tavern of the exhilarating turnpike era. We follow the evolution of the road from Indian trail and Bay Path to solid macadam. We see the stages themselves in every "stage" of transformation. One very interesting chapter is devoted to tavern-signs and symbols of endless variety and ingenuity; and of these signs and taverns, coaches and wagons, Mrs. Earle gives pictorial representations. Together with a vast amount of solid information, the book contains numberless humorous and illustrative anecdotes and incidents—much that pertains to historic phases and development. As the old town meeting-house represents the religious and civil elements in our first settlements, so the old tavern stands for the secular side of life. In this review of Mrs. Earle's we see how wide and varied were the interests that centred in them: courts, caucuses, patriotic convocations, amusements, exhibitions. Especially the social festive element, was connected with the tavern. Every old tavern had its hall for dancing and assemblies. Much of the picturesqueness and romance of olden time was associated with these bygone institutions, and this volume will help to keep them and the stage-coach in memory.

Milton. By Walter Raleigh. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

This book, beyond doubt, is a notable piece of critical writing by one of the coming masters in the art. Not that Milton is a specially sympathetic subject for Mr. Raleigh, except in so far as he is the great master of English poetical style and so a fit subject for a student of style; and not that there are not grave faults of taste and manner, especially in the treatment of 'Paradise Lost; but the work as criticism is undeniably clever and often subtle and penetrating, while frequently, too, it is written in a style which persuades one that a part of Lowell's mantle has fallen upon the author. Mr. Raleigh has made a great advance upon the manner of his book upon 'Style' of three years ago. His workmanship is more articulate and substantial; humor is beginning to take the place of wit; there is all of the former sparkle and felicity of phrase, while there is little of the old self-conscious straining for effect. Something of the old manner, agreeably applied, may perhaps be felt in this characterization of the common English view of poets who meddle with politics:

> "They have been compared to birds of Paradise, which were long believed to have no feet; and the common sense of the English people, with a touch of the municipal logic of Dogberry, has enacted that whereas they have no feet, and have moreover been proved to have no feet, it shall be forbidden them, under the strictest pains and penalties, to alight and walk. Their function is to beautify the distant landscape with the flash of wings."

The disciple of Stevenson and Pater, but the disciple who has come into his own, is felt in such a passage as the following on the scheme of Milton's universe in 'Paradise Lost':

> "It is no mean city. Noble shapes pass before our eyes. High language is held, and great wars are waged. Events of tremendous import roll on to their destined accomplishment. Golden processions move across the dim expanse of Chaos. Worlds are blown and broken like bubbles. There is concerted song, feasting, and gratulation; dire plots are hatched and blaze forth into light; will clashes with will; Heaven opens, and a torrent of flaming ruin is poured forth into the deep. The Victor, ensconced in his omnipotence, is fiercely triumphant; and in the dark below there is the dull gleam of unconquered pride, deadly courage, and immortal despair. But in the midst of all this vast rivalry of interests and jar of opposed systems, a cry is heard, like that muffled cry which caught Macbeth's ear as he nerved himself for his last fight. It is the cry of the human soul, left homeless and derelict in a universe where she is the only alien. For her the amaranth of the empyreal Heaven is as comfortless as the adamant of Hell. She has lost her Paradise even while Adam's was building—the Paradise where the flowers fade, and loves and hates are mortal."

The best parts of the book are those which deal with Milton's versification and style. Save for these the writing flags somewhat as the work proceeds. The conspicuous and substantial points in Mr. Raleigh's ideas are that Milton, contrary to the accepted literary tradition, owes little to Spenser, but much to the Elizabethan dramatists: that his genius is essentially materialistic, that it lacks spirituality, and that he is neither a religious poet, a visionary, a mystic, nor a Christian (these paradoxes are explained at some length in the book); that his interest, in his later period as in his middle period, is essentially political, while in politics he is a simple idealist; that Satan is the hero and centre of interest in 'Paradise Lost,' and that Milton's conception of God is impossible; that Milton is not a belated Elizabethan (as, for example, Shirley truly is), but the first of the great English classicists, coördinate in historical place with Dryden, and so the long line of imitations of Milton throughout the English eighteenth century constitute rather continuations of classicism than beginnings of romanticism; that Milton immediately after his death came into his full literary reputation; and that he is the inventor and promulgator of that "poetic diction" which, in the time of its decadence, Wordsworth so strongly assailed.

This book is so good in most parts that we could wish to see it purged of certain minor deformities. It is hardly worth while (pp. 169-171) to devote three pages to a synopsis of the Gospel of Nicodemus, in order to exhibit a theme which Milton *might* have treated, although, in fact, he never did. The whole of the author's "Epilogue" (pp. 271-280) is quite superfluous and were better omitted, in spite of some admirable comment in it on Vaughan's poetry, and not only because it contains some very dubious and certainly disproportionate appreciation of the love lyrics of Sedlcy and Rochester. At page 62 the title of Marvell's tract should be 'The Rehearsal Transprosed.' It is hardly exact to say (page 69): "Unlike the Paradise that was lost, this Paradise [the Paradise of Fools in book iii.] is wholly of Milton's invention." As Milton himself hints, and as the commentators have explained time out of mind, Milton's source here was a famous passage in Ariosto's 'Orlando Furioso' (canto xxxiv., stanzas 70 and following). At page 129 read Calvinist for "Calvanist." Pages 175, 177, and the first half of 193 and 108 seem to us infelicitously written. These minor defects, however, are few, and the reader who enjoys literary criticism practised as a personal art by a writer possessed of abundant literary insight and of a lively feeling for style, will welcome this volume.

A Sportswoman in India: Personal Adventures and Experiences of Travel in Known and Unknown India. By Isabel Savory. With forty-eight illustrations and a photogravure of the author. London: Hutchinson & Co.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1900.

Miss Savory, as sister to a commissioner's wife, was made to feel at home everywhere in India, and in virtue of her sex was doubly welcomed by native princes and British officers as a companion in hunts. She cannot have hidden her age so persistently as she does from first to last the year of her expedition to India. That year, however, though never mentioned, soon becomes an open secret to her readers when she describes seeing a total eclipse at Buxar, which all the world has noted as on January 22, 1898. Had her coming been a year later, she could not have found military men spoiling for mountain tramps and encounters with wild beasts. In her own view it was "a happy occasion which enabled her to call into play the latent forces and capabilities with which she was endowed" (p. 29). The blood more stirs to rouse a lion than to start a hare.

When she was invited with a colonel's wife and three officers by a Manarajah to a "pig-sticking," fourteen elephants and fifty beaters were a small fraction of the paraphernalia. Thanks to home experience, she was able to join in the steeplechase, and saw Madam M. unhorsed and saving her life only by shamming death. She had herself, however, no hand in killing the two boars that were speared. Her next adventure was a goat chase. In climbing a narrow path between a crag and a chasm, one of her pony's hind feet, dislodging a jutting rock, sunk with it, and, after clinging with his forefeet during the instant that she sprang from the saddle, he fell into the fatal abyss. "The perpendicular height was not less than 300 yards" (p. 143). She was then in Kashmir, sometimes in Alpine altitudes, where her ideal huntress, Mrs. M., had been caught in an avalanche and swept down a long way in its snowy couloir, but her own hunt here was chiefly on lower lines, and for bears, in a military party. On one occasion, when an old bear who had been missed by a huntsman's rifle charged upon him, the beast was shot "when not farther, at the largest estimation, than four yards" from Miss Savory, who, herself, carried no gun. His skin, courteously accorded to her, she dispatched to London. This, with one smaller bear, was the only trophy of a six weeks' hunt. Still more fruitless was a climb above the snow-line in search for the so-called "twelve-horn" deer. She was at last left alone in a tent with only natives around her. Her escort, returning after some days, exhausted by a higher climb, found her to have been deluged with rain, which turned to sleet and deep snow. Escape from the highlands was not easy. Swollen streams they crossed creeping on hands and knees upon fallen trees. They reached at last a rest-house, where they were stifled in smoke, and rats ran riot over them all night. Six months of such roughing afford confirmation to Schopenhauer's pessimistic theory that man's happiness lies in escapes from misery.

Miss Savory was among the guests of the manager of an elephant trap, and saw no less than fifty-seven of those biggest-born of earth driven in a body into an enclosure not unlike those in which our aborigines entrapped buffaloes. Our Amazon seems never to have caught a glimpse of a tiger at large, yet her most thrilling chapter tells the story of a tiger hunt in which a woman actually shot a tiger dead, and thus saved the life of a man whom the beast had already disabled by a scratch. That king of Indian jungles is seldom killed without deaths among the native beaters who rouse him from his lair. But the hunters run little risk. They mount by ladders into trees that have no branches within fifteen feet of the ground, and sit on a sort of elbow-chair cushions till their prey are driven beneath their feet and plunging fire. Such a safe stand and its machinery seem ridiculously unsportsmanlike, but they give significance to a monument at Fatehpur which was a puzzle to the present writer. In the park without the gates, circling a tower which bristles all over with elephantine tusks, he saw a platform higher than any beast can leap, faced on every side with a sheer wall of stone. Here Akbar and his favorites sat under canopies at their ease, until royal game driven by his army became a fair mark for the shooters from above. Such a system, compelling the mountain to come to Mahomet, could grow up only with "the enormous faith of many made for one."

A dozen of the author's pages are devoted to snakes, because her sister had trodden on one, and another had bitten a servant; but Miss Savory, in her catalogue of horrors, missed one contrivance which made the writer shudder. In dining-rooms, beneath the high-peaked thatch, a horizontal sheet is stretched, and that with a view to keep snakes, which very often infest the thatch, from falling into the midst of a family at meals. Her visits were not in thatched houses.

These hunting stories were told for home consumption and among Anglo-Indians. The style is audacious, and spiced with sportsman's slang, as well as rollicking rhymes and forty-eight excellent process illustrations, so that the book will attract readers. Faults are too many to notice. The author admires Rudyard Kipling, yet calls him head of the Art School at Lahore. She confounds square miles with linear. When told that the ruins about Delhi cover forty-five square miles, she exclaims: "Imagine London spreading down to Oxford!" (p. 317). She affects Indian words oftener than Kipling, and explains them far more seldom. "Our beaters," she writes, "wore only a loin-cloth and a puggaree." The meaning being head-cloth, why not say so? The form puggaree is also not among the four forms in the Century Dictionary. We find all unexplained *chenar* for sycamore, *dhoolie* for litter, *harti* for elephant, *nullah* for gully, *shikari* for hunter, *yak* for ox, with no interpretation. How many readers will open, sometimes not finding what they seek, the six volumes of the Century to ascertain what the six signify? Did authors realize that blanks would mean as much to most readers as outlandish terms, they would admit that such strictures as have scourged Americanisms are ten times more needed against Indianisms, through which the well of English undefiled is traded off for a Babylonish dialect of patched and piebald languages.

The Girl and the Guardsman. By Alexander Black. Charles Scribner's Sons.

His Wisdom the Defender. By Simon Newcomb. Harper & Brothers.

'The Girl and the Guardsman' is a story of the slightest possible texture, almost overweighted by its sumptuous exterior. The heavy paper, large print, copious and finely executed illustrations combine in a lordly piece of bookmaking, while the story is a short romance treated in the style of a farce. But it is a clear and bright little farce, and the public is not called on to quarrel with its mounting. If Irving should stage "Poor Pillicoddy," who would have a right to object?

Fairy stories of the future have or have not a keen interest in accordance with the reader's trend of mind. But a scientific fairy story related by an expert in science must attract, we should think, the attention of many who are wont to disdain next-century literature in general. To read Professor Newcomb's detailed and lucid story of the discovery of etherine (or ether in its effect on matter), its application as a motive power, the step-by-step development of the mote or airship, the drilling of crews, the use of stored oxygen for their breathing on their aerial and super-aerial voyages, is to find every difficulty overcome, and to wonder whether perhaps the author's own astronomic investigations may not be conducted in some such way. His hero, Campbell, worked in secret through busy, patient years, experimenting, applying, perfecting, till the great invention was ready to be turned to the world's benefit. For there is a meaning underlying the story of mechanical achievement. The inventor and owner of the airships, unlike Maxim in our generation, toils for nothing less than the abolition of war. His aids are cohorts of high-minded youth sworn to secrecy; first trained to be effective machines, then evolved into a brotherhood. One fine morning all is ready and the great work begins of putting an end to war by demolishing the strongest army in the world, and that by dispersion, not bloodshed. Telling how it all came about and how Campbell became the Defender of the World's Peace, would be to forestall the reader's interest—and we refrain. The book is as full of wonders as a fairy-story should be, and it has an unpreached moral as the world's best fairy-stories have. Grown-ups, after reading it, should pass it on to thoughtful boys. We have seen one little fellow's eyes shine as the story was retold to him by an elder. To associate the achievements of science with the cessation of war is not a bad thing. The human mind has before this absorbed a wise notion or two through myths.

A Book of Bachelors. By Arthur W. Fox. With Illustrations. Westminster: Archibald Constable & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 1900. 8vo, pp. xvi, 449.

The above title recalls that of the famous work of an old-time namesake of the author; not that bachelors have much to do with martyrs, though Mr. Fox jocosely includes them in that noble army. Nor have the ten worthies here celebrated any special connection with each other, except that most of them lived under Elizabeth and the earlier Stuarts. They were not all contemporaries, for Overbury and Coryate died before Cowley's birth (1618), and Smith in 1591, while Boorde's dates were 1489 and 1549. As their biographer, with obvious sincerity, disclaims any intention of lauding celibacy or reviling wives, and as it is only his title which lays stress on the unmarried state of his subjects, they would seem but an accidental collection of personages upon whom his "reading has chanced to fall." He is a literary antiquarian, one of those British scholars of unbounded leisure who laboriously collect all data pertaining to their chosen topics, without too anxious a regard to the importance of their materials or the human interest of the result. He is sensible, fair-minded, and conscientious to the last degree; he writes exemplary English, and is capable of an occasional mild witticism; but there praise has to pause. Between subject-matter and workmanship, the outcome is unconvincing.

Of his themes, Cowley, Bishop Andrewes, and Archbishop Abbot are familiar. The same may be said of Sir Henry Wotton and of Burton, the anatomist of melancholy. Sir Thomas Overbury is remembered for his tragic fate and the villany of his titled persecutors. Coryate, the traveller, and Boorde, the ex-Carthusian, ex-Bishop, and physician, receive brief notice in some books of reference. Few Americans have heard of Peacham the schoolmaster or Henry Smith the preacher; how far they were worth reviving, the reader of this volume may judge. Mr. Fox accuses "the unkind partiality of Fate" towards "some of the no longer honored dead"; but that is as it may be. He who undertakes to rescue a lost reputation or fill a gap in the gallery of fame must show wherein his protégés were memorable; when his subjects are known, the biographer or essayist is expected either to cast new light upon them, or at least to set forth their characters and lives vividly and attractively. Each of these sketches offers a careful array of details in chronologic order, scrupulously weighs probabilities and doubts, and attempts to estimate the man in his environment; but there is little of suggestiveness, less of illumination, and the result is not enlivening. If the reader is not already interested in the topics, he will find it difficult to become so as he turns these pages. The author modestly describes his work as "to a large extent of the nature of a compilation"; but even a compiler should be able to give more "characterization" and produce a clearer and stronger impression of his themes than one is likely to find here.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

American Wit and Humor. 2 vols. Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co. 50 cents each.
Arnold-Forster, H. O. The War Office, the Army, and the Empire. Cassell & Co. 75 cents.
Ballentine, F. S. The Modern American Bible: St. Matthew and St. Mark (2 vols.). Thomas Whittaker.
Barnes's Natural Slant Penmanship. Books A and B. Also Books 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6. American Book Co.
Barrows, C. M. Suggestion instead of Medicine. Boston: C. M. Barrows.
Blanchard, Amy E. Dimple Dallas. Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co. $1.
Broughton, Rhoda. Foes in Law. Macmillan. $1.50.
Burlamacchi, Marchesa. Luca della Robbia. (Great Masters in Painting and Sculpture.) London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 5s.
Burnham, S. M. Our Names: Their Origin and Signification. Boston: A. L. Bradley & Co. 75 cents.
Carr, Blanche C. Old Wine in New Bottles. The Neely Co.
Chambers, Arthur. Man and the Spiritual World. Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co. $1.25.
Charles, Louis. Fortune Hunters of the Philippines. The Mershon Co. 50 cents.
Coppée, François. Happy Suffering. London: Rivingtons. 3s. 6d.
Driver, S. R. The Book of Daniel. (The Cambridge Bible for Schools and Colleges.) Cambridge (Eng.): University Press; New York: Macmillan. 75 cents.
Duncan, Norman. The Soul of the Street. McClure, Phillips & Co. $1.25.
Ellet, Elizabeth F. The Women of the American Revolution. 2 vols. Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co. $4.
Fiske, John. Old Virginia and her Neighbours. Holiday ed. 2 vols. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $8.
Forrester, Izola L. The Girls of Bonnie Castle. Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co. $1.25.
Forsyth, G. A. Thrilling Days in Army Life. Harpers. $1.50.
Fuller, Charles. What a New York Trooper Saw of the War. A. Mackel & Co. 25 cents.
Hall, W. S. Elementary Anatomy, Physiology, and Hygiene. American Book Co. 75 cents.
Hastie, W. Kant's Cosmogony. Glasgow: James MacLehose & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.
Hirn, Yrjö. The Origins of Art. Macmillan. $3.25.
Knutsford, Viscountess. Life and Letters of Zachary Macaulay. London: Edward Arnold. 16s.

Krausse, Alexis. The Far East; Its History and its Question. London: Grant Richards; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $6.
Krausse, Alexis. The Story of the Chinese Crisis. Cassell & Co. $1.
Maude Adams in L'Aiglon. (Souvenir). R. H. Russell.
Meade, Laura T. A Plucky Girl. Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co. $1.25.
Miln, Louise Jordan. Woolngs and Weddings in Many Lands. Chicago: H. S. Stone & Co. $2.50.
Moody, W. V. The Masque of Judgement. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. $1.50.
Morman, J. B. The Principles of Social Progress. Rochester: E. Darrow & Co.
Morris, H. C. The History of Colonization. 2 vols. Macmillan. $4.
Nesbit, E. The Book of Dragons. Harpers.
O'Dea, James. Daddy Long-Legs. M. Witmark & Sons.
Oxley, J. MacD. L'Hasa at Last. Philadelphia: American Baptist Publication Society. $1.25.
Parry, Judge. Don Quixote of the Mancha. Retold for the Young. Illustrated by Walter Crane. John Lane.
Peabody, Prof. F. G. Jesus Christ and the Social Question. Macmillan Co. $1.50.
Peabody, Josephine Preston. Fortune and Men's Eyes. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. $1.50.
Raikes, Judge. The Maritime Codes of Italy. London: Effingham Wilson. 12s. 6d.
Rawnsley, H. D. Memories of the Tennysons. Glasgow: James MacLehose & Sons; New York: Macmillan.
Spencer, Herbert. First Principles: Synthetic Philosophy. New ed. D. Appleton & Co.
Sheehan, P. A. My New Curate. Boston: Marlier & Co. $1.50.
Sutphen, Van Tassel. The Cardinal's Rose. Harpers. $1.50.
Taylor, C. M., jr. Odd Bits of Travel with Brush and Camera. Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs. $2.
Thomson, L. N. Looking through the Mists. F. T. Neely.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 13, 1900.

The Week.

The Army Bill, so mangled that it bore little resemblance to the poorly drawn measure so hastily introduced on Monday week, passed the House on Thursday by a vote of 166 to 133, a number of Democrats voting in the affirmative. It is not often that the Congressional spoilsmen have such a glorious opportunity, and they made the most of it by giving the army merit system worse blows than those dealt to the civil service by President McKinley. As it now stands, volunteers and civilians can find more than one loophole to get into the service for which they may or may not be fitted, without examination; and finally, the age limit for lieutenants was removed. Any incapable volunteer officer of fifty years or so with the requisite pull can now be sure of getting a place next to or ahead of the latest batch of West Pointers fresh from four years of careful training, and, after a few years' service, can go upon the retired list with a comfortable pension for life. If the House deserves praise for refusing to appoint Gen. Shafter a major-general on the retired list, and for declining to retire Gens. James H. Wilson and Fitzhugh Lee, little else can be said to its credit. The infliction of another highly officered staff corps—of horse doctors—and of a department of dental surgeons upon the abused army establishment would alone condemn the bill. Such disorganization as this is the sole reward meted out to the faithful, gallant, and capable little regular army which fought and won the battle of Santiago, which bears the brunt of the Philippine struggle, and whose merits were but yesterday trumpeted so loudly. Fortunately, the Senate may yet insist upon some measure of decency before the bill becomes a law.

When the retired list of the United States army was established, it was for the express purpose of pensioning deserving officers of long service who had attained the age of sixty-four years. It was also intended to relieve the highest grades of worthy but superannuated officers and to insure regular promotions. There never was the slightest intention of using the retired list as a means of getting foul-mouthed, incompetent, or insubordinate officers off the active list. For this purpose there was established a regular system of courts-martial, and a corps of official prosecutors known as judge-advocates-general. Such a court-martial tried Brig-Gen. Charles P. Eagan, Commissary-General of the army, for language, unbecoming a fish-wife, used towards his superior officer, the commander of the army, at a time when American and foreign attention was particularly centred upon our military. For this grossly scandalous conduct the court-martial sentenced Gen. Eagan, in February, 1899, to dismissal from the service—the only punishment commensurate with the offence. A weak and temporizing President commuted this sentence to six years' suspension from duty on full pay. Now, in order to do tardy justice to the officer who has been filling Gen. Eagan's place with less rank and pay, the President has restored to duty and retired Gen. Eagan at his own request, with three-quarters pay for life, no other method of getting rid of him being open. By this action Mr. McKinley has entirely misused the retired list, while his failure to mete out justice when the case was first submitted to him has now caused him to put an indignity upon every officer of the retired list who is on it for meritorious reasons.

It is surely a cause for satisfaction that the House of Representatives has gone on record against the army canteen in such a way that its will cannot again be misunderstood or misinterpreted. This may be said wholly aside from the question of the advisability of the institution. Nearly two years ago, Congress declared opposition to the sale of intoxicating liquors on Government reservations, but its action was nullified and its will disobeyed by a most extraordinary legal decision of Attorney-General Griggs, with which the public at large is familiar. That a high law officer should be able deliberately to thwart the wishes of the highest legislative body in the land is neither a desirable nor a fitting thing, and Representative Littlefield deserves much credit for his success in getting the House to stand fast and repeat its action. If the Senate adopts this plan and makes it a law, the discussion of the value of the canteen will continue unchecked. Army officers, following Gen. Corbin's later judgment of 1899 will declare in large numbers that it is better that soldiers should drink Government beer than privately owned liquor in the infamous dens which surround most army posts. Army officers opposed to the canteen, like Gen. Corbin in 1892—and there are such—will mostly continue to keep silent, in view of the obvious bias of their superior officers, and of the doubt whether their letters would ever see the light of day after reaching Gen. Corbin. Meanwhile some facts should not be overlooked. In navies the world over, the trend has been distinctly away from serving liquor to the crews, as used to be the custom in our own fleet. As for armies, the canteen, being in the post, offers numberless attractions to the soldiers passing and repassing all day, and the "light beer" is often but a stimulus to the desire for more alcoholic drinks.

Thanks are due to Congressman McCall, the independent and plain-spoken Republican of Massachusetts, for his speech on the Army Bill. He resorted to no subterfuges and made no apologies, but struck directly at the war in the Philippines as an attack upon human liberty, for which a permanent increase in the army was demanded. Then he called for action by Congress to put an end to the war by the simple process of telling the Filipinos that we intend to give them self-government. To this, Mr. Hull of Iowa replied that the President was obliged under the Treaty of Paris to maintain the sovereignty of the United States in the islands, and that in order to do so he must have soldiers. This was not responsive to Mr. McCall's argument, since no embarrassments beset Congress in this particular. It has always been open to Congress to make a declaration respecting the Philippines similar to that made concerning Cuba, and no time could be more appropriate for making it than the present, when an army bill is pending. Mr. Hull evidently perceived the weakness of his reply to Mr. McCall, for he immediately added that he believed that the Philippines would remain under our sway as long as our Government lasted. So the cat is out of the bag. There is to be a permanent increase of the army to 100,000 men for the purpose of holding in subjection a distant and alien people who have so little in common with us that we are not willing to make them our fellow-citizens. This increase of the army is to be put in the discretion of the President in order to avoid responsibility on the part of Congressmen who vote for the bill, and who seek to avoid all other responsibility by refusing to pass any bill to settle the government of the Philippines.

Senator Frye has spoken for two days in favor of the Ship-Subsidy Bill, and has thus set an example, in the way of talking against time, of which the opponents of the measure may possibly avail themselves. He reiterates the *ad captandum* phrase so often repeated, that we have paid and are paying millions of dollars to foreigners which we ought to save by carrying our own freight to foreign countries. What does he mean by saying that "we paid" this money? It is a fact well known that the greater part of all shipments products to foreign coun- lly of the bulkier ones, are oreign account, and are ar- and paid for, by foreigners ought our products here and their own arrangements for In the selection of vessels ing these shipments, sentiment part. It is merely a question , and unless the United States ared to pay its citizens to en- the foreign shipping business at to such an extent as to reduce ntire international freight rate, ill will not prevent those who buy export our products from employ- foreign ships; and until the whole rnational freight rate is reduced, ducers here will obtain no more for ir goods than at present. Moreover, the case where an American mer- hant buys goods for export and en gages his own freight room, he gets the full value that he pays for, whether he hires an American ship or a foreign one; consequently there is no loss either to him or to the country. Chartering an American ship to do the same work at a higher price is a loss of the difference to the American merchant, and hence to the country of which he is a part. The theory of the Subsidy Bill is that the United States Treasury shall make good this difference, and that then it will be a net gain to the country instead of a loss, and not merely a gain of this small difference, but a gain of the whole amount of the freight.

Senator Frye's notion of amending the Ship-Subsidy Bill into a semblance of decency is evidently that of making a fairer division of the swag. By nicely adjusting the booty between Pacific and Atlantic, between American-built and foreign-built steamers, he thinks to obviate all reasonable objection. It apparently never occurs to him that the offensive thing is not the manner of dividing the spoil, but the fact that there is any spoil to divide. Nor does he seem to perceive anything abhorrent in the cool insolence of a committee of interested persons, who meet in Washington and instruct Congress in just what proportions to give them $9,000,000 a year. This impudent exhibition of greed, however, with its open assertion of ownership of the Republican party, is what is making Western Republicans shake their heads, and is the main obstacle in the way of the bill. Another obstacle is taking shape in the evident preparations of foreign capital to invade American ship-yards and so be ready for a share of the largess. As the chief announced object of the Subsidy Bill is to do away with the monstrous crime of paying any money to ners, we do not see how a measure one cent of interest to invested in

"Senatorial courtesy" has responsible for offences of various sorts. What may be called Representative courtesy is now invoked to justify a legislative outrage. Charles A. Boutelle went to Congress from Maine in 1881, and served continuously from that time until his health broke down last year, with steadily increasing efficiency during the latter part of the period, particularly as Chairman of the House Committee on Naval Affairs. Last summer his Republican constituents renominated him for another term, to which he was elected in September, although his condition at the time was such as to justify small hope of his recovery. Indeed, the chief argument for giving him this nomination was that his mental state was such that it might kill him to learn that he had been set aside for disability. Everybody now recognizes that he can never resume his duties at Washington, and as he has no private income, some one proposed that a bill should be passed authorizing his appointment as a captain on the retired list of the navy upon his resignation from Congress. The Committee on Naval Affairs on Friday reported this bill favorably, and it is pretty safe to predict that their action will be ratified by the House, and then endorsed by the Senate as a matter of comity between the two branches.

Mr. Boutelle's case appeals to popular sympathy, but it does not warrant such injustice to others as will be involved in the passage of the pending bill. A captain in the navy who goes on the retired list, receives for the rest of his life one-half or three-quarters of the sea pay ($3,500) of his rank, and the placing upon this list of a man from civil life would mean that he would be put upon the same plane with the man who has been serving steadily in the navy since the Maine Congressman left it, nearly thirty-five years ago. This would be grossly unjust in itself, and pernicious as a precedent. A private pension act in Mr. Boutelle's behalf would at least not involve such injustice to others. But in truth his case is not one for Congressional legislation at all. Mr. Boutelle has a host of personal and political friends, and it should be an easy matter to raise the moderate sum required to secure an annuity which would render his last years comfortable.

While our bankers and brokers are complaining of our present stamp-taxes upon stock transfers as excessive, news comes from Berlin that the oldest association of merchants in that city has memorialized the Imperial Chancellor for relief from similar taxes levied upon them by the Imperial Government, and has asked for a general reform of the law regulating stock-exchange transac- The memorial declares that the

years, have misconception. Aside hibition of legitimate speculative and selling of stocks and grain, taxation on all transfers has been disastrously burdensome. This has greatly embarrassed the banks, and the evil consequences have been far-reaching. The memorial declares that the thrifty laborer and handicraftsman and the small investor have suffered equally with the great merchant, manufacturer, or landowner, and that agriculture, trade, and industry, national and international, have been seriously handicapped. It seeks a remission of taxes on stock transfers, which, it insists, are unjust, since they are collected irrespective of the amount of profit or loss involved in any given sale, and it urges a reinstatement of the exchanges and of legitimate speculation in futures.

Sunday's dispatches make clearer than ever the evils of the European occupation of China, and the demoralizing influence of the great and irresponsible powers wielded by the provisional government. At Tientsin, we learn, there are eight department heads, who draw a salary of $8,000 apiece, their eight deputies receive $6,000, and numerous officials are paid as much as $3,000. These positions are sinecures, and any one can see how odious this exploitation must appear in the eyes of the Chinese. It is most gratifying that we as Americans have had no part in this sorry business. Whatever may have been the terms of Gen. Chaffee's "offensive" note protesting to Gen. Waldersee against the looting of the Imperial Observatory, its spirit was that of every right-feeling American. In protesting against the incurring of future and permanent obligations by the provisional government, he acted with a soldierly sense of honor that has been rarely shown in the whole Chinese business. In instructing the American representative in the provisional government to receive nothing beyond his army pay, he refuted the taunt of commercialism so often made against Americans *quâ* Americans. Minister Wu Ting Fang, who spoke some interesting words in this city on Sunday on Confucianism and Christianity, would, we believe, in considering the attitude and the acts of the other Christian Powers in China, be inclined to distinguish between Gen. Chaffee and the other commanders, finding in him that kind of practical recognition of man-to-man duties which is the essence of Confucian ethics.

It is really a tremendous victory public sentiment to have forced into giving up every feature of his inal State Constabulary scheme

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the suggestion that the Governor shall have the power to remove summarily the single Police Commissioner who is to be appointed by the Mayor. The plea for this exception to full acceptance of the home-rule principle in the matter is that an emergency might arise in which the interests of the State would suffer irreparable harm unless its Executive could interfere immediately. It is argued, for example, that a bad Police Commissioner might threaten the fairness of a State or Presidential election, and might be sustained in his action by the Mayor, so that the only remedy would be his instant displacement by some higher power. But the experience of the city in the recent election shows that it is not at all necessary that the Governor shall have the power to remove the head of the Police Department in order to insure fair play at the polls. Gov. Roosevelt's letter to the Mayor notifying him that the Executive would hold him responsible if anything went wrong, served the purpose perfectly. The great objection to such a division of power as is now proposed is that it gives two officials, generally representing two parties, authority over one man, and that is almost sure to work badly.

In the course of one of his speeches during the anti-Quay campaign of 1898, Mr. John Wanamaker publicly criticised and denounced one of the Quay schemes for the plunder of the State Treasury. This was the publication and printing of a State poultry book for the information of farmers. Originally intended as a pamphlet to be sold for twenty cents, it appeared from the press as a large volume with expensive colored plates of game birds, deer, and other animals, the whole issue costing the State $56,000, or about four and one-half dollars a copy. The State printer, one Robinson, had the effrontery to sue Mr. Wanamaker for slander on the ground that no one could show that any of the spoils had stuck to his fingers. Judge Wilson of Beaver County on Thursday non-suited the plaintiff, thereby not only upholding the Bill of Rights, but also the principle that public criticism of public officers which does not involve intentional or malicious misstatement of fact is not libellous. In this respect the case was not unlike the Butler-Holt indictment in this city a short time ago, and any other verdict would have been an inspiration to bosses the country over.

Mr. Chamberlain is a first-class fighting man, and the battle always rages fiercest in his vicinity; so that the bitter personal attacks upon him in both houses of Parliament on Thursday may be taken by his friends as a tribute to his prowess. But the sting which lurks in Lord Rosebery's summing up of the charges against the Colonial Secretary—that, while he had not been proved to be personally corrupt, "the pride of England in the purity of its public men" had suffered in the spectacle which Chamberlain presents—will long remain to plague him. As usual, Mr. Chamberlain is on record as having taken the highest moral ground against the very practices in which he has now been caught. When Sir Hercules Robinson was named High Commissioner to South Africa, Chamberlain attacked the appointment, on the ground that Sir Hercules had held shares in the South African Company. It was not that he expected the Commissioner to be "improperly influenced," but a person chosen by the Queen for high office must be, like Cæsar's wife, not only pure, but beyond suspicion. This sounds grandly coming from the man who, as Colonial Secretary, has been shown to be connected, either in his own name or through his family, with five different companies having Government contracts.

The Salisbury and the Chamberlain family connection between them pretty fully occupied the House of Commons on Monday. It was Mr. Chamberlain's *oratio pro domo sua* that must have been most painful to make. He made it most adroitly; appealed to his own record and that of his family for commercial honesty, repudiated indignantly the charge that he personally had profited, or his family (who were plain business folk, with their fortune to make), unduly, by Government contracts, while as for those unfortunate investments, it was simply heartless to persecute an honorable man for an indirect interest in Government contracts amounting to a few pounds, or perhaps shillings only. It is in the morally impotent conclusion that the Brummagem note sounds full. Probably no one seriously charges Mr. Chamberlain with deliberate corruption. What Mr. Chamberlain only too clearly shows of himself is this, that the "honorable and sensitive" man who writhes under these charges, was not sensitive enough to drop investments, however small that might expose him to Monday's humiliation. For a humiliation it was, even if the resolution of censure was defeated by what, with the abstaining Irish members present, would have been a bare majority of the House. Mr. Balfour had an easier time in his plea for the Salisbury family in the Cabinet. It was a Conservative, to be sure, who proposed a resolution of regret that Lord Salisbury had appointed his own relations so freely. But Mr. Balfour had only to say, waiving any punctilio of false modesty, that the appointments were excellent ones, and that in such case "the unhappy accident of birth ought not to be a bar to public service." The House assented by a handsome majority. A moralist might well ponder the advantage of a family with no Government pounds, shillings, and pence to explain away, over one with a few to account for.

Mr. Chamberlain never displayed his personal and political adroitness to greater advantage than in his statement in the House of Commons on Friday regarding the future of the Boer republics. The cat-like agility with which he always falls on his feet was again seen. The day before he had been the object of the bitterest attacks. On Friday the session closed in universal applause for the Colonial Secretary, whose conciliatory and statesmanlike declaration concerning the Transvaal and Orange River Colony delighted even his opponents. What they cheered most of all was his intimation that the Rand gold-miners, who did their best to bring on the war, were to be taxed smartly to help pay for it. This will wring the souls of those gentry, who have already begun to complain that they are going to be mulcted more heavily by the English than they were by the Dutch. But Chamberlain was famous of old for his doctrine of "ransom" to be paid by the rich, and he evidently now means to apply it in Johannesburg.

A writer in the *Nineteenth Century*, attracted by the statement in a London paper that "industrial casualty lists of killed and wounded workmen in England show a heavier expenditure of life than that revealed by the war lists," has subjected the casualties of war and of industry to accurate statistical measurement. He finds the rates per thousand as follows: For non-commissioned officers and men killed or died of wounds in South Africa, 20.5; died of disease, 31.4; wounded, 67.4; total, 119.3 per 1,000, or 1 in 11 exposed killed, 1 in 15 wounded, and 1 in 20 died of wounds or disease. Making allowance for those who would have died in the service from ordinary, not war, risks, the writer finds that a year of war has caused an excess in the normal death rate of 36.9 per 1,000, and a non-fatal wound rate of 67.4 per 1,000. This, it may be remarked, is not a high casualty rate if it be compared with rates which have been maintained in other wars, such as our own Civil War, but it is still much higher than any industrial risk. In one year, from September, 1899, to August, 1900, it appears there were 4,308 persons killed and 89,042 injured in England by industrial accidents, and these totals, the writer admits, may well occasion something of a shock. But he points out that there were exposed to risks 5,416,043 persons, and that the rates are very small—0.79 for deaths, and 16.44 for injuries, or 1 workman killed in 1,260, and 1 injured in 60.

REDUCE THE TAXES.

In a dispatch to the Associated Press a few days since, Secretary Gage was quoted as saying that it would be extremely unwise to make a greater reduction of the war tax than $30,000,000. Continuing the conversation, he said:

> "When I recommended a reduction of $30,000,000, I had in mind the inevitable heavy expenditures for the army and navy as well as other departments of the Government. The added expense of maintenance of an army of approximately 100,000 instead of 27,000 men, has been shown to be about $70,000,000 a year. Our receipts from the war taxes approximate $100,000,000 a year, so, speaking broadly, the proposed reduction of $30,000,000 would leave just about enough special revenues to meet the extraordinary expenses of the army."

Mr. Payne, the Chairman of the Committee on Ways and Means, thinks, on the other hand, that a reduction of $40,000,000 may be made without endangering any public interest, naval, military, or civil. At all events, he and his committee intend to take the risk. In this step they are to be encouraged and commended for a variety of reasons. In the first place, there was a public understanding at the time when the war tax was enacted that it would continue no longer than the war. It was for a special and unforeseen emergency, and was not to be regarded as a permanent burden on the taxpayers. The war with Spain ended two years ago, but we are now told that the tax was intended to include the consequences of the war as well as the war itself. Undoubtedly it is proper to include in this category all the necessary consequences of the war—that is, all pecuniary obligations incurred in carrying it on, including pensions for disabled soldiers and sailors, claims for property taken for public use, and any damages for which the Government should be liable. These are the legitimate consequences of the war and were the only ones contemplated when the war tax was enacted. The pacification and policing of Cuba until a government could be established by the Cubans for themselves was also one of the necessary consequences of the war. But it never was intended to include another war among the consequences of the war with Spain, least of all a war on the other side of the globe for the subjugation of a people who had never done us any wrong. If any such intention had been proclaimed or suspected at the time when the tax was enacted, the war in the Philippines would not have received the sanction of one American citizen, either white or black, either in or out of Congress.

Well, the war exists. Would you allow the army in the Philippines to perish for want of supplies, arms, munitions, medicines, recruits, etc.? No, that is not the question before the House. The question is whether the pressure which taxation puts upon both Government and people shall be applied in favor of peace or of continued war. If the question were now an open one, if the present war tax were before Congress as a new measure and the people were asked to take $70,000,000 per year from their pockets in order to fight a people in Eastern Asia, no such bill could be passed. Ways and means would be found to put an end to the war at once. Surely no end could be more appropriate to a self-governing and freedom-loving people than that of conferring self-government and freedom on another people who have fallen into our hands by the mere chance of a war with their former oppressors. We favor the cutting down of taxes to the barest living expenses of the Government in order to compel those who administer it to lop off all useless expenses, and especially war expenses which have never been sanctioned by the people. A joint resolution of Congress not longer than five lines, offering to the Filipinos the same terms that were given to the Cubans, would end the war and its expenditures of treasure, of blood, and of reputation.

There are still other reasons for cutting down the taxes. A surplus in the Treasury makes an easy berth for the Secretary, but it nurses all kinds of jobbery and demoralization, ship subsidies, river and harbor bills, public-building extravagance, canals, battle-ships, etc. Their name is legion, and they are coming on with eagerness to relieve the Treasury. No surplus will ever be too much for them. The larger the surplus, the more powerful the temptation to the lobby. There is much reason to believe that the Nicaragua Canal Bill itself embraces an enormous money-making scheme, and that it has "joined teams" with the Ship-Subsidy Bill to relieve the Treasury of any money that may be left over during the next ten years. The men who bring forward these schemes cannot be beaten by arguments. They can be defeated only by an empty Treasury and by the necessity of public borrowing to satisfy their claims. An issue of bonds always puts the people on inquiry what is done with their money, and makes them angry unless the objects for which it is spent are absolutely necessary for the national honor and welfare. Borrowing for maintaining specie payments was such an object; borrowing for the war with Spain was considered such by the majority of the people. Only for these two purposes has the Government contracted new loans since the end of the civil war. If it were forced to borrow in order to pay ship subsidies, or to erect public buildings in out-of-the-way places, or to carry on war in the Philippines, it would soon find a way to avoid those expenses altogether. Therefore, let tax reduction go on merrily. The safety of the republic lies in a lean Treasury.

THE ISTHMIAN-CANAL REPORT.

It is evident that the able and impartial engineers who have been investigating for our Government the question of an interoceanic canal, were somewhat embarrassed by the union of two subjects in their instructions. They were to report on an engineering problem. They were also to give their opinion on a question of national policy. It was not simply "the most practicable and feasible route" for a canal which they were to determine. They were to decide as well where best a canal could be built "under the control, management, and ownership of the United States." It is clearly the latter consideration which has led them to declare for the Nicaragua route. On engineering and economic grounds pure and simple, the award would have been made to the Panama route. But the Panama Company made no satisfactory proposal for the transfer of their concession and other property to this country, and therefore the Commission had nothing to do but to look elsewhere.

The superior natural advantages of the Panama location are frankly set forth in the report. A canal there would be shorter, straighter, cheaper than one through Nicaragua. Having but 300 feet to surmount at the divide, it would need fewer locks. There remains the question of distance from our Atlantic and Pacific harbors. Much has been made of this by vociferous advocates of the Nicaragua route. They have dwelt on the fact that the distance from San Francisco to New York would be 377 miles greater by Panama than by Nicaragua; to New Orleans 579 miles; to Liverpool 386 miles. Now, of course, if the canal is to be a part of our "coast line," as Blaine contended, it ought to be as near us as possible. Indeed, we fearlessly assert that every unnecessary mile between a country and its coast line is a confessed blunder, either of man or nature. But if a canal is to be thought of simply as a channel through which to get ships as speedily and safely as possible, the question becomes one of actual sailing time, not of measured distances on the map.

On this point the Commission deal a blow to vulgar prejudice, and let the wind out of much Senatorial oratory, by quietly remarking that, in the matter of time consumed, the Nicaragua Canal would be only "somewhat" more advantageous than the Panama route to a vessel plying between San Francisco and New York. The reason is that it will require thirty-three hours for a ship to pass through the Nicaragua Canal, while but twelve will suffice at Panama. We think the Commission might have gone somewhat further than this. Gen. Henry L. Abbot, U. S. A., one of the leading engineers of the world, has made a very close examination of this question, and publishes his results in the December *Atlantic*. He finds the relative times of transit to be: by Panama, 10 hours, 50 minutes; by Nicaragua, 43 hours, 41 minutes. This practically wipes out the difference in sea distance. As Gen. Abbot puts it, "a steamer leaving New York via Panama is really ten hours nearer Honolulu, and less than five hours further from San Francisco, than if she went by way of Nicaragua." This is saying nothing of the greater chance of detention, accident, etc., in the longer and more curving Nicaragua Canal.

But it is useless to labor such technical points of engineering and sea-travel, inasmuch as the decision favoring Nicaragua is confessedly made on the score of more facile Government ownership. Even so, the careful Commission qualify their verdict by saying that it is made "assuming that Nicaragua and Costa Rica recognize the value of the canal to themselves, and are prepared to grant concessions on terms which are reasonable and acceptable to the United States." Here, then, is still an unknown x in the equation. One thing is certain. Nicaragua will insist upon retaining nominal sovereignty over the canal, and will make us pay smartly for any long-term lease carrying with it control of traffic and policing of the canal. She will not hold her property at a lower figure, we may be sure, for having learned from our Commission that she has what the United States is determined to buy at any price. In the Commission's estimate of $200,000,000 cost, nothing is set down for buying a right of way. It is to be hoped that the Nicaraguans will not exact too many millions additional; but they are certainly in a position to squeeze rich and careless Uncle Sam hard.

The French Panama Company seems to have lost its chance through too much trust in logic and lucidity. Its route was demonstrably the best and cheapest, ergo it was nonsense to suppose that the United States would select another. All that the Panama people had to do was to sit tight and our Government would come to their terms in the end. What, spend $50,000,000 more and take five years more time to build a canal at Nicaragua? This would be a *sottise* to the French mind, and the shrewd Americans would never be guilty of it. So the Panama Company fenced and delayed, and finally, when it took alarm, was not able to make a clear-cut proposal for the sale of its property. The Frenchmen must see now that interoceanic canals, when undertaken in pursuance of national policy, are but one illustration more of how little logic has to do in governing the world.

The canal is not yet dug. Many preliminaries remain even before the first spadeful of earth can be thrown out, and the Commission estimate that it will take ten years to build the canal after a beginning is made. We must yet hope that some way will be found to take over the Panama property. A canal two-fifths done already, capable of being finished in six or seven years at a cost of $50,000,000 or $60,000,000 less; a better natural route, a safer work when completed—surely common sense on both sides should find some way of preventing the enormous waste of capital which would result if the Panama Canal were to be wholly abandoned now. However that may be, the condition previous to any canal is the ratification of the Hay-Pauncefote treaty. Until that be had we cannot build or own either canal. It is now the unfinished business in the secret session of the Senate, and should be pressed to a speedy vote. Our honor and our interest alike demand its approval. Only by means of it can we hope to see the dreams of Goethe and Humboldt realized, and a great waterway for peaceful commerce opened between the Atlantic and Pacific.

THE OVERREACHING OF CUBA.

In Swift's 'Tale of a Tub,' it will be remembered, the three sons set their wits to work to vitiate their father's will while still inheriting under it. It forbade them to wear shoulder-knots, or gold lace, or silver fringe, or embroidery on their coats; but, by a little clever manipulation of the language of his last will and testament, they managed to be in the height of the fashion at the same time that they professed implicit obedience to the paternal commands. For example, the word meaning fringe meant also broomstick; doubtless their father meant them to avoid wearing silver broomsticks, and who more scrupulous than they in heeding that injunction? If they wore embroidery, it was not "in the sense as forbidden by their father," but only in so far as it was "a commendable custom and of great use to the public."

The need of a satirist to lash similar hypocrisy in our dealings with Cuba will soon be urgent. The evidence that the Administration means to juggle with the country's plighted faith in the matter of a Cuban government is accumulating on every hand. Not once since the war with Spain has one officer of the American Government mentioned the word independence in any official promise to the Cubans. The President's message refers with marked coldness, and vagueness phenomenal even for him, to the whole subject. Secretary Root, in his annual report, touches upon the question of the future Cuban Government, but only to express doubt of the capacity of the Cubans to govern themselves, and covertly to threaten them if they do not prove ductile to his will. What else can he mean by speaking of the "uncertainty as to the continuance of a market for her [Cuba's] products"? Does he intend to begin a tariff war on Cuban sugar and tobacco, if annexation sentiment does not develop as he would like to see it?

More significant than these negative signs, more tell-tale even than the operations of "the Cuban Company" in the island, is the inspired announcement of the Administration's programme as made by Mr. Walter Wellman in the *Review of Reviews*. He professes to speak the mind of Mr. Root and President McKinley, and what he says is fully in line with the "feelers" put out by many recent diners at the White House, and with the information that comes to us privately from entirely trustworthy sources. In a word, the scheme is to set up a crippled dependency of the United States and call it an independent and sovereign state. Cuba is to be allowed no army. She may create no navy. She is to enjoy no diplomatic relations with other countries. All her foreign relations will be attended to at Washington. Finally, she will not be permitted to make a public loan. All these essential attributes of sovereignty having been stripped from her, she will be expected to rise up and call us blessed. After having cut off both her arms and one leg, we shall tell her that she is gloriously fitted by our kindness to run an independent career.

This is brutal enough, but we do not give Swift his real chance until we undertake to reconcile our conduct with our solemnly pledged word. Here is where Mr. Wellman comes out with his little 'Tale of a Tub.' The "inevitable question" arises, he says, whether such treatment of Cuba as he outlines would be an "honorable redemption" of our pledge. He admits that a great majority of the people both of Cuba and the United States would declare that it is not; but he adds that "a minority," and "among them the President of the United States and his official advisers," believe that it would be a "keeping of that pledge in a *practical* and not in a *sentimental* sense." There we have Swift's Peter, Martin, and Jack over again, flouting their father's express will, because to do so would be of "great use to the public."

We shall not let Mr. Root off with any quibble about "independence." It is clear as daylight that when Congress declared the island of Cuba to be of right "free and independent," it had in mind no such miserable shift as Mr. Wellman now says the Secretary of War has planned. Let that go. Congress also called the world to witness that it disclaimed "any disposition or intention to exercise sovereignty, jurisdiction, or *control* over said island." Is it no "control" of Cuba to take away its power of defence? No control to say that it shall have no means of diplomatic representation with other nations? No control to forbid it to borrow a dollar? How, if we do these things, are we going to keep our pledge in a "practical sense," or any other sense? The practical sense, to which Mr. Wellman says the President is so devoted, means to admit that we lied.

This, we say, is the moral humiliation to which the Administration is planning to subject the country. People have besought the President to make to the Filipinos the same promises we made to the Cubans. His policy is, rather, to shuffle out of the promises we made to the Cubans, and treat them as he is treating the Filipinos. Instead of a nation that fears the one Jehovah, swearing to its own hurt and changing not, he would have us again exhibit to mankind "the incomparable pliancy of a polytheist." The issue is exceeding simple. Do not say that we ought not to have given the pledge—we gave it. Do not urge that it would be better for the Cubans to have us control them—we said we would not do it. We dared not enter upon war with Spain without invoking the considerate judgment of mankind, and professing the most unselfish motives. We cannot now thrust our tongues in our cheeks and say that it was all humbug and hypocrisy. Yet the acknowledged intention of the Administration is thus to trifle with our sacred honor. To compass its plans it is trusting partly to luck, partly to time, and more to the deadening of the conscience of the American people. For our part, we speak out now, as we shall to the end, to protest against an act which would, on the part of the United States, be one of simple infamy.

IF THE PROPHET NATHAN CAME TO NEW YORK.

In the necessary lull which has come in the outer and organized work for the rescue of the city, it is a good time for searching our hearts and asking ourselves if we have really measured the task which lies before us, and our own fitness to undertake it. Dr. Huntington forcibly said, in his address last week to the Brotherhood of St. Andrew, that any reform worth praying and working for must strike deeper than the current talk of politicians and business men would lead us to think they mean to go. We must lay the axe to the root of the tree. We cannot cut away vice if we spare the system which creates vice. Is it, in fact, the existence of vice which distresses us, or the mere fact that it flaunts itself in the streets? Do we repent of our sins, or simply regret their unpleasant consequences? We fear that a Tacitus, recording the outlook for reform in New York, would say that we were too much like the Roman Emperor in fixing our eyes upon evils instead of, as we should, upon their remedies.

It is needful to use great plainness of speech. In the mere matter of determining responsibility for the conditions in our city—which make its residents, as Gibbon said of the citizens of Naples, feel that they are living "on the confines of paradise and hell-fire"—the truth has not been set forth nakedly. A prophet's fire and fearlessness would be needed to do it. If Nathan were to come to New York and be as unflinching in dealing with us as he was in laying bare the guilt of his king, should we find him prophesying smooth things? Would he point to Croker or to Platt —miserable spawn of corruption that they both are—as the true fount and source of all our misery? No, he would pierce to underlying causes. He would rebuke the real sinners. If the prophet Nathan came to New York, he would see to it that judgment began at the house of God. He would go to those clergymen who have sought and accepted Croker's aid in securing legislation—good legislation, of course—at Albany. He would seek out Platt's pastor. He would go to the Catholic priests who have taken rich gifts from the Tammany crew—known to be blood-money. He would enter those sanctuaries where sit honored members and officers of the Christian church who regularly turn over their checks for blackmail or for bribery to Croker and Platt. Before all these unconfessed and unrebuked sinners the prophet of God would stand, and, singling out each one with flaming eye and accusatory finger, he would say, "Thou art the man!"

In like manner he would go to every newspaper that crawls in the dust to get police advertising from Croker and Platt, and that makes a tacit league with hell as a part of the contract. He would go to that railroad president who told his friends at dinner that he liked the boss system—it was so much simpler to pay over $100,000 to Platt and Croker each in one check and have no more trouble. He would not omit to visit that head of a great insurance company who said, "Pay? Of course we pay, and to both sides alike. But if I am called on to testify, I shall swear I know nothing about it." To all of these citizens, to the men of wealth and standing, many of whom, as Mr. Hewitt boldly said to the Chamber of Commerce, were there present, though they had done their best to fasten the clutch of Tammany upon the city, the prophet Nathan would sternly say, "Corruption? Ye are a potent cause of it. Reform? Ye are a part of the thing to be reformed."

Nor would the seer fail to touch with his spear of truth many of the men who are loudest in their cries of horror at Tammany wickedness. How the politician-denouncers of Tammany would shrivel before him! He would show us that they wished to cast out Croker only to install in his place seven devils worse than he; that they cried out on the Tammany prostitution of the police force only so that they might obtain control of it themselves for purposes fully as vile; that they exclaimed against the revenue from crime and death only because they wanted to see it diverted to their own pockets.

Of what we say, the sum is this. We shall get no reform worth the name by political arrangements. Politics has sunk us into the pit where we lie, and can never pull us out. A party, or what calls itself a party, may turn Tammany out of office; but if the thing be done in the name of politics, it will be only a passing spasm of virtue, and our last state will soon be worse than our first. Put it down first and foremost that the business we have in hand is a moral reform of the whole community. We have a disease to attend to, not symptoms. It is not an election, but a moral crusade which we are facing in this city. No man should come forward to engage in it, or be allowed to engage in it, unless he will abjure politics, renounce the devil and all his works, and pluck out an eye or cut off a hand if it offends. We are convinced that the conscience of the city has already been stirred, and can be greatly roused. A mighty movement may result. The politicians will try to get their hands on it; but it is for those who see clear and think straight to insist upon it, in season and out of season, that the city is to be saved, not by parties or political leaders, but by the application of elementary morals and the plain principles of civic pride and unselfish patriotism.

THE FOREIGN POLICY OF ENGLAND.

ENGLAND, November 24, 1900.

Your note on the foreign policy of Lord Salisbury in the *Nation*, No. 1845, and a review of Brooks Adams's 'America's Economic Supremacy' in the *Spectator*, have quickened my intention to say something in regard to that foreign policy which I have studied, with more than the general advantages of a journalist, since Lord Salisbury last assumed the Government in 1895. And though what you say of his laboring "for peace and the future" is in one sense perfectly true, it is also true that he would have done more in the same direction if he had simply disarmed England, and consented to the eclipse which Mr. Adams very clearly and correctly indicates as the future of England. Whether Lord Salisbury has correctly judged the temper of the nation and found that it will no longer accept the burthen of leading Europe as it did in the first half of the century, or whether, as seems to be the general opinion in England, his nerves have given out, and a quite un-English timidity taken possession of him, it is hard to decide. What is clear is, that he has in several instances maintained peace by simply putting off the evil day for a worse occasion, and abandoning positions taken up with firm purpose and which the future security of England made of high importance.

In justice to the Conservative Government, however, it must be said that the preceding Ministry had made the position delicate by setting an example of a yielding policy towards France, so that when the Conservatives came to the government, a return to the old policy of a firm front to French aggression would have been understood as hostility and an aggressive tendency. But Salisbury went further than Rosebery in yielding to the insistent pressure of France, whose Government, recognizing his ultra-pacific temper, carried on a system of little encroachments, to each of which he submitted for the sake of peace, until he has finally, for the sake of peace, been driven a distance which he would have refused to go had it been put to him in the totality, even at the cost of fighting. Thus, the violation of the treaty which bound France not to go to Tunis, along with the pledge not to fortify or make a military port of Biserta, the invasions of the hinterland in Africa, etc., etc., were submitted to as "points not worth fighting about," while the general policy of which they were the details would have driven England to war if seen in the ensemble. When these aggressions went so far as to occupy Fashoda, a territory once occupied and always claimed by Egypt, and from which France had been emphatically warned, the pacific Briton flashed out and the toe kicked.

But, for this change of temper, there were two reasons beyond the general policy of peace at any price which had prevailed in European affairs. The great scheme of a trans-African railway, the "Cape-to-Cairo" scheme, was the big thing of the day, for which Englishmen might be willing to fight, though I doubt it; but a more imperious consideration, and one respect for which is a *sine qua non* of the maintenance of England's position in Egypt, was the feeling of the best people there that the possession of the head waters of the Nile made the power which held them the arbiter of the prosperity of Egypt, and were France their possessor the task of governing the country would become an impossible one for England. I was a witness of the negotiations between England and Italy concerning the occupation of Kassala, which had become indispensable to the security of the Italian colony against the raids of the Dervish bands. The proposal of Italy to assume a position on the branch of the Nile which furnished the fertilizing waters for its floods, produced a panic at Cairo, through the idle fear that some day it might be in the interest of Italy to turn the waters of that branch away from the Nile; and the English negotiators were obliged to insist, in the conditions of the treaty, on the engagement of the Italian Government to recede Kassala whenever the Egyptian Government was ready to take possession and should demand it. The negotiations finally broke off, and the treaty was only made long after—when the agitation in Egypt had been forgotten—and included the pledge to evacuate whenever Cairo demanded it. But the idle scare about Kassala was as a dream compared to that which the possession of the Nile so near its sources would have been, and the maintenance of the French possession of Fashoda was a notice to England to quit, for, by the alliance with Abyssinia and the supremacy over the tribes to the West, France could have poured into the valley above Khartum a force which would have swept Egypt clean of all the forces England could muster, to say nothing of damming the Nile temporarily, and causing for one year at least a famine which the popular anticipation would have made worse than that of Joseph's days. Even so I question whether Salisbury, left to himself, would not have submitted to this last aggression for the sake of peace, had not Cromer, a more energetic and abler man, determined the issue.

There is no public opinion in England concerning foreign affairs. I am told that no ministry ever fell on a question of foreign policy. Englishmen, even of the more intelligent classes, neither know nor care for European matters, and are quite indifferent as to whether England has a friend on the Continent or not. The blind faith in England's invincibility, born of the long supremacy during and after the Napoleonic wars, still lingers, and makes Englishmen indifferent to the fact that great Powers have risen in these days, and that the control of Europe has passed into other hands; so they take no interest in the changes going on. I question if Lord Salisbury himself realizes that the most implacable and inveterate enemy of England is France, whom no concession of questions in debate will ever placate, and nothing satisfy but the humiliation, indisputable and complete, of perfidious Albion, for he goes on buying peace of his enemy by consenting to petty aggressions which would, if tried on any other first-rate Power, cause a war at once. Imagine the Emperor of Germany with the treaty in his hands by which France bound herself not to occupy Tunis and not to fortify Biserta, the most important naval station in the Mediterranean, seeing the treaty cynically ignored in both respects! And if it be said that the matter is not worth making a protest over, why have made a treaty over it?

One of the journals of Lord Salisbury's party eulogizes his wisdom in getting out of the Armenian demonstration without war; but why in the name of common sense did he get into it? He, and he alone, provoked the question and dragged Italy and Austria into it, and then backed out of it, leaving Italy to pay the costs. It was a shabby affair from beginning to end—the first a sheer piece of empty bullying, and the last a shameful desertion of the allies. To give him credit for getting out of it without war is putting his political deficiencies to the credit of his account. It is the least creditable incident of Lord Salisbury's career as Foreign Minister, and that it has never been put before the English public as it merited, is owing to the vague ideas on foreign policy entertained even by the leaders of the Opposition. When the Italian Government, on asking the Emperor of Germany, as arbiter of the Triple Alliance, if it might accept the invitation of Lord Salisbury to join in the Armenian movement, he, in the most hearty spirit, replied, "Yes, and I will back you to the last man." This practically meant the combination of Germany, Italy, and Austria with England in the pressure on Turkey—a combination which there was no power in Europe to resist, and which, by an altogether not-to-be-hoped-for contingency, placed England at the head, *pro tem.*, of European affairs. I have long ago done feeble justice in your pages to the disgraceful and ill-timed intrusion of the United States at this moment with the Venezuela affair, which remains an indelible disgrace to President Cleveland; but had Salisbury acted with promptness, this pressure of our Government would have been ineffectual, because there would have been no war in Europe to embarrass England, and had he, even then, met the United States with the concession which he was later obliged to make, that of arbitration, he would not only have escaped trouble in Europe, but would have left the United States no ground to raise difficulties on. Add to this, that he refrained from making a reply to our demand so long that he created an irritation which need not have existed, and we shall see that the whole series of incidents exhibits the utter want of the nerve and decision which are required for the administration of the complicated foreign relations of England. It was nothing but muddle from beginning to end, and, with any Continental Power, would have resulted in the dismissal from power of the Ministry.

It was the same bungling which we saw in the South African affair again, and was even more disastrous. I have no doubt that, but for Chamberlain, the Boer difficulty would have ended in a transaction which would have been only the prelude to the loss of Cape Colony by the British Government. There is in my mind no question that the timid, always retreating policy of England during late years, had convinced the Boers and their friends on the Continent (who are all the enemies of England), that the English Ministry would yield without fighting to the demands of the Boers for absolute independence, and that the Boers counted on the Continental embarrassments practically paralyzing England in resisting them. Here again the mistaken policy of the English Government in irritating all of the Powers in rotation had been responsible for this state of friendlessness, which they call "splendid isolation" and on which Lord Salisbury has prided himself, and which encouraged the Boers in their determined provocation of war, issuing in the ultimatum and declaration of war.

That England did not believe that there would be war in South Africa is no doubt the reason of the imperfection of the preparations, but the fault is the same as in the Armenian affair, that the Government acted with culpable frivolity in making war possible and not anticipating the consequences. It was bad government. If the Paris Exhibition had been out of the way, things might have been different; and Lord Salisbury will not understand, or has only lately understood, that France waits implacably for her opportunity, that all his concessions are as ineffectual as offerings to Fate, and that all the balancing between the French and the German tendencies which has been the persistent weakness of the English Government for twenty years has the inevitable result of leaving them both acutely hostile. It is with keen satisfaction, therefore, that I see the agreement of England and Germany in the Far East—a counsel of despair, no doubt, on the part of England, but inevitable if she is to hold her own in Europe. Lord Salisbury, in common with too many English statesmen, has resisted it persistently ever since the German Empire was formed, but if there is a policy for England pointed out to a dispassionate student of politics, it is that of a close alliance with Germany, as the only e world's peace. The Whys ots of this policy are too long roughly, but the main motive terests of both countries con- naintenance of the *status quo*, cipal difficulty has been the ob- agonism of England to German ogress, the blind refusal of one l community to share its mar- another commercial community. led to useless and ever-embitter- osities, the result of which on the as been the creation of a mutual l hostility that almost impedes the ary understanding between the two s having the most to gain by peace Europe. If, at this late hour, Lord oury has come to recognize that the relations with Germany which were red him unconditionally in 1895 are in- pensable to the plans of England in the r East, he has only made the bargain ich Rome made with the Sibyl when she ok what remained of the oracular books; ve years have been wasted. There has never been any reasonable cause for doubt that Germany was ready for an advantageous understanding with England on the basis of the preservation of peace in Europe and mutual concessions in colonial questions, nor has Germany ever desired conditions unfavorable to the peaceful interests of any other European Power, so that the apprehension that a league with Germany meant hostilities with France had not the shadow of justification. I know from authority which cannot be questioned, that the supposed hostility to England in the mind of the German Emperor has never had any existence, and that the bitterness which has been growing up since 1882 between the publics on both sides has grown out of the illiberality of England towards Germany in colonial affairs.

The diplomatic record of this question is one which should make any fair-minded Englishman blush, but which few Englishmen care to study. All that Germany has ever asked for in colonial matters was the equal chance of an equal nation in the advantages that might derive from colonial extension, and against the concession of this the commercial world in England has steadily protested. The policy of England, under Liberal as under Conservative governments, has been to conciliate France by the intermittent showing of the cold shoulder to Germany, but without ever showing either effective friendship to France or effective hostility to Germany, and the easily foreseen consequence has been to fan the animosity of both nations to England. Everybody's friend is nobody's friend, and this the English people is very slow in finding out. This practice of conciliating France by intermittent abandonment of positions deliberately taken up as important, has been carried further by Lord Salisbury than has ever been prudent, or recognized as such by Lord Rosebery, and on both sides of the Rhine it has been understood as a tacit recognition of the weakness of England. Whether this vacillating, generally timid and always inef- policy be imposed by public opin- r be the consequence of inister, as seems sin-

in some q mand for his puttin eign affairs has been insisten ued, and I question if any party secu has been satisfied with his conduct of them. Peace he certainly worked for and kept, but I am convinced that, in the quest, he has made useless sacrifices which have only postponed decisions that must finally be made at the same cost as, or perhaps a much heavier one than, was originally demanded, and that he has sacrificed the future to the present peace.

W. J. STILLMAN.

BONAPARTE AND JOSEPHINE.

PARIS, November 23, 1900.

M. Frédéric Masson reminds one of a sculptor who makes a monument of a great man and places below on the pedestal bas-reliefs representing the most striking incidents in his life. Consciously or unconsciously, he gives to Napoleon a higher stature in each of his successive volumes on him, and reduces the members of his family to that of pigmies. He has a curious and, in one sense, interesting way of working. He has no system, no method, he does not follow the chronological order. He writes under the spur of the documents which he discovers or which fall into his hands. Last year, for instance, he gave us a magnificent quarto volume on 'Josephine, Empress and Queen.' He had before told us all about Josephine's early days, her family, her father Beauharnais; this year he studies Josephine at the time when she became acquainted with Bonaparte, and his study brings him to the somewhat unexpected conclusion that Josephine, who, once married to Bonaparte, lived for several years in constant fear of a divorce, had herself thought of divorcing Bonaparte in the early period of her marriage. M. Masson tells us that this marriage was never considered by her, at first, in the light of a permanent union. Divorce had become very easy in the time of the Directory, and consequently the marriage tie had ceased to be much respected.

Napoleon Bonaparte and Josephine had only a civil marriage. There was no opposition to it, as they were both of age. She gave herself out as having been born on the 23d of June, 1767, though she was really born on the 23d of June, 1763; Napoleon made himself older by one year. These inexactitudes, however, could not invalidate the marriage. Bonaparte had insisted upon having a civil marriage, whereas Josephine would probably have dispensed with it, and would willingly have been to the rising General what she had been to Barras.

"Napoleon," says M. Masson, "wanted this ceremony; he cared about it. With the passionate desire which he felt to acquire, and, so to speak, to stabilize his acquisition, to have a legal title (for, in some respects, he remained the son of a lawyer), he thought by this ceremony to assure himself the mistress who he feared might otherwise escape, and over whom he thus established a right. First, he loves her with his twenty-six years, which had remained chaste, with his virgin temperament, with the ardor of his meridional blood, and it is a joy for him to possess at last one of these women of Paris, 'the only women who knew how to love, and who deserved to be loved.' Then, if he loves the woman, he the viscountess, who will give into the world to which he who will give him

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Nobody is there to Wh marriage is a necessity. nesses? Barras, the former lover of Josephine, and Lemarois, one of his own aides-de-camp. Who are Josephine's witnesses? The corrupt Tallien, and an unknown person. Bonaparte is, besides, still in the Jacobin camp. Gen. Vendémiaire, as he was called at the time, the friend of Robespierre the younger, of Ricord, Saliceti, must be content with a civil marriage. As for Josephine, she knows very well what she is doing; in her eyes, a civil marriage counts for nothing, it will be very easy to break the tie. A religious marriage would be of more consequence. It would unclass her, for it is the only real marriage in the eyes of the people whose opinion is of value for her. She loses for a time her title of Viscountess, but if Bonaparte ceases to please, she will become again the Viscountess de Beauharnais. The world, her world, will ignore, or feign to ignore, her having been anything else. M. Masson speaks severely of her:

"On her part, you will find no idea of duty, no disinterested thought, no dream of love for a lifetime; at best, an impulse of the senses, a caprice, an amusement. . . . She has struggled since her childhood in an abyss of misfortunes and of annoyances out of which she has succeeded in emerging only by expedients. And it is an expedient she finds at the hour when, ruined, getting older, without consideration, she has no right to raise difficulties."

Napoleon leaves his wife, two days after the marriage, and goes to Italy; he rapidly wins victory after victory, and, between two battles, he writes letters to Josephine, urging her to come and join him. Some of these letters have been preserved, but were not printed in the voluminous correspondence of Napoleon, published under the Second Empire. They are the letters of an impatient lover. Josephine was not so impatient; she was fond of pleasure, of amusement, and thought she could find it better in Paris than in Italy. She was the slave of pleasure; and pleasure was for her the need of seeing, of being seen, of getting up parties, of showing herself in theatres, of being out of her own house and of visiting people. After long resistance, she consents to leave Paris. She finds her husband very tyrannical, and complains of the fatiguing continuity of his passion. She has a lover to console her, Charles, adjutant to Leclerc, a young and amiable officer, very vulgar, but very gay and entertaining. He helps Josephine in everything; he knows how to entertain her; he can make puns; he can vary her amusements. Bonaparte is only the useful husband, who conquers Italy, who can give her plenty of money, who brings to her feet the presents of the Italian cities and the princes. She hardly understands the homage which is paid to her; but she can appreciate the diamonds, the gems, the pictures, the works of art. She does not see to understand her new part, and probal does not understand it.

"She does not see that each day, each battle gained, in this Italy five t conquered, Bonaparte changes from tle Jacobin, from a general of which he was yesterday, into a her liberator. She does not see that he

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giving a real shape to his ambition, and is determining in his own thought that he is a leader of men. She does not even care much for his triumphs through Switzerland, France, Paris."

When Bonaparte leaves for Egypt, she remains in Paris and lives in a whirlwind of amusements. She does not try to conceal her relations with M. Charles, who, thanks to her, has become a partner in a firm of contractors. She imitates Mme. Tallien, who made a fortune with Ouvrard; she receives money from all sides, and M. Charles has a part of it. Prodigal that she is, she has days of distress, but she always finds credit. As for her husband, she cares only for the allowance he makes her and for his name, as long as she wears it, for at this time she seems quite resolved upon a divorce and ready to ask for it. She speaks of it to Barras, to Rewbell, to Gohier, to Réal. She means to marry Charles. "Such," says M. Masson, "is her life in the four years since she was married, of which she has spent at the utmost twelve months with Bonaparte and two years at least with Charles." If she has not entered into irretrievable legal proceedings, it is not her fault, but that of circumstances. "As for Bonaparte, he married Josephine, well knowing that she had had lovers, that he had been one of them, that she had been his mistress for a fortnight before she became his wife; but he had effaced all this from his mind. He felt as if he had no right over her. Even married, he does not feel certain that he has any. He does not command, he is a suppliant. He still feels inferior, so great to him is her prestige." He is really in love, and distance adds to his passion. Some of the letters which he wrote her from Egypt could not be printed. They were suppressed, I believe, by Prince Napoleon, who had charge of the publication of Napoleon's correspondence. He was receiving in Egypt letters from Paris which informed him of the conduct of his wife. Her open relations with Charles were revealed to him. A very characteristic letter of Eugène Beauharnais to his mother shows that Napoleon knew all. He writes to her from Egypt:

> "Bonaparte for the past five days has seemed very sad after conversations with Julien, Junot, and Berthier. He seems more affected than I should have expected by these conversations. What I have heard comes to this: 'Charles has been in your carriage, at three post-towns round Paris. You have seen him in Paris; you have been with him at the Italian Theatre, he gave you his little dog, etc.' You will think, mamma, that I don't believe this, but what is certain is that the General has been much affected by it. He is, however, more amiable towards me than ever. He seems, by his actions, to intimate that the children are not responsible for the faults of their mother. But your son likes to believe that all this talk has been invented by your enemies. He loves you none the less, and desires to embrace you. I hope that, when you come, all will be forgotten."

All was not forgotten; Josephine did not join her husband in Egypt; he returned to France. The story of his return is well known, as well as the scene with Josephine. Napoleon came back intending to separate from her; he saw the members of his family before he saw her, and they were all hostile to Josephine. Her tears, her supplications, when she succeeded in seeing him, soon got the better of his anger; he pardoned her. Bonaparte was always weak in her presence. He never afterwards made her any reproaches; but, as M. Masson says, "he now feels liberated, he considers that now he can choose women as he likes." The idea of a divorce has now entered his head. M. Masson's interesting pages show clearly that this idea first originated in Josephine's mind, that she had never taken her marriage very seriously; she does so only when Bonaparte rises and assumes more heroic proportions. She feels, when she sees all France preparing to confide her destinies to him, that she must change her life and show him more devotion. She is now as afraid of a divorce as she was at one time eager for it. Bonaparte is accustoming his mind to the idea of it, the more as his power increases. He still feels the seductiveness which he felt from the beginning; but he feels that some day or another the separation must take place. The history of the relations of Bonaparte and Josephine is one of the most interesting psychological documents in history.

Correspondence.

THE FIRESIDE TO MR. McKINLEY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir:

> "The business men in every part of the country, typified by this great organization, were a mighty factor in the recent contest. And may we not also ascribe much to the influence of the home, with its affiliations? In any previous election was it greater, or in any did the counsels of the fireside determine more largely the vote of the electors?"

So said Mr. McKinley at a meeting of the Union League Club of Philadelphia, not long ago. Notwithstanding the absurdity of the claim, now, after the political battle is fought and won, it is not remarkable that President McKinley should attempt to array the moral forces of the country on his side, and that the "influence of the home" and "the counsels of the fireside" should by him be brought forward as factors contributing largely to his success. This slight "acknowledgment" of the women of the country could, at this time, do him no possible injury, while, on the other hand, a few sugar-coated pellets, judiciously administered, might prove efficacious in soothing the evident irritation of a large class who, although without recognized political influence, may, in the not distant future, become a power to be reckoned with.

Perhaps never before in the history of this country have the issues at stake involved greater or more far-reaching principles than did those which confronted the people during the campaign which has recently ended, and it may be safely asserted that never before has the interest of intelligent women been more thoroughly aroused. It is to be observed, however, that this interest was not occasioned by their enthusiasm for the principles involved in Mr. McKinley's policy. Women, as a rule, whatever their degree of intelligence, are opposed to war, spoliation, and conquest; it is only reasonable, therefore, that they should be averse to the present régime, and especially to the growing tendency towards militarism and despotism.

When viewed by the light of actual facts, it will be readily perceived that Mr. McKinley's adroit "acknowledgment" of the part played by women in the interest of the Republican party, during the recent campaign, is pointless, and that, notwithstanding the saccharine quality of the sop thrown out to them, no sensible woman will be lured by it. The result of the late election was exactly what might have been expected in an age in which greed constitutes the motive force in human action; it might have been and doubtless was foreseen that the sordid appeals to selfishness which were scattered broadcast over the country would result in a victory for the forces which are organized for the benefit of the few at the expense of the many. It matters not that these appeals were senseless—that they were employed for no other purpose than to deceive the ignorant masses: the point to be observed is that they accomplished the object for which they were intended.

As has been truly said, "The great American stomach has spoken." In other words, a majority of the voters of this country have shown themselves too selfish to consider principles involving the rights of others, too bloodthirsty to desire the blessings of peace and good-will to men. Bloodthirstiness and inordinate greed are sure evidences of a low and brutalized state of human society—a state of society in which the principles of justice and honor are ignored, and in which only those measures which promise immediate opportunities for personal gain are worthy of consideration. With bullets we force our religion and our vices on peaceable peoples, and are surprised that they fail to appreciate the blessings which we confer upon them.

Were the results of the late election an expression of all the people, then might we well fear for the future of this country; but when it is remembered that the desires and opinions of only one-half the people were registered, that only few more than half those who voted cast their ballots for Mr. McKinley, and that fully one-third of those who sanctioned his policy did so under protest, we may not lose all hope that this country may yet be redeemed from the position of dishonor into which it has been dragged.

Eliza Burt Gamble.

Detroit, Mich., December 3, 1900.

THE SHIP-SUBSIDY BILL AGAIN.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Respected Friend: In order fully to understand the arguments of those who are urging this bill, it is necessary to bear in mind that the excuse for the subsidy is not that the trans-oceanic carrying-trade is unprofitable, but only that it is unprofitable under the American flag. Probably no one has more accurate knowledge of this subject than the President of the International Navigation Company. In his testimony before the Senate Committee last winter, as reported in the newspapers, he gave the following very significant information: "The four fast ships never made the Company a dollar, and he figured the net loss to the Company at $415,600 annually. The eleven ships under foreign flags supported the other ships." Of course it is understood that the other four ships were under the American flag. In a subsequent interview, with a representative of the New York *Herald*, he explained that the loss on the four ships was mainly on account of the higher "wages which we are compelled to pay while sailing under the American flag, as compared with what we should have to pay under the British flag." The point to which I wish to call particular attention is the inherent profitableness of the business. Here we have a transatlantic steamship company, with fifteen ships, sacrificing $415,600 annually on the altar of an alluring sentiment—an impalpable form of patriotism tangibly represented by four unprofitable ships—and gaining a satisfactory profit on the capital required to own and run eleven ships besides. In other words, the eleven ships yield at least $415,600 clear gain annually above a sufficient profit.

Even if we accept the facts as marshalled by those who are advocating the bill, the situation, reduced to its simplest terms, is just this: Our navigation laws have practically driven the American merchant marine from the high seas. These laws are maintained, ostensibly, for the protection of American labor. Instead of protecting American labor, they have suppressed a wide field for American labor. It is now proposed to reestablish the American merchant marine on the high seas, not by repealing the laws that destroy it, but by the taxation of American labor.

We are told that if the navigation laws were repealed, ships sailing under the American flag would be manned by foreign labor. But certainly it would be better to have ships sailing under the American flag manned by foreign labor than to have either no ships at all under the American flag, or ships under the American flag maintained by the taxation of American labor. It should be remembered that sailing the ships would be very far from all the labor that a merchant marine under the American flag would involve. If the ships under the American flag were to be sailed by foreign labor, as alleged, it would only be because American labor would be more profitably employed in building and repairing the ships, and in making American goods and preparing them for shipment.

With the American flag restored to the high seas by a subsidy, we should have a merchant marine reconstructed and maintained, not by the profits of commerce, but by the taxation of the American people. All the merchandise transported on these ships must be laid down in the foreign markets for less than cost. This is evident, for the avowed purpose of the subsidy is to make up the difference between cost of transportation and the value accruing to the goods by being transported. If the cost of transportation is not greater than the value accruing to the goods by being transported, there is clearly no possible need for the subsidy. It would serve only to enrich the transportation companies at the expense of American labor. Of course, there is no objection to the people of the United States bestowing goods on other nations for less than cost, in the way of almsgiving, whenever there is occasion for it. But here almsgiving is neither the intention nor the result. This is not even a case of underselling the market, but of production at a greater cost than the market warrants. It is producing goods at a cost greater than the price at which they can be sold. And, obviously, the loss must fall on the producer, while the consumer neither gains nor loses.

The amount by which the cost of the goods delivered in the foreign market exceeds the price in that market is the extra expense of transportation under the American flag, or, more correctly, under our navigation laws. Of course, the shipper cannot afford to pay this extra cost. It would make the goods cost him more than he would get for them, and, therefore, to charge him with it would simply prohibit him from shipping goods by these ships. Hence, he is charged what he can afford to pay, or the market rates of transportation; and the extra cost, due to our navigation laws, is recovered to the transportation company by the taxation of American labor. All this is ostensibly for the protection of American labor—labor protected by unprofitable industry, which is maintained by the taxation of labor. The proposition is preposterous.

Thou art the apple of my eye, my brother, says Avarice to Labor; it is the desire of my heart to help thee improve thy condition; let me take a dollar from thy pocket, and I will buy thee a crust of bread.

FREEMAN STEWART.

PHILADELPHIA, 12th mo., 7th, 1900.

CROMWELL AND THE COLONIES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In his Life of Cromwell, Mr. John Morley writes:

> "The future growth of vast West Indian interests, of which the seizure of Jamaica was the initial step, has made it possible to depict Cromwell as the conscious author of a great system of colonial expansion. What is undoubtedly true is, that such ideas were alive, nor had the famous tradition of the Elizabethans died. It is perhaps a reading of modern phrases into old events to say that the statesmen of the republic deliberately designed to show that England was not merely a European Power, but the centre of world-wide empire. Be this as it may, Cromwell's colonial policy was that of his predecessors, as it was that of the statesmen who followed him."

How any learned writer, conversant with the early history of the English North American colonies and of the Stuarts' dealings with them, could make the statement that Cromwell's colonial policy was that of his predecessors James and Charles, seems utterly incomprehensible. Has Mr. Morley ever read about the charter and grant of Nova Scotia given by King James to Sir William Alexander, of the commission given to Sir David Kirke to conquer and take possession of a great part of North America? Has he ever read the story of Kirke's conquest of Canada under this commission (he can see the commission in the English Record Office)? Has he never read about this gallant captain's exploit—how he took Quebec and all the French possessions in America, and sent Champlain and all the Frenchmen prisoners to Europe, or how the English King, acting on the policy of scuttle and subserviency to France and Spain, surrendered all this splendid empire to his enemies? How the Second Charles, a pensioner of the French King, basely surrendered the fairest part of Newfoundland to Louis XIV.? None of the Stuart kings took the least interest in or set the least value on the colonies. All their colonial charters were mere gifts to favorites like Baltimore, Hamilton, and Kirke. The constitutional powers that were acquired in Virginia and New England were gained by circumventing these grants. To compare the policy of James the First, who betrayed Raleigh's plans to Spain, and sent him to the scaffold by order of the Spanish Ambassador, or the craven surrenders of Charles, with Cromwell's vigorous action and defiance of both Powers, is an incorrect rendering of history.

The Protector took Jamaica from Spain; he risked a war with France in order to retain Nova Scotia under English rule after Charles had surrendered the colony to France; he extended the British dominions in America from Virginia to Cape Canso, embracing what is now Maine and New Brunswick, while he suppressed rebellion in Barbadoes and an incipient attempt in Virginia. He gave to both New England, the Southern Colony, and Newfoundland protection from all foreign enemies, absolute constitutional liberty, and free government. Never were the colonies so prosperous and contented; never more loyal to the home Government. Cavalier Virginia, after Cromwell's death, proclaimed Richard Protector.

Nowhere is the sagacious statesmanship, the firm, strong hand of Cromwell more conspicuously shown than in his dealings with Newfoundland. For the first time in the history of the unfortunate colony, it had a real Governor supreme ruler over the whole island, its shores protected from invasion, and its great fishing fleet convoyed by men-of-war on their voyages home and to the Mediterranean. For this appointment, Cromwell selected a young American, a New Englander, John Treworgie. His six years' rule is the one bright spot in the sombre annals of the island, and in striking contrast to the succeeding reign of Charles II., who actually ordered the expulsion of all the resident settlers, in order that the fishery might be reserved solely for English adventurers.

It is perhaps placing Cromwell on too high a pedestal of fame to claim for him the immortal honor of being the founder and maker of our colonial empire. Only one man up to that time, Raleigh, had conceived the idea of a vast English dominion, a Greater Britain, beyond the seas; but to the great Protector does belong the supreme merit of protecting and increasing our colonial empire, and of extending to the emigrants the freest constitutional liberty to govern themselves. To say, as Mr. Morley does, that his "colonial policy was like his predecessors', and those who followed him," is a gross injustice to the memory of a great and enlightened ruler and travesty of authentic history.

D. W. PROWSE.

ST. JOHNS, NEWFOUNDLAND, November 24, 1900.

KIDS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the issue of the *Nation* of November 22, 1900, your reviewer, reviewing 'The Autobiography of a Tomboy,' asks the author if children were called "kids" in the early sixties. The reviewer has overlooked the age of this expression, as will readily appear from the following quotations:

> "The girl still held Oliver fast by the hand. . . . 'So you got the kid,' said Sikes" (*Oliver Twist*, chap. xx., 1837-38.)

> "I am old, you say;
> Yes, parlous old, kids, an you mark me well!"
> (Middleton, Massinger & Rowley, *Old Law*, iii. 2., 1656.)

If my books were at hand, I might cite several other instances—one, I think, from Shakspere, but I take the foregoing from

ıry Dictionary, and think they will
correct.

sir, very respectfully yours,
RICHARD F. BURGES.

TEXAS, December 3, 1900.

vere not speaking to the an-
ıf the term, but to its familiar
his country,' which is, we still
omparatively recent.—ED. NA-

VAILS.

EDITOR OF THE NATION:

n connection with the complaints
nade by your correspondents from
(*Nation*, Nos. 1841 and 1845), with
› the feeing of servants in private
it may be worth noting that the
one of long standing, as appears
ece which was printed in the Lon-
iicle of March 26-28, 1765, xvii. 300.
s article, called "*The* Family Ser-
alogue, *in a Conversation between*
nd Ernesto," the following extract

. But pray, your scheme?
y then, Sir, I came home with a
ution to settle with my master,
ıt going to house-keeping; but that
vailed on by a strange odd fellow
le of his to enter into an associa-
olish the giving of vails, on which
.
y ay, that's true; this d—d scheme
ing vails will reduce our finances;
they resolve to advance our

A. M.

ecember 6, 1900.

Notes.

thers & Co., Philadelphia, will soon
e Moriscos of Spain, their Con-
nd Expulsion,' by Henry Charles
D., in one volume royal 12mo of
ı 400 pages.

Life of Tennyson will form the
lume in the "Saintly Life Series"
th Elizabeth Pease Nichol; it is
pen of Dr. R. F. Horton, and
studies its subject ethically and
r. It will be published by Dutton.
ary, R. H. Russell will bring out
ions of drawings by Albert Dürer,
alypse,' with text by Fitzroy Car-

s, Hanson & Comba will shortly
The Club: or, A Grey Cap for a
ead: Moral Maxims, Advice, and
in a Dialogue between a Father
, By James Puckle, N. P.' Austin
ırnishes an introduction, and the
ı wood cut by leading engravers of
part of this century will be the
nent. They announce also 'Art
Amateurs,' by Fred. Miller, with
illustrations.

ng with the new year, the publi-
use of Felix Dietrich of Leipzig
annual volumes of a 'Bibliographie
schen Recensionen,' as a supple-
the 'Bibliographie der Zeitschrif-
atur.' The editor is the well-
térateur L. Jellinek, and the pur-
furnish a list of the book reviews
appeared during the year 1900
1,000 scientific and technical jour-
ermany.

m, Mifflin & Co., falling in with the prevailing mode of condensed biography, now issue the first three numbers of the "Riverside Biographical Series"—Andrew Jackson, by W. G. Brown; James B. Eads, by Louis How; and Benjamin Franklin, by Paul E. More. The small volumes are well printed on good paper in open typography, have each a photogravure portrait as frontispiece, and display no research of the picturesque or unusual. What are virtually biographical essays hardly require an index, but an analytical table of contents would be useful. Announced are biographies of William Penn, Gen. Grant, and Lewis and Clark.

Mr. John Fiske's 'Old Virginia and her Neighbors' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) has not had long to wait for its glorified edition, in two volumes, fully yet not superabundantly illustrated. The series to which it belongs has set a good example of judgment in this sort of embellishment, and nothing trivial will be found among a great body of carefully selected portraits, views of historic houses, maps, facsimiles of MSS. and of book-titles, etc., etc., which add materially to the intrinsic worth of Mr. Fiske's flowing narrative. Of this we have already spoken critically on its first appearance. The work is beautifully bound.

Mr. J. A. Symonds's 'Shakespeare's Predecessors in the English Drama' has appeared in a cheaper edition (London: Smith, Elder & Co.; New York: Scribners). The book is too well known to need extended notice here. Though it is far from being an authoritative work, it contains so much that students wish to know, and is so attractively written, that it will long retain its place in all collections of Elizabethan apparatus. The new edition embodies no changes.

Under the title of 'Shakspere's Life and Work,' Mr. Sidney Lee has prepared an abridgment, chiefly for the use of students, of his 'Life of William Shakspere' (Macmillan). The abridgment is made, as was to be expected, in a workmanlike manner, and, since it is sold for less than a dollar, will doubtless have a wide circulation. The footnotes to the larger edition are omitted, but much of the material they contain is now incorporated into the text. The discussion of the Sonnets is greatly reduced in bulk, but all the essential points in Mr. Lee's arguments are retained. There are a number of good and really instructive illustrations, and the index is elaborate and seems to be trustworthy.

'The Far East: Its History and its Question' (London: Grant Richards; New York: Dutton), by Alexis Krausse, is a kind of reinfusion of the same author's 'Russia in Asia' and 'China in Decay,' drawn off for sipping in the immediate crisis. The tone of the book is one of unblushing commercialism tempered by Russophobia. Like so many modern Maher-shalal-hashbazes (hasteners to the prey), the nations are to go quickly to "take" what they want in China—all but Russia, that is. She is Krausse's nightmare, and he would have all the rest of Europe awake to rescue China from the paw of the Bear. The especial value of his book lies in its appendix of 110 pages, where we have, besides a convenient chronology, copies of the more important treaties and conventions bearing on the Chinese situation. To be thus handily documented in all these larger matters of Chinese diplomacy, the student will be glad to give the volume shelf-room.

Mr. Oliver Herford's 'Overheard in a Garden, et Cetera' (Scribners) is an uneven collection of verse by a genuine and original humorist, whose pencil is never at fault. The decorative designs are here often charming; and in the satirical "Little Chapter on Sport" (wisdom for the child and nominally addressed to him, but calculated for the man) there is a very effective combination of line and wash. The title section fitly stands first, but there is much good fooling in the last "Curtain Calls," and a pretty conceit, "Love and Time," in the miscellaneous group styled "Not in the Garden." The book, while it might have been more severely compiled, will not detract from the author's reputation.

It would be well for our classical instruction if the little book by Anton Malfertheiner, entitled 'Realerklärung und Anschauungs-Unterricht bei der Lectüre der Griechischen Classiker' (Vienna: Pichler) could gain a wide circulation among our teachers. In these days of low-priced reproductions, such as casts, electrotypes, prints, lantern slides, and photographs, there is no excuse for the classical instructor who does not make use of illustrative material, or "Realien," in his teaching. In this little book, which is evidently the first of a series, Professor Malfertheiner gives us nearly one hundred pages of hints in regard to the use of material illustrative of readings in Xenophon, Homer, and Herodotus, and directions for finding such material. He treats the subject partly under such heads as War, Mythology, or Topography; partly, as in his remarks on the Iliad and Odyssey, in the order of the verses. To be sure, some of the books which he cites for illustrations are ordinarily not accessible, but the most important, such as Helbig's 'Das Homerische Epos,' Baumeister's 'Denkmäler,' and Schreiber's Atlas, should be in the hands of every classical teacher. For the Latin teacher a work of this sort has been done by Josef Kubic (Vienna: Hölder) in his books on Cicero and Tacitus and on Horace.

Two recent volumes of the Oxford Classics, Cæsar's 'De Bello Gallico' by R. Du Pontet, and the Vergil by F. A. Hirtzel, fully maintain the well-deserved reputation of this series. Whatever we have said in these columns in commendation of previous volumes we can but repeat with respect to these. Type, paper, handiness of form, conscientious editing—in all these respects they are fully up to the standard of former issues and commend themselves to every lover of good books.

The unrelenting law of averages has rarely been more strikingly exemplified in the domain of social economy than by the recent statistics of the German Empire. Indeed, the figures in some departments are so uniform as to appear to argue a wonderful stability—we might almost say a dead calm—in economic conditions. The number of suicides in each of the years 1896, 1897, and 1898 was between 10,825 and 11,025. The number of emigrants in each of the years 1897, 1898, and 1899 exceeded 20,000 and fell below 25,000. In face, however, of the harmony between the above sets of figures on the score of uniformity, there seems to be no connection between the dismal record of suicides and the tolerableness or intolerableness of existence in the Vaterland, as determined by economic conditions, for the proportion of suicides to the population a few years back, when the flood of emigration was very high, was about the same as at present. Lovely Thuringia figures with the largest percentage of suicides in relation to the population, and uninteresting Posen with the smallest.

The rapid increase in the attendance at German universities by women is evident from the following statistics of the largest of these institutions, the University of Berlin. In the summer of 1896 the number was 40, and increased from semester to semester as follows: 96, 116, 169, 193, 281, 186, and 431. Last summer, owing to the introduction of stricter terms of admission, the number was reduced to 301, but in the present semester has risen to 371, of whom 253 are Germans (111 from Berlin) and 118 foreigners, namely, 68 Russians, 34 Americans, 4 Scotch, 3 English, 2 each from France, Rumania, and Bulgaria, and 1 each from Austria, Sweden, and Switzerland. The greater proportion of the women, namely, 338, devote themselves to the history of art and literature, although ancient and modern philology, the natural sciences, and political economy are also favorite studies; 6 study theology, 2 law, and 25 medicine. We may add in conclusion that of the entire number 348 are unmarried, 19 married, and 4 widows.

The baptistery of Albenga was incontestably the most ancient Christian monument remaining entire in Liguria, and among the most ancient of Italy, even after the modern criticism, that is always finding the ancient buildings less old than they were generally believed to be, had assigned it to the end of the eighth century at the earliest. Important restorations now going on for once confirm the popular belief in a greater age—*i. e.*, of the fifth century. Removal of the existing pavement has disclosed the ancient pavement of precious marbles, with remains of the primitive baptismal font and the ciborium that covered it; while simple cleaning about the altar niche has laid bare mosaics similar to those of the mausoleum of Galla Placidia at Ravenna, which dates from A. D. 440. The earth about the baptistery, which had gathered to the depth of eight or ten feet, has been removed, uncovering several tombs, Roman as well as Christian. Remains of painting and sculpture, the pierced marbles filling the windows, a feature of great rarity, and the construction—now, for the first time in centuries, made evident—render the building of great interest to the archæologist. The restorations (by the Ufficio Regionale for Piedmont and Liguria, corresponding to the French Commission des Monuments Historiques) are being conducted with intelligence and conscience.

The study of Byzantine literature, which only in the last decade, and chiefly through the endeavors of Professor Krumbacher of Munich, has been elevated to the rank of a distinct science, has found enthusiastic adherents in France also. The French Byzantinists, notably Bayet, Diehl, Müntz, Omont, and Schlumberger, have united in the publication of a new periodical called *Monuments de l'Art Byzantin*, of which the first volume, containing a study of the cloister of Daphin, near Athens, has already appeared, and six further volumes in the series have been announced. The purpose is chiefly to furnish new material for study. The publisher is Ernest Leroux, Paris.

"Christmas Island" is the subject of a monograph, illustrated by twenty-one plates, some of them colored, and a map, published by the Natural History Department of the British Museum, and based on the collections and observations of Mr. C. W. Andrews, made in 1897-98, during a stay extending over ten months. He describes the physical features and geology, while reports on the fauna and flora are contributed by several members of the Museum staff. "Christmas Island" lies in the Indian Ocean, about 190 miles south of Java, and some 900 miles northwest of West Australia. Comprising about forty-three square miles, it rises in places to more than 1,000 feet above the level of the sea. It has been known to navigators since the middle of the seventeenth century, but until recently no attempt appears to have been made to penetrate beyond a few hundred yards from the shore, on account of the steep and rugged cliffs and the dense tropical vegetation. Down to a few years ago it was probably the only existing tropical island of any large extent that had never been inhabited by man, savage or civilized. In 1887, H.M.S. *Egeria* touched at the island, and some explorations were made toward the interior. It was formally annexed to the British crown in 1888, and ten years later was leased by a company, which immediately made arrangements for its thorough exploitation. Very interesting results are anticipated from the careful study of the immediate effects produced by the immigration of civilized man, and the animals and plants which follow in his wake, upon the physical conditions, and upon the indigenous fauna and flora of an isolated oceanic island. Over 200 Europeans and Chinese have already become residents; and of the various plants introduced for food, several species have run wild and are entering into competition with the native flora.

Formosa, or Taiwan, as the Japanese call their new possession, adopting the Chinese name, is described in *Petermann's Mitteilungen*, No. 10, by Dr. N. Yamasaki, a member of the exploring expedition sent out by the University of Tokyo in 1896. He devotes himself mainly to an account of its physical features, its geology, the formation of the coast-line, the courses of the rivers, the volcanoes, and the climate. The greatest rainfall is in the extreme north, where in 1898 it reached the height of 206 inches. Rice is the most important product, followed by sugar and tea. Gold was discovered in 1890 by a Chinaman who had been in California and was employed in building a railroad bridge across the Kilung River. It exists both in the river-bed and in quartz formation. Coal is abundant, but of poor quality. There are also sulphur-mines and petroleum-beds. The fauna includes thirty-one species of mammals, the largest of which is a bear, and 150 species of birds. An excellent map accompanies the article.

It is good news from Korea that a Korean branch of the Royal Asiatic Society has just been organized in Seoul, the capital. Three honorary members were elected, Mr. William G. Aston, the well-known scholar in Japanese and Korean; the Rev. John Ross, D.D., of Mukden, author of works on Korea and the Mantchus, and W. E. Griffis, L.H.D., author of 'Korea, the Hermit Nation.' At the first public meeting, held Wednesday, October 24, the Rev. James A. Gale, the corresponding secretary and author of a Korean grammar and dictionary, read a paper on "The Influence of China upon Korea"—a subject of vast proportions. The President is J. H. Gubbins, British Chargé d'Affaires; and the Vice-President, the Rev. G. H. Jones, who is probably the leading Korean scholar in the peninsular kingdom. The recording secretary is Prof. H. B. Hulbert, an American investigator, author of note, and late editor of the *Korean Repository*. In the council we find the names of Dr. H. N. Allen, our American envoy; Dr. Weisselt, the German Consul, and J. McLeavy Brown, LL.D., the Chief of Customs. The paper to be read at New Year's will be upon "The Island of Kangwa," by the Rev. W. E. Trollope, who has been ten years in Korea. May the Society prosper and do for Korea what the Asiatic Societies of China and Japan have done for these countries.

A number of colored pictorial English calendars come to us with the American imprint of E. P. Dutton & Co. There is the inevitable "Golfers' Season," the "Floral Greetings from the Poets," fancy female studies for "The Golden Age," and the society woman in "The Seasons"; humors in the "Comical Cats," etc. "Favorites of British Art" consists of chromolithographic sheets after once familiar paintings by Webster, Wilkie, Collins, and Landseer. Best of all we like Mr. Wilfrid Ball's landscapes in "Nature's Gems." The ribbon-bound sheets vary from twelve to six and four.

Notable on the programme of the American Economic Society's approaching thirteenth annual meeting at Detroit on December 27-29 is an excursion to Ann Arbor for a joint session with the American Historical Association for the discussion of "Colonial Problems." Papers on the fiscal system of Porto Rico, by Dr. J. H. Hollander, Treasurer of the Island, and by President Finley of Knox College on "Our Porto Rican Policy," as studied on the spot, will be read on this occasion.

Gen. Horace Porter, President of the Society of Sons of the American Revolution in France, has appointed a committee consisting of the following members: Henri Méron, Consul of France at Chicago; Edward P. McLean, Vice-Consul-General of the United States at Paris; Col. Ch. Chaillé-Long, and Major H. A. Huntington, for the purpose of composing a list of the French soldiers who took part in the American war of Independence. The Minister of Foreign Affairs has expressed his entire sympathy with this movement, and has communicated with his colleagues, the Minister of War and the Minister of Public Instruction, upon the subject, and they will no doubt give their hearty coöperation in ascertaining the names desired from the national archives and the documents in the War Department. The list should include all Frenchmen who served in the army and in the fleet.

—A most important event for women is the making free to them of all the departments of Clark University. The requirements for the admission of men are that they have already graduated at some college, that they desire to do work of some special kind, and that they either have taken or look forward to taking the degree of doctor of philosophy; and for women the requirements are exactly the same. A few able women have studied at Clark hitherto, but under certain disadvantages, and without the recognition of degrees; it is a satisfaction that they are now to have everything that they can ask for, and it is an additional satisfaction that the action to this effect was by a unanimous vote on the part of the Trustees. Princeton and the Johns Hopkins are now the only colleges in the whole country offering post-graduate courses at all that do not offer them to women. There is the less excuse for this at Johns Hopkins on account of the fact that the simplicity of the organization at that university is such that no modifications whatever would be entailed by the change in question, and also that the presence of women in the medical school renders the attitude of the University illogical to the last degree. It remains to be seen how long these two institutions will have the courage to maintain themselves in their lonely isolation.

—The color "processes" of the magazines have become so stupendous that we do not attempt criticism. For a bewildering specimen we may refer the reader to the Christmas *Century's* edition of Milton's "Ode on the Nativity." Mr. Augustine Birrell begins a series of papers called "Down the Rhine," with drawings by André Castaigne, and Sir Walter Besant has an illustrated article on "East London Types." An illustrated paper, with the rather flat title, "What More than Wages?" by William Howe Tolman, gives a good deal of information as to the efforts now being made by employers to improve the moral, intellectual, and social tone of the factory workman. This movement, which seems in some degree to have taken the place of the "profit-sharing" movements of half a century since, is founded upon a different idea. As one employer is made to say by Mr. Tolman, the difficulty about profit-sharing is that there are often no profits to share. If employees share in profits, justice would seem to require that they should also share in losses—which is exactly what to the ordinary wage-earner would be most distasteful and even seem unjust. The expenditure of capital to give workmen good homes at low rents, pleasant playgrounds, comfort, cleanliness, and opportunities for intellectual self-improvement is founded on the idea that such an investment actually pays the employer in the improved energy and self-respect of the workman. An English case, for instance, is given of a cold-blooded employer who has spent $1,250,000 on cottages, schools, club buildings, small parks, gardens, and recreation grounds in his industrial village near Liverpool. There is no direct return on the capital. He declares that he is no altruist, but has done it for the good of his business and found it profitable. The opposite principle was that on which slaves were worked in the West Indies—work them the maximum number of hours, and work them to death. If, as appears, the world is really waking up to the truth that labor can be brought to the highest pitch of efficiency only through the encouragement of the ambition and self-respect of the laborer, the coming century will be marked by one of the greatest steps ever made in the solution of the "labor problem." Of course, the movement must be carefully distinguished from that "panem et circenses" movement of some of the new Socialists to tax the public to provide for the "humbler classes." The employer, be it remembered, taxes himself, and expects a return from his beneficiary. The "civic reformer" taxes all his neighbors to give his constituents free-soup tickets or rides on the merry-go-rounds, without any return except that the altruist himself is to be provided with an office and salary by means of more taxes.

—*Scribner's* for December contains a critical review of George Eliot by W. C. Brownell which will repay, not only reading, but study. It is full of shrewd "appreciation," which becomes at times what many admirers will think depreciation, owing, it seems to us, to his devoting most attention to what are really George Eliot's less important novels. Even in view of the success of 'Middlemarch,' we should be inclined to think that her important books—the books by which she must in the long run be judged —are those which made her fame, 'Adam Bede' and 'The Mill on the Floss.' She was no exception to the rule that great novelists usually write themselves out, attaining their highest level in their earliest efforts and afterwards falling into repetition and elaboration. From the perspective in which Mr. Brownell considers her books, it might be inferred that he regarded her worst work as most deserving of attention. However this may be, his analysis is searching, and often convincing. He puts George Eliot at the head of psychological novelists, and at the same time imputes to her "a limited imaginative faculty, a defective sense of art, and an inordinate aggrandizement of the purely intellectual element in human character." But he distinguishes her sharply from the so-called "intellectual woman," of whom he says: "In books or in fact the first impression made by the so-called intellectual woman is that of the inadequacy of the intellect. There is so much else that is worth while, one reflects in the presence of such thorough-going exclusions. . . . It is not so much that she is too intellectual. At times one finds that she might be even more so, even if less strictly so, with advantage." "And perhaps there is nothing that sets George Eliot off from the mass of her sex for whom the intellect is a universal talisman, so much as the circumstance that she does not make this impression. On the contrary, one's impression is of the plenary power and sufficiency of the intellect unaided and unillumined *ab extra.*" This brings us to the question, What is there to illumine the intellect *ab extra?* Mr. Brownell's answer is religion. George Eliot had no religion; was a Comtist and an agnostic; consequently she was *bornée*. Or rather, perhaps, being a Christian by inheritance, she threw off that religion and fell back on philosophy and duty, which will not supply its place. That she had no religion we cannot concede, for the novel became in her hands an instrument of agnostic faith, for which she would, no doubt, have gone to the stake with all the enthusiasm of an early Christian. John La Farge has an interesting article on Puvis de Chavannes, accompanied by plates in color which are called "reproductions." Mr. Thomas Bailey Aldrich contributes a new kind of tale, "An Untold Story." The writers of "short stories" should examine it with care. It is only two pages and a half long, and might be made much shorter, and the point is that the story is left out.

—A. Maurice Low has, in the *Atlantic*, a sort of rhapsody on the national capital, called "Washington: The City of Leisure." It is not altogether perfect—indeed it is, here and there, decidedly weak; but several things are well put, as, for instance, the writer's demolition of the tradition that there is an old "residential society" in Washington, composed of natives, Southern and aristocratic—a sort of Faubourg set, left over from the past, and living apart from the present; a society which looks down on the mushroom *nouveaux riches* of to-day as Legitimist Parisians are reported to look down upon the society which has sprung up since the Bourbons went out. This is, as Mr. Low says, a pure superstition. No such society is to be found in Washington, the important people having long been of a totally different sort. A name here and there is pretty much all that is left of the Southern society which dominated the capital down to the time when Buchanan left the White House. Mr. Low is evidently an Imperialist, for he thinks that Alexander Shepherd unconsciously rendered a great service to Washington by giving "his people" an object-lesson in "the benefits to follow from pure autocracy." By this he apparently means that government by commission, such as followed the downfall of the Shepherd ring, is the true form of municipal government. If so, all New York needs to make it happy is to have it governed by an army officer and two civilians appointed by the Governor of the State. "War as a Moral Medicine," by Goldwin Smith, is a very effective reply to Dean Farrar's late article on the same subject. How curious it is that most people are ready to admit that past wars, such as the Crimean, the Afghan, or the "Lorcha" wars, were rather demoralizing and useless. The very war which to-day is holy and glorious because we are engaged in it, becomes in retrospect useless or wrong. Mr. Smith's article contains a rather ugly story about Lord Palmerston, whose moral character was unimproved by war.

—*Harper's* has an article on "Victor Hugo as an Artist," by Benjamin-Constant. These illustrations are selected from a "vast collection" of his paintings and drawings placed at the orders of the magazine, and more will appear in a later issue, "with comment by M. Paul Meurice, the chief custodian of Victor Hugo memorabilia." Mr. Benjamin-Constant discusses Hugo's sketches in the light of his literary works, and thinks that he "comes near to being a master among masters." Salvator Rosa, Callot, Goya, or Delacroix "might have signed more than one of these." It is Gustav Doré only who "loses by comparison." "His invention, brilliant and prolific as it is, has not the compass, the power, the audacity of Hugo's —for the mark of the beast is everywhere met with upon his ink-stained papers, sometimes raging, sometimes laughing, but always evidencing a violent romanticism, where the pencil is as revolutionary as the idea." Henri Fouquier contributes an illustrated paper on Bernhardt and Coquelin. Every one knows that Bernhardt is not only an actress, but a sculptor and manager as well; she is, it seems, also a sportsman, and has "brought down" her deer and her crocodile, to say nothing of her having some live pumas, brought from South America, in her courtyard. Coquelin's life is as humdrum as hers is eccentric; it is that, in fact, of "a hard-working bourgeois." He is entirely a self-made man, being the son of a baker, and owing nothing in his great success to any one but himself. Dr. Carl Peters gives an account of his "Discovery of Ophir," in an article illustrated and drawings it will be re- of getting gold rently a mono- that silver "was he days of Solo- y, apes, and pea- hir. The place was hir is Afer, and Afer Further identification ely easy by an old scription of the Por- f Fura, which again is tive corruption of the er, or Ophir." Now this s on the Zambesi, a re- the Ophir products men- le could readily have been paper concludes with the ement that the writer has with the local chieftain, and operties in his country belong y friends."

Bennett Thrasher's 'Tuskegee: nd its Work' (Boston: Small, Co.) is the outcome of much paration. Mr. Thrasher has made ts to Tuskegee, attended critically Washington's speaking North and isited the scenes of his early life, st of all, has followed up many of his ts after their graduation into their new ies. The praise of Mr. Washington is mely warm, but not warmer than is just. certain, however, that not many white could safely bear so much. The story his early life is not so full as is his autobiography now running in the *Outlook*, but enjamin Franklin's arrival in Philadelphia was not more interesting than his in Richmond, without a cent in his pocket, and afterward at the Hampton School, where he was not regarded as a promising addition. In Richmond he slept *under* the sidewalk for some nights while getting a little forehanded by helping to unload a vessel. But the value of Mr. Thrasher's book does not consist in these personal details so much as in the full account of the organization and working of the Tuskegee School, and the conferences which are held there in February every year. The beginnings of Tuskegee were as pathetic as those of any college in the United States. An all-pervading common sense appears to be the quality of its organizer's mind that has been most serviceable. There should have been some correction of the mistake, industriously multiplied in some quarters, that Mr. Washington is willing to make the political rights of his people subordinate to their material prosperity. Of all the illustrations, which are many and instructive, the most significant is that of the two boys who walked five hundred miles to get to Tuskegee.

RECENT POETRY.

It will be a curious experience for many Americans to read in the list of "Macmillan's Uniform Edition of the Poets" the f Tennyson, Wordsworth, Shelley, ng up with 'The Collected is being, for most unobtru-

such feeling of incipient disdain is swept away, in Mr. Brown's case, by the delightful strength of the face revealed—a face at once patrician and plebeian, academic and peasantlike, with its strong features and genial look beneath the Oxford hood. Mr. Henley's enthusiastic article in the *Pall Mall Magazine* upon his schoolmaster and crony, with Mr. Irwin's two volumes of selections from the poet's delightful letters, have made him suddenly familiar to the reading public; and his thick volume of verse, including more than seven hundred pages, offers not a page too many for the lover of real and genuine things. Suggesting a curious mixture of two authors seemingly so remote from each other as Crabbe and Walt Whitman, he tells long village tales in a continuous atmosphere of outdoor nature. Every character is fresh and racy, and he gives such a charm to Manx life and dialect that one forgets Hall Caine as comfortably as if he had never been born. The longer tales have a quality that can hardly be conveyed in extracts, for they must be read, and read leisurely. But the sea pieces, which are numerous, are usually shorter, and have to our thinking a vigor which makes Kipling seem quite artificial, as with the following (p. 44):

THE PEEL LIFE-BOAT.

Of Charley Cain, the cox,
And the thunder of the rocks,
And the ship *St. George*—
How he balked the sea-wolf's gorge
Of its prey—
Southward bound from Norraway;

And the fury and the din,
And the horror and the roar,
Rolling in, rolling in,
Rolling in upon the dead lee-shore!

See the Harbour-master stands,
Cries—"Have you all your hands?"
Then, as an angel springs
With God's breath upon his wings,
She went;
And the black storm robe was rent
With the shout and with the din. . . .

. . .

"Lay aboard her, Charley lad!"
"Lay aboard her! Are you mad?
With the bumping and the scamper
Of all this loose deck hamper,
And the yards
Dancing round us here like cards,"
With the fury and the din. . . .

So Charley scans the rout,
Charley knows what he's about,
Keeps his distance, heaves the line—
"Pay it out there true and fine!
Not too much, men!
Take in the slack, you Dutchmen!"
With the fury and the din. . . .

Now the hawser's fast and steady,
And the traveller rigged and ready.
Says Charley—"What's the lot?"
"Twenty-four," Then like a shot—
"Twenty-three," 's all I see"—
Says Charley. . . .
With the fury and the din. . . .

"Not a soul shall leave the wreck,"
Says Charley, "till on deck
You bring the man that's hurt."
So they brought him in his shirt—
O, it's fain
I am for you, Charles Cain—
With the fury and the din. . . .

. . .

See the rainbow bright and broad!
Now, all men, thank ye God,
For the marvel and the token,
And the word that He hath spoken!

With Thee,
O Lord of all that be,
We have peace amid the din,
And the horror and the roar,
Rolling in, rolling in,
Rolling in upon the dead lee-shore.

Turn now to another, with a higher touch of purely imaginative treatment (p. 696):

THE SCHOONER.

mark that schooner westward far at sea—
but an hour ago
ing hoggish at the quay,
and fro,
d shoved, and pushed,

And chewed,
And one
Forth like a mouldy ba
And smiles, lay on the bowsp
And cursed the Harbour-master by

. . .

And now, behold! a shadow of repose
Upon a line of gray,
She sleeps, that transverse cuts the evening rose—
She sleeps, and dreams away,
Soft-blended in a unity of rest
All jars, and strifes obscene, and turbulent throes
'Neath the broad benediction of the West—

Sleeps; and methinks she changes as she sleeps,
And dies, and is a spirit pure.
Lo! on her deck an angel pilot keeps
His lonely watch secure;
And at the entrance of Heaven's dockyard waits,
Till from Night's leash the fine-breath'd morning
leaps,
And that strong hand within unbars the gates.

Next, this exquisite picture, tender and simple as that of any cottage child in Wordsworth (p. 90):

"GOD IS LOVE."

At Derby Haven in the sweet Manx land
A little girl had written on the sand
This legend:—"God is love." But, when I said:—
"What means this writing?" thus she answered:—
"It's father that's at say [sea],
And I come here to pray,
And God is love." My eyes grew dim—
Blest child! in Heaven above
Your angel sees the face of Him
Whose name is love.

Mr. Edgar Wallace's 'Writ in Barracks' (London: Methuen) should undoubtedly, if reprinted in America, be inscribed to Col. Roosevelt. In point of poetry, it is Kipling and water; in point of "strenuousness," it has the enthusiasm for war and bloodshed in which a member of the medical corps usually exceeds the staff officer. It sings of "The People to Cecil John Rhodes"; it sings of "Tommy's Autograph," "Tommy to his Laureate," "Britannia to her First-Born." There is not a page of it that does not revel in blood and in the infallibility of England. This gives the flavor of it (p. 96):

"And like a giant, bearing stings
Of gnats, who joy to see him wince,
We stand—the envy of the kings
Despised by every petty prince!
Who know that, while enduring yet,
We bear—but we do not forget.

"We lived, and live! The world shall see
An inextinguishable flame.
The nations fade; but we shall be
When Gaul and Teuton are a name!
For us the seven seas in one:
For landlocked hordes—oblivion."

He hits off Kipling, his model, thus neatly, in "Tommy to his Laureate" (p. 59):

'But you're *our* partic'lar author, you're our pat-
ron an' our friend,
You're the poet of the cuss-word an' the swear,
You're the poet of the people, where the red-mappe
lands extend,
You're the poet of the jungle an' the lair,
An' compare
To the ever-speaking voice of everywhere!"

After all, the severest blow to any poet's fame is dealt, not by his critics, but by his imitators.

As Mr. Wallace deals this blow to Kipling, so Mr. Hamilton Adrian Piffard, in 'Marforio, and Other Poems' (London: Elkin Mathews), gives a similar unconscious thrus at Mr. Swinburne, with the difference th the latter's cadences have a sweetness such as their rhymes and alliterations such as imitator can wholly spoil. Yet it is possible not to trace to its true origi verses of "Marie Etelka" (p. 68):

"O eyes, so dark and dancing!
Red lips, so ripe and sweet!
What glamour in the glancing
And motions of your feet!

"Our hopes dissolve in sadness,
And die in one adieu;
Too well we know the madne
That comes of loving you.

. . .

"Past things seem sad and ol
The song and smile take
That were so gay and gold
So full of love and light.

"If you were born capricious,
And changeful as the sky,
You give us days delicious,
And nights that never die."

It must be owned, however, that there is a sort of attraction in Mr. Piffard's West Indian and Oriental perfumes, were it only that they are just now somewhat out of fashion and recall the Byronic period.

We are often told that the sonnet has had its day, yet volume after volume filled with sonnets only proves how singularly firm is the hold maintained by this seemingly artificial form of structure. One of these, "The Fields of Dawn, and Later Sonnets" by Lloyd Mifflin (Houghton), has undoubtedly the monotony which belongs to all but the highest masters in this form of verse, but it is pleasant to find Mr. Mifflin inscribing one of the poems to Edward Robeson Taylor, and it is interesting to note that the most spirited of the sonnets is that written in commemoration of an event seemingly so peaceful as the first landing of William Penn on this soil (p. 101):

ARRIVAL OF THE "WELCOME."

How beautiful she looked in that far day
With all her canvas flying in the breeze,—
The stately "Welcome," from the stormy seas,
Wafted on dove-like wings along the bay!
"Peace on the Earth," her fluttering pennons say,
And from her deck a voice: "Good-will to men!"
For he had come, the courtly Quaker, Penn,
Full of his dream of philanthropic sway.

And must the feet of Progress ever be
Incarnadined by still recurring wars,
While from her path is swept each barbarous horde?
Oh, may this Land, now under thrall of Mars,
End her red slaughter by the Asian sea,
And sheathe her once inviolable sword!

In another volume of sonnets, 'Pictoris Carmina,' by Frederic Crowninshield (Dodd, Mead & Co.), we encounter poems equally correct in form, charmingly illustrated by the author, and having far less of monotony than those of Mr. Mifflin; but also far less of grace, of smoothness, and of artistic finish. Mr. Crowninshield is fond of sonorous and polysyllabic words, as we note, for instance, in the following sonnet (p. 79):

CLEAR SKIES.

To-day I laugh full-mettled in the shine
Exalting as it heaves above the crests
Deliberate, and on the landscape nests
From flowered foreground to remotest line
Of the perspectived hills, which scarce define
Their high pretensions on a light that vests
The horizon with a nacreous veil, and wrests
From irised opal victory. Divine
The sky unoccupied! Divine *my* sky
Unclouded by a vexing film of care!
Effulgent Stars, ye coruscate for aye
In space—in unencumbered crystal air
Beyond the vapor-girded earth. Could we
But gleam in atmosphereless Life, like Ye!

Note in these lines the number of words which, if not inadmissible, are at least unusual, cumbrous, unmanageable, at any rate somewhat unsuited for weaving into the soft tissue of the sonnet; such as *atmosphereless, perspectived, irised, full-mettled, nacreous, coruscate.* Surely, the English tongue is of itself too difficult as compared with the Italian to make it safe to empty these rougher crags from the Anglo-Saxon quarry. Yet doubtless Mr. Crowninshield would prefer to remind us rather of Michelangelo than of Petrarch; and it is too much to claim of any artist that he shall have thoroughly mastered two arts. His pages are, however, full of rich material, and he gives an admirable motto for the whole volume in that of the first sonnet, quoted from the French writer Bernard Prost, in the *Gazette des Beaux-Arts:* "Quelle plume enviable que celle de ces peintres, quand l'occasion s'offre à eux de quitter la palette pour l'encrier et de jeter un cri du cœur!"

Mr. Frank Sewall, in 'The Trophies; Sonnets by José-María de Heredia' (Boston: Small, Maynard & Co.), has made the mistake of doing very imperfectly what another had previously done almost in perfection. Mr. Sewall has taken in hand one of the masterpieces of modern literature, a book of sonnets so vast in range and so continuous that they almost amount collectively to an epic poem; and has rendered them in blank verse only. He says in his preface:

> "In the translation of the sonnets, while their verse-form has been strictly maintained, the rhyme has been purposely discarded, in order to allow for a rendering of these marvellous word-studies unembarrassed by such restriction. Beautiful as a feature of the sonnet as rhyme undoubtedly is, its absence in this case will be less noticed in view of the splendor and completeness of the word-pictures themselves."

But it would be more true to say that this very fact is the reason why the absence of rhyme will be noticed. The "central characteristic of these splendid sonnets" being, as Mr. Gosse has well said, "their technical perfection," a fatal blow is struck at that perfection when the rhymes are omitted. Translating any sonnet without rhyme is like drawing a human face and omitting the eyes; and the finer the face, the more fatal the omission. The difference will be seen at once by quoting one of the sonnets in Mr. Sewall's rhymeless version, and comparing it with one of the remarkable translations by Edward Robeson Taylor of San Francisco, reviewed in these columns two years ago. Mr. Sewall's first (p. 16):

PAN AND THE NYMPHS.

Across the thickets, by the secret ways
Which lose themselves in avenues of green,
The Goat-foot, Hunter of naked nymphs,
Glides through the lofty woods with burning eye.
Sweet is't to hear the sighs, the murmurs cool,
Which rise at midday out of springs unknown,
When Sol, the glittering conqueror of the skies,
Shoots through the trembling shade his darts of gold.
A straying nymph stops suddenly to hear
The tears of morning falling drop by drop
Upon the moss; her young heart reels for joy;
But with a bound the God from copse leaps forth,
Seizes her, rending the air with mocking laugh,
And disappears. Then all is still again.

Compare this with the version by Mr. Taylor, and see how, in a translation quite as nearly literal, the same poem may be rendered in rhyme, thus keeping it still a sonnet (p. 24):

Across the brake, by ways that hidden lie
At foot of where the verdant pathways run,
Divine Nymph hunter, the Goat-footed one,
Steals through the forest with an ardent eye.

'Tis sweet to hear the freshening sound, the sigh,
Rising from viewless springs at summer's noon,
When the bright vanquisher of clouds, the Sun,
His golden arrows at the dark lets fly.

A Nymph lone wandering stays her steps. She hears
Fall drop by drop the morning's lovely tears
Upon the moss. Her heart drinks ecstasies.

But, with a single bound, outsprings the God,
Enclasps her, then with mocking laughter flees . . .
And silence settles over all the wood.

The same difference is visible on every page of the two books. Mr. Taylor has defects of his own—sometimes an imperfect rhyme, sometimes a word too unusual; but, after all, his are translations of the sonnets, while Mr. Sewall's are not. Yet Mr. Sewall's work shows patient effort, has often felicitous phrasing, and is interesting as a further recognition of the steady growth of this remarkable Franco-Cuban's fame.

We learn the value of rhyme, again, in Mr. C. H. Herford's admirable rhymed version of Ibsen's "Love's Comedy" (Chicago: Sergel), in which he has, it seems, been assisted by the coöperation of Mr. William Archer, and also in a few cases by Mr. Gosse. Through this joint effort, we have probably the best English rendering of Ibsen yet made; and the play itself, though one of his earliest, has all the qualities familiar in his later ones. It is based on what may be called the theory of loneliness, and on the consequent paradox that "the first condition of a happy marriage is the absence of love, and the first condition of an enduring love is the absence of marriage." His lover separates himself from his betrothed in order that his love shall remain a perennial romance, and not be bankrupted by the sordid cares of actual life; and the maiden thus deserted deliberately makes a marriage, without especial affection, in order that she may be duly cared for. This theory is worked out with a varied and most humorous study of character, and forms in its conclusion a curious contrast to the author's most celebrated play, "Ghosts"; the keynote of this new volume being, as we have already said, the value of loneliness, while it is the doctrine of "Ghosts" that we are all members one of another, so that real loneliness is impossible.

We adhere to the opinion that no one among the younger race of American poets —those, namely, who are under thirty— has given the signs of promise visible in Miss Josephine Preston Peabody; and this both in her previous volume, 'The Wayfarers,' and in her new one, called felicitously by a name drawn from Shakspere's Sonnets, 'Fortune and Men's Eyes' (Boston: Small, Maynard & Co.). Very young poets encounter two dangers—that of having too much to say and too little. She belongs to the former class, and has not yet mastered her own thoughts up to the point of full expression. There is a thin aerial veil over them, like that over Henry Vaughan's poems, infinitely enjoyable except when it grows a little too dense. This is exhibited even in the brief drama which gives the title to the volume, and which, by departing from the meditative note, furnishes a new test of Miss Peabody's powers. From the very beginning of the little play, she has caught the Elizabethan note in a degree quite marvellous for a young girl. The whole thing is eminently bright, alert, and vividly local; while not coarse, yet not causing the reader to miss the coarseness; and still it is doubtful, as the play goes on, whether the veil of reverie is not drawn too closely for the average reader. There is so much thought in all these poems that, as in Emily Dickinson's, when one catches the meaning most fully, he cannot feel wholly sure that there does not remain some esoteric meaning, beyond his grasp, in the author's mind. Some of them, we should say, might be interpreted in as many ways as Browning's 'Childe Roland.' This might apply, for instance, to the exquisite little poem called "The Stay-at-Home," which comes, if we may venture to guess, as near to the author's heart as anything in the volume. For this very reason, we transcribe rather one whose rhythm and tenderness will reveal themselves more instantly to that much-prescribed-for person, the general reader, as touching a more universal experience (p. 75):

LITANY OF THE LIVING.

Death, thou hast taken.
Death, thou dost give.
We who outlive,
Lo, we awaken!

I.

o late,
never saw.
vain awe;
ait.
desolate,
hoarded once.
blunts
leisure now, where none intrudes,
itudes
ys.
consecrate
tate
and hours with memory and praise,
is too late.

II.

are grown wise
amazèd eyes.
re eager, glad,
up all we had,
r, count and glory! We divine
l our riches in the day of cost.
we had, thou makest it to shine,
is lost.
en, was he.
we heed, we see,
ess!
e all things so clear;
here we heard not, hear,
ove where we were listless.

Death, potent Healer,
Death, who dost give,
Hear us that live,
Unblessed Revealer!

III.

. . . .

hou showest where we err,
ut, O Interpreter!
Pointing the meaning of this piteous Book
Whereon we look,
Let us be wise some day to understand;
To understand indeed,
And see, and read,
Without thy Hand.

It is a question how far Mr. Edwin Markham's fame has been permanently aided by 'The Man with the Hoe,' which is now published anew with other poems "decorated by Howard Pyle" (Doubleday). A reaction was destined to follow the early fame of 'The Man with the Hoe,' because a little reflection suggested the thought that it was, after all, to some extent a second-hand work, as is a photograph beside a statue and an engraving beside a painting. Anybody, it might be urged, on studying Millet's picture, might have evolved the same thoughts put in language by Mr. Markham; to which, however, the poet might justly reply, "Why, if so, was it not done?" In the other poems of the book there is certainly nothing else so good, but it is a great thing to see in them a man unspoiled by success, and having the tact and modesty to dedicate his collection to Mr. Stedman, with the added words: "First to hail and caution me." The poems are all filled with a strong humanitary feeling, and belong so emphatically to to-day that Mr. Pyle's decorations, almost wholly classical in allusion, seem a little inappropriate. The following poem is in the key of all (p. 91):

SONG MADE FLESH.

I have no glory in these songs of mine:
If one of them can make a brother strong,
It came down from the peaks of the divine—
I heard it in the Heaven of Lyric Song.

The one who builds the poem into fact,
He is the rightful owner of it all:
The pale words are with God's own power packed
When brave souls answer to their bugle-call.

And so I ask no man to praise my song,
But I would have him build it in his soul;
For that great praise would make me glad and strong,
And build the poem to a perfect whole.

'The Mystery of Godliness,' by F. B. Money Coutts (Lane), is the work of a man of singular earnestness, whose writings show a genuinely personal note, as has been well exhibited in his former volume, 'The Revelation of St. Love, the Divine.' Without music, he shows great vigor of ex- little volume is, in Ben with thought." this

that the human ideas of God never cease be enlarged and purified," and "the search for God must, from the very nature of the case, be eternal." To this theme he devotes 239 four-line verses. He regards imagination as the highest faculty of man, and follows it fearlessly, with this result (p. 120):

"We cannot reach the perilous place
Where God has survey of the land;
We shall not ever see his face,
We shall not ever understand.

"Who worship the Eternal, yearn
Eternally; and each advance
Is but a coign from which to learn
A larger range of ignorance.

"Though Christian covenanters dare
To hope some day a home to find
And an inheritance more fair
Than this poor plot they leave behind.

"There is no promise in their bond
That, when they penetrate this show
Of shadows, they shall gain, beyond,
The Land of Nothing More to Know."

With the work of Mr. Money Coutts may be classed the somewhat remarkable literary effort of Mr. W. H. Mallock, 'Lucretius on Life and Death, in the Metre of Omar Khayyâm' (Lane). Mr. Mallock, as is well known, is always ready to put lance in rest against the more extreme theological deductions of modern science, and he has taken occasion to point a moral by skilfully weaving the famous Latin poem of Lucretius into Omar's measure, and then showing the manner in which Darwin and Huxley lead up to both. When we consider that the ally in whom Darwin took most comfort, our own Asa Gray, was a good Orthodox Christian, Mr. Mallock may be said to have missed his mark. Yet the work is admirably done, and the dignity and seriousness of Lucretius are presented in a fine poetic paraphrase rather than in a translation.

A moderately good book of selections is Mr. Clinton Scollard's 'Ballads of American Bravery' (Silver, Burdett & Co.). The editor gives in the notes his own estimates, not merely of the comparative rank of his fellow-authors, but of the different military officers who commanded in our wars. He says apologetically of these notes that they are "intended to be suggestive rather than in any sense exhaustive" (p. 193); but our impression is, that if he had confined himself more simply to fact and had given less of opinion, it would have been better. There is necessarily more or less of trash in the book, but it is on the whole the best collection of the kind yet edited. We regret, however, its omission of the fine poem of Elbridge Jefferson Cutler, "The Volunteer"; also of Stuart Sterne's "Manila Bay"; of Horace Spencer Fiske's "Ballad of Manila Bay," and of a few others. Mr. Fiske's poem appears in a little volume bearing the above title, "and other verses" (Chicago: University Press). Most of its contents have a rather undergraduate flavor, but there is a sonnet on Chicago which is worth quoting, were it only for the sake of future historians of that city (p. 71):

CHICAGO.

Erect, commanding, like a goddess born,
With strength and beauty glowing in her face
And all her stately form attired in grace,
She stands beside her lake to greet the morn.
Behind her, rustling leaves of yellow corn
That whisper richest comfort to the race;
And 'neath her gaze, the waters' purple space
A thousand flashing sails with light adorn.
Still in her sight shine visions of the fair—
Immortal Art illuming human ill,
And far-eyed Science blessing with her care;
While through her soul, in purpose to fulfil,
And reach her highest hope beyond compare,
Throbs deep and strong the strenuous cry: "I will."

It may be said of Miss Carolyn Wells's Idyls' (Dodd, Mead & Co.), as of Mr. 's illustrations of them, that

mira diocrity. The of fun in the whole book diary (p. 105):

ONE WEEK.

This year had gloomily begun
For Willie Weeks, a poor man's SUN.

He was beset with bill and dun,
And he had very little MON.

"This cash," said he, "won't pay my dues.
I've nothing here but ones and TUES."

A bright thought struck him, and he said:
"The rich Miss Goldrocks I will WED."

But when he paid his court to her,
She lisped, but firmly said: "No, THUR."

"Alas," said he, "then I must die!
Although hereafter I may FRI."

They found his gloves, and coat, and hat,
The Coroner upon them SAT.

SIX BOOKS ON MUSICAL TOPICS.

Songs and Song Writers. By Henry T. Finck. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Contemporary American Composers. By Rupert Hughes. L. C. Page & Co.

Famous Pianists of To-day and Yesterday. By Henry C. Lahee. L. C. Page & Co.

Prima Donnas and Soubrettes. By Lewis C. Strang. L. C. Page & Co.

Stories of Famous Songs. By S. J. Adair FitzGerald. J. B. Lippincott Co.

Der Musikverein von Milwaukee. 1850-190 Milwaukee. 1900.

Mr. Finck has made a taking little v ume on a deeply and increasingly inter ing topic. The day of appreciation of German *Lied* is at its noon; even the ambitious singers give song-recitals r than operatic concerts, and thither both the instructed and the unins lovers of music. To both classes Mr. little book of history, appreciatio depreciations addresses itself, and is if not timely. To read of songs is most fascinating thing to play which, as Mr. Finck points out, i most fascinating thing to hear The author says that his book Son deavor to make a sort of and in this we consider that he ed admirably, even if, as with t red" book, all telescopes do the stars alike.

The beginning is a brief h opening with mention of songs. The author records by troubadour and minnes addition of the instrume ment, here throwing do Rockstro, who maintains dours gave the secular ple. Later comes the song, of the province o the twelfth century we f together for ecclesiast voices—sometimes as mathematical rather sults, the polyphonic more, serious hindr the sixteenth centur Christian practice ing, Luther substi songs for the Greg enemies said, pro the Reformation touched on, in rebellion against writing which words; an int when one contemplates Italian opera in its modern aspect. It was not long, however, before the exploitation of lung power became the salient feature of Italian opera. Here we trace the descent more easily. These were the palmy days of the operatic aria, the cantata, the oratorio. The folk song hid its head under the shadow of what Mr. Finck calls "Jumbomania"—a complaint, it thus appears, not exclusively American. Bach and Handel neglected the song for larger achievements; Gluck, Haydn, Mozart, and Beethoven, though writing a few songs, "were unconsciously affected with Jumbomania, for they treated the *Lied* as a mere trifle, unworthy of their best efforts."

This may sound a little like scolding Franklin for having no telephone in his house, but an occasional petulance is perhaps not too high a price to pay for a style that glistens with animation. In relation to Beethoven, the author truly says that his contribution to the art of song lies in an increased interest in the accompaniment. We look in vain for mention of Haydn's "My Mother Bids Me" and the "Spirit Song." With Schubert we come to the greatest of song-writers, and here the enthusiasm of the book kindles; the account of the composer is a charming bit of biography, with much instructive and entertaining matter as to the inner history of many of the immortal songs. To Schubert succeed necessarily brief considerations of Loewe and Mendelssohn. Of Schumann's 245 songs, Mr. Finck concedes to only twenty the highest order of merit; to find that "Widmung" is not among the twenty, however, enables Schumann's lovers to hold up their heads as to the excluded ones. We do not find the writer putting his finger on the vital point of difference between Schubert and Schumann—that intellectual quality in the latter which has been expressively if roughly indicated as making the difference between the brook and the poet who thinks about the brook. With Franz, Mr. Finck soars again on wings of music, and makes an affectionately sympathetic study of this master of song and interpreter of poetry. Brahms has a "lamentably weak melodic faculty," but has written one "adorable song," the "Minnelied." Liszt, Rubinstein, Chopin, Paderewski, Grieg, form the topics of several of the best pages in the book—pages interspersed with vivacious comment on the men, their ideas, their quality, and the character of their share in the development of the art-song.

A eulogistic chapter on MacDowell brings to a close a volume at once entertaining and suggestive—suggestive of dissent, truly, at times, but full of matter, and of an excellent lucidity. To singers, its bibliography alone should make it valuable. The personal equation in Mr. Finck's case is large, but, for the "Constant Reader," distinctly calculable.

The American composer, collectively speaking, has at last found his champion and prophet. Mr. Rupert Hughes has devoted to him a book of 456 pages, and in a postlude he predicts that "in the coming century the musical supremacy and inspiration of the world will rest here overseas, in America." He is emboldened to make this prophecy by the belief he has held for many years that "some of the best music in the world is being written here at home, and that it only needs the light to win its meed of praise." In truth, he is in a better position to pass an opinion on this matter than any one else; for, not content with perusing all accessible printed works of American composers, he has had the astounding courage to seek out and read their manuscripts, "a hideous task," as he admits, "which might be substituted for the comparative pastime of breaking rocks as punishment for misdemeanors." But, as he adds, "the fact that, after going through at least a ton of American compositions, I am still an enthusiast, is surely a proof of some virtue in native music."

The courage which prompted Mr. Hughes to tackle all these manuscripts is also manifested in the fearlessness with which he expresses his opinions. He is not one of those who timidly wait for a consensus of professional opinion before venturing upon cordial commendation of what seems to him good. His model is Schumann, whose mind was always open to new impressions, and who made a place for himself among the very small number of great musical critics by being neither afraid nor ashamed to be led into instant enthusiasms. Mr. Hughes, to be sure, cannot claim the authority of Schumann, and his fearlessness sometimes becomes recklessness; yet even this is infinitely better than the policy of sneering at everything contemporary in music. In reprinting his chapter on American Women Composers from the *Century Magazine*, he has modified some of his most reckless assertions, such as that these women do as good creative work as any of the men composers of the time; being content now with the claim that "the best work done in the arts by women is of better quality than the average work done by men." This is a somewhat vague and intangible assertion, which perhaps approaches the truth. But the cardinal fact remains that no woman has ever written a piece of music equalling the best music made by men.

Mr. Hughes divides American composers into three groups—the Innovators, the Academics, and the Colonists. MacDowell heads the first group, which also includes Kelly, Loomis, Nevin, Sousa (!), Schoenefeld, Arnold, Page. The second group is headed by Professor Paine, "the most classic of our composers," "about the earliest of native writers to convince foreign musicians that some good could come out of Nazareth." The other "Academics" are Buck, Parker, Van der Stucken, Gilchrist, Chadwick, Foote, Pratt, Hadley, Foerster, Converse, Coerne. Under the heading of Colonists, the author briefly discusses the composers of the New York, Boston, and other "colonies," so far as they have not already been disposed of in the preceding sections. This division is somewhat fanciful and arbitrary, but it serves its purpose. The information concerning persons and manuscripts brought together by Mr. Hughes makes his work indispensable to all who are interested in American music. But it is far more than a work of reference. The author has an excellent style, with many an original turn, and he writes with the knowledge of an expert musician. Of special interest are his remarks on the reasons why music was so late in developing in this country, and on the questions of negro and Indian music.

It is worthy of note, by the way, that Dr. Dvorák, who agitated these questions anew, left more of an impression on the American composer than is generally known. During the years that he presided over the National Conservatory in New York, there were among his pupils as many as five of the composers who are favorably considered in Mr. Hughes's book—Shelley, Arnold, Loomis, Schoenefeld, and Rubin Goldmark. Undoubtedly the bringing over of Dvorák is the best of Mrs. Thurber's claims to remembrance as a musical benefactress. It was hardly fair to omit mention of this fact. Mr. Hughes is also, no doubt inadvertently, unfair toward the late Anton Seidl. In lamenting the fact that so little has been done for the American composer by American orchestras, he sums up what the Thomas, the Boston, the Cincinnati, and even the Kaltenborn orchestras have accomplished in this direction, but entirely ignores Seidl in this place, though in the body of the book there are a number of references to compositions as having been first brought out by him. As a matter of fact, Seidl was the best friend the American composer has ever had. He constantly encouraged him, not only by playing his pieces, but by revising MSS. and giving advice. Interesting details regarding this point may be found in the memorial volume on Seidl published by the Scribners a year ago.

Mr. Lahee's book on pianists does not call for detailed criticism. It is a mere compilation, without much order or system, of facts accessible in the musical dictionaries. Mr. Strang's book has no greater value from a critical point of view, but it contains much information about popular operetta singers not easily accessible otherwise, and will, therefore, doubtless be welcomed by many. It tells all about Lillian Russell, Alice Nielsen, Virginia Earle, Madge Lessing, Jessie Bartlett Davis, and a score more of their class.

'Famous Songs' is an expression which is capable of being interpreted in more than one way. Mr. FitzGerald has interpreted it in the sense in which the banjo and mandolin clubs of our colleges are referred to as "musical societies." The songs discussed by him are famous among the masses, not among persons of musical taste and intelligence. Such men of genius as Schubert, Schumann, Franz, Jensen, Rubinstein, Liszt, Grieg, and so on, are quite beneath the notice of our author, though he does condescend to refer to Beethoven's "Adelaide." The songs he is concerned with are such as "Annie Laurie," "Comin' through the Rye," "The Girl I left behind Me," "Where Are You Going, My Pretty Maid?" "Home, Sweet Home," "Auld Lang Syne," "The Marseillaise," "The Watch on the Rhine," etc. Thousands are interested in these songs, for musical, sentimental, and patriotic reasons; and for their benefit Mr. FitzGerald has compiled a mass of information and gossip regarding them which it took him years to gather. The work is now brought out in two attractive volumes in holiday attire, with illustrations.

The last book on our list is not likely to interest many outside of Milwaukee, but the future historian of music in America will find some interesting facts in this account of the first fifty years' existence of the leading musical society in that city. Among the most amusing things in the book are the reprints of criticisms made on Wagner's music when first performed in Milwaukee.

grims' chorus from "Tannhäu-
ndemned.

HILDREN'S BOOKS.—II.

an interesting sign of the times nong the best of the new children's two should be volumes of plays. ndergarten theory, that a child needs tion in its amusements no less than s work, could not be better exempli- than in the 'Wild Animal Play for ildren,' arranged by Ernest Seton-Thompn (Doubleday, Page & Co.). To the niddle-aged reader, not yet too old to remember the keen joy of acting a favorite book, with no "grown-ups" at hand to suggest or to instruct, it seems surprising that stories as popular as 'Wild Animals I Have Known' should need this elaborate dramatization. But the children of the present day cannot, apparently, dramatize a story unaided; they must be told what to say, how to say it, even what to wear when they say it. The pretty illustrations of this book are a pleasure to the eye, but do they not reflect unfavorably on the childish reader's imagination? Perhaps Mr. Seton-Thompson's real purpose in this adaptation was that of enforcing his moral, which had in the stories themselves been agreeably unobtrusive. The plot of the play, the author's sentiments as expressed by the Angel, and the music by Daniel Gregory Mason, together form a truly striking example of conventional kindergarten propriety.

The moral note is not quite so forcibly struck in the 'St. Nicholas Book of Plays and Operettas' (Century Co.), but the imagination of the average child is no less totally ignored. It may be well to give detailed technical instructions as to getting up shadow pantomimes, tableaux, toy symphonies, and topsy-turvy concerts, but surely it is unnecessary to suggest each individual tableau, dance, song, and speech. If the book is merely a symptom of the charity-entertainment epidemic, and the plays are meant to amuse public audiences and raise money, undoubtedly they are good of their kind. Otherwise, one is tempted to protest strongly against this burdening of children's memories, by letting them learn when they might extemporize. Against two chapters of this volume a graver objection may be brought. Has fun sunk so low that it needs irreverence to enliven it? Elizabethan profanity was a recognized form of wit, but in this nineteenth century a religious carol inserted into the midst of secular fooling shocks without amusing us. Again, "Lord Ullin's Daughter" may not be the highest poetry, but it is an accepted classic, and the humor of introducing its two lovers on the stage, armed respectively with a "valise, bandbox, and umbrella," and a "bird-cage, a work-basket, and a parasol," seems more rthy of a variety show than of a first- ren's magazine. Only the illus- the highest *St. Nicholas* work of Miss

spere, animals, it is sonality of the Dumpty, but the stories sca out the book quite compensate for th children will enjoy the disaster of Miss Chatty Friske in the wasps' nest, and grown-up people will appreciate the quiet irony of "Ahmet the Untruthful" and "Elsie and the Giants." Everywhere the language is simple, the poems lively, the incidents amusing and well-strung together. Like the "Alice" books, this story is delightfully free from sense and moral. The drill of the timid deer, whose hearts are brave but whose legs refuse to meet the enemy, is a gem of pure nonsense. One thing alone the reader may regret—that Sydney Reid did not, like Lewis Carroll, avoid slang, and thus make his book worthy not merely of temporary popularity, but of a permanent place in child literature.

'Ednah and her Brothers,' by Eliza Orne White (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), is not up to the level of 'The Coming of Theodora,' but is still a nice, pleasant little book. The children, on the whole, are possible children, though it seems remarkable for a little girl of nine, even a little Bostonian, to say: "I don't think it would be so bad to be grown-up if you only took it the right way." The stories are not wildly exciting, but they are simple and readable, and the love of nature which shows itself in some of them, notably in the last two, ought to be very inspiring. It is to be hoped that "Treading the Winepress," an amusing account of how six children trod a valuable crop of grapes into amateur wine, will not be inspiring in a less profitable way. The mother is a most attractive person throughout the book, and the relations between the children and both their parents are refreshingly old-fashioned, suggesting more than anything else the golden age of Catherine Sinclair's 'Holiday House.'

The *laudator temporis acti* does not find such agreeable food for reflection in 'Granny's Wonderful Chair,' by Frances Browne (Dutton & Co.). After toiling through these nine fairy-tales, with their prosy morals, their inartistic descriptive names, and, above all, their tantalizing echoes of Perrault and Andersen, the reader may well wonder why the children of 1856 ever found them interesting, why seven later editions have been needed, and especially why Mrs. Frances Hodgson Burnett took such infinite pains to recall the original book and rewrite the stories in *St. Nicholas*. Her series of "Stories from the Lost Fairy-Book," begun in 1887, was stopped by the discovery that a new edition of the long-lost 'Granny's Wonderful Chair' had been issued seven years before. We may hope that in her version, even if faithfulness demanded an adherence to the didactic material, she at least avoided the grammatical errors of the present volume, which has little to recommend it except its dainty pictures by Marie Seymour Lucas.

Another volume of stories, so decidedly *à la* Hans Andersen that the imitation is probably intentional, is 'Soap-Bubble ries for Children,' by Fanny Barry & Co.). It is difficult to say these than that they are The best, like shortest, has

whe when the st al nor too aggres such as any child might re particularly "The Troll in the Chu tain" and "The Badgers' School." The lustrating is very uneven. Sometimes it fails entirely to correspond with the text, sometimes, as in the two drawings by Palmer Cox, it adds a flavor to the rather insipid little volume.

It is a pleasure to turn from a modern imitation to a genuine antique. G. H. Boden and W. Barrington d'Almeida have earned our gratitude by giving us 'Wonder-Stories from Herodotus' (Harpers), the charm of which is heightened by the beautiful colored illustrations of H. Granville Fell. The version is well conceived and well executed, and we regret only that the stories are but six in number, and are all drawn from the first three books, so that we miss such well-known favorites as Hippocleides dancing away his bride, and Xerxes flogging the waves with chains. Of the tales chosen, "Ladronius the Prince of Thieves" will probably be the most popular with children, none the less because its moral is as dubious as any of Grimm's. The text is everywhere expanded, explained, or curtailed at the discretion of the transcribers, and on the whole their taste is very sound, in spite of an occasional unfortunate tendency to introduce a comic element. It seems, however, a pity to have omitted the antiquarian details concerning oracles, Solon's code, the diet of the Ethiopians, etc., or, worse still, Darius's most interesting apology for a lie.

A few inaccuracies surprise us in so careful a work. Why do we read Briton and Gordius, instead of Biton and Gordias? Again, if the "Orthian strain" of Arion was to be provided with words, it was surely possible to write a poem more in accordance with its loud and martial characte than the pretty little nineteenth-centur lyric here given. And when we read in th same story that "Arion erected a statue bronze," we do not get a just idea of votive offering alluded to in the origi In one instance, when Ladronius is said have shaved the "right side of the he of each sentinel, instead of the " cheek" as in the Greek, the transcr probably wished to adhere to the hist fact that the Egyptians wore no be

If the Father of History has met w honor from his latest admirers, no the Father of Poetry. From tw most eminent of younger Cambrid cal scholars, Mr. R. J. G. Mayor F. M. Stawell, who undertake, leadership of F. S. Marvin, to Adventures of Odysseus Retol (London: Dent; New York: D we have the right to expect curacy, but not necessarily of style. When Matthew Ar 1862, for a translation of Ho be "perfectly simple and might seem to have bee version before us. Chur from Homer,' has rende dents of the Odyssey in

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ed shape, but this book faithfully follows the order of the Greek, and, when it is possible, gives the story in full. Only irrelevant allusions and unnecessary incidents and names are omitted, and the selection has been made with scrupulous care. The modern form retains in a wonderful way the swing of the original, though we may perhaps regret the omission of many poetic epithets, and the substitution of "you," "dogs," "listen to me," "knight," "sheepskin," etc., for the more euphonious "thou," or "ye," "hounds," "hearken," "chief," "fleece of wool," as given us in the standard translation of Butcher and Lang. The one short specimen of poetry, in the 'Sirens' Song,' makes us almost wish for more—and yet nothing could be finer than the prose descriptions of Nausicaa, Charybdis, and the Bending of the Bow. In one point only does this version fall short of Church. Mr. Charles Robinson, the clever illustrator of Stevenson's 'Child's Garden of Verses,' cannot bend the bow of Flaxman, and several of the pictures positively disfigure an otherwise admirable book.

Another classic adapted for children is 'Don Quixote of the Mancha,' published by John Lane. A very valid reason for its existence lies in the illustrations by Walter Crane. These are charming, always excepting the full-page colored ones, in which we would gladly believe that the coloring had been added by some stranger and irresponsible hand. The Knight certainly never had so rueful a visage before. The accompanying text is by Judge Parry, and he has approached his task with intelligible trepidation. He has followed mostly the version of Shelton, and has sought to retell in print the principal incidents of the First Part, in much the same way that one might retell them by word to a listening child. If it were really possible to spoil Cervantes, such a course as this would run large risks of reducing Don Quixote to a simple madman and Sancho to a cross of dunce and knave. But Judge Parry has had good success; and if a child in our modern and enlightened days may not be turned loose in an entire Don Quixote, this book will serve the turn.

For some readers of 'Elizabeth and her German Garden' there has stood a blot on that entertaining book in the unmaternal attitude of Elizabeth towards the babies. But none have denied that the babies themselves were wholly delightful. Now, in their own book, 'The April Baby's Book of Tunes' (Macmillan), they have their opportunity. They are shut up in the house for a stormy week preceding the Easter holiday, and we find them in the full swing of their ineffable charm. Their mother is shut up with them, and amuses them by writing songs for them. The Man of Wrath is forgotten or on a journey; at all events, he is absent even as a topic, and the effect on Elizabeth appears to be soothing. She has time to be entirely devoted to the irresistible trio of "months," with the result that one would willingly have had it snow for a fortnight. The songs—a small part only of the entertainment—have a flavor of English church music, square, tuneful, stiffish. The effort after original harmonies leads here and there to affectation, and this is true, too, of several of the melodies, which begin well because with entire simplicity, but end in a strained manner, as if simplicity palled yet invention were lacking. The rhythm suffers odd distortion, too, at times. "Polly Flinders" and "Sing a Song of Sixpence" are the most singable for little children. Others there are more ambitious, but no more successful. For American children some of the songs must be transposed. Only at German pianos could babies comfortably reach high G and A. Kate Greenaway's illustrations lend familiar enhancement to this beguiling book. The pussy-cat who has been to London is incomparable.

MABIE'S SHAKSPERE.

William Shakespeare, Poet, Dramatist, and Man. By Hamilton Wright Mabie. With one hundred illustrations. Macmillan.

It is natural to compare Mr. Mabie's book with two notable works on Shakspere that preceded it by a short interval—Mr. Sidney Lee's 'Life,' and the biographical study by Dr. George Brandes, the distinguished Danish critic. But such a comparison would be hardly fair, for the three books differ widely, both in scope and in method. Mr. Lee's 'Life' has already taken its place as a classic of Shaksperian scholarship. It is equally remarkable for learning and for sobriety. Confining itself strictly within the bounds of biography proper, it has recourse to literary criticism only when that can throw light on the actual facts of Shakspere's career. Apart from the fresh information which it affords, this masterly treatise, by virtue of the very limitations which the author imposes upon himself, does the great service of calling discussion down from the clouds to the earth. Mr. Lee has no theory of Shakspere's soul to develop, no canons of dramatic art to expound. To him Shakspere is neither a demigod nor a disembodied spirit, but a man of this world, whose history should be investigated, if at all, in accordance with the laws of evidence and the general axioms of common sense. Acting on these principles, Mr. Lee has produced a book which will not soon become superannuated—which must serve not only as the authoritative biography of Shakspere for many years to come, but as the permanent touchstone of all future study of the poet's "inner life." The growth and operations of Shakspere's soul have long been a favorite subject for the speculative philosopher. In the future, such theorizing will not easily get a patient audience unless it squares itself with the actual Shakspere as he appears in Mr. Lee's sober and restrained pages. The unknown must be content to agree with the known—it cannot pass muster as a substitute for it. In particular, the scrutiny of the Sonnets as biographical material has been remanded to its proper position by Mr. Lee's searching criticism. We may not agree with him in every detail—we may even quarrel with his identification of the elusive "Mr. W. H."; but Mistress Mary Fitton, it is to be hoped, has made her last appearance on any stage. Henceforth "extravagant and erring spirits" like Mr. Tyler will find the candid reader less prone to yield to their mystifications. This of itself is a great gain and ought to entitle Mr. Lee to a high rank among exorcists. He may safely claim a share in the glory of St. Withold, whose exploits are celebrated in rhyme.

Dr. Brandes's book is almost the antipodes of Mr. Lee's. The mere externals of biography have little interest for Dr. Brandes, except so far as they enforce his theory of Shakspere's inner experiences. His main thesis is that the personality of the poet *must* be discoverable in his dramas if only one knows how to find it, and that he knows how to find it. He follows what he styles the psychological method. First he determines (often on the basis of mere whim) the particular mood which prompted Shakspere to write a given drama—the germ, as it were, out of which the play developed in his mind and heart; and then he biographizes. When he can find anything in the history or politics or society of the Elizabethan age that may have occasioned or fostered the mood in question, he utilizes such circumstances unsparingly. True, we have little knowledge of Shakspere's relations to contemporary politics, but that is no deterrent to Dr. Brandes. The net result of his processes is a strange compound of morbid psychic operations and complete sanity of practical conduct. Shakspere was a man of business, who collected his bills with rigor and balanced his books with serenity and invested his profits with unfailing judgment, while at the same time his heart and soul were shaken by titanic passions. In a word, Dr. Brandes's study is as purely a work of imagination as the tragedy of "Othello," only it is not constructed with the same genius and the same knowledge of human nature. It is learned (though not so learned as it seems), original (though less original than one would imagine), powerful (though sometimes confusing the power of words with the power of thought)—but it is not Shakspere. It is animated with the spirit, not of Shakspere, but of a special movement of nineteenth-century thought as exemplified in a small but intellectual community, and in particular in the mind of the author himself. Few recent books have been so stimulating to the student who can supply the proper "corrective spice." Few are so likely to mislead the searcher after something canonical to which he can pin his literary faith. Nobody who cares for Shakspere can neglect Brandes; but everybody who reads Brandes must remember that he is not reading Shakspere. For instance, the learned Dane thinks "Timon of Athens" is a more "interesting" drama than "Macbeth." The reason is clear: he can use "Timon" to show that the sanest and best-balanced of all poets passed through a period of savage misanthropy—a mood of utter unreason which few men experience outside of Bedlam.

Now Mr. Mabie's book does not really enter into competition with either Mr. Lee's 'Life' or Dr. Brandes's 'Study.' It does not claim to add anything to the accumulated stock of knowledge about the poet or his works, nor has the author any novel hypotheses to defend. Originally prepared for serial publication in a widely circulated magazine, it addresses itself "to the great variety of readers." Its expressed object is to bring Shakspere "more distinctly before the mind" of the public, "to widen the interest in" his writings. That is, it is distinctly a work of "popularization," not of research. There is not a footnote in it, from beginning to end, nor, we believe, a single reference to volume and page. The general reader will find none of the impedimenta of learning to embarrass his progress. It would be manifestly inequitable to survey such a book from the high and dry altitude of pure scholarship. Erudition is not professed, and its absence is rather a merit, in a work of this scope, than a ground of complaint. On the other hand, one must not demand much originality. The "great variety of readers" do not care for paradoxes, and should not care for them. They want sound doctrine—not too esoteric—an engaging style, and a lucid expository method. Above all, they require variety, a kind of eloquence in presentment, and the assurance of not being bored.

It cannot be denied that Mr. Mabie is well qualified to give the public just what it wants—and. we hasten to add, just what it reasonably wants. He writes easily and gracefully, and is not too severe or too concise. He seizes the picturesque point of view, and he does not make too large a demand on the tired intellect. Everybody knows something about Shakspere, but the number of habitual magazine-readers who are really familiar with him must bear a very small proportion to the total subscription-list. We shall not go far astray if we conjecture that Mr. Mabie has had the majority in mind. He writes not so much for those who know their Shakspere already, as for the enormous number of intelligent persons who wish they knew him. His aim is to induce such persons to make a nearer acquaintance with the poet. No doubt he would feel that he had won his richest reward if he could know that he had induced these persons—in any considerable quantity—to pass directly from his pages to "King Lear," or "Hamlet," or "The Winter's Tale." We are inclined to think that his efforts will have precisely this effect.

With such objects in view, Mr. Mabie has been studious of variety. Of course, he does not confine himself to biography, in the limited sense. As the title-page indicates, he wishes to describe Shakspere as poet and dramatist, as well as a real historical figure of the Elizabethan time. Accordingly, he has touched upon all subjects which one might expect to find treated in a very comprehensive book. He endeavors to furnish a literary and social background, to describe the forces of thought and life and passion which made the age of Elizabeth, and which determined the mental environment of the poet. He has not forgotten "Shakspere's country" (to which, indeed, he devotes perhaps a disproportionate share of attention); he characterizes some of his contemporaries, he dwells on the influences of the Renaissance—reverting more than once to the special forces exerted by Italy—he writes agreeably of the Elizabethan theatre. To the scholar, some of these subjects will seem to be superficially treated, but one must always remember to whom the book is addressed, and that the half is more than the whole. Mr. Mabie's criticisms and appreciations are sound and sufficiently suggestive. Above all, there is little or no false doctrine. The reader who wishes simply to be edified without fatigue, and who is in no position to "control" the books to which he resorts for profitable entertainment, may safely take his chances with Mr. Mabie. There are many things that he will not learn, but he may feel confident that he will not be led astray in anything essential. The author's taste is good, and he is a sound interpreter of Shakspere—not *ad clerum*, but, as we have said before, "to the great variety of readers" whom he addresses.

Perhaps the most positive merit of Mr. Mabie's critical make-up is his moderation, or, in other words, his common sense. He resolutely declines to go to extremes. On all important points, his temper is judicial. No partisan can derive comfort from his book. Thus, in the vexed question of extracting Shakspere's personality from his works, he takes a middle ground. He never forgets that Shakspere is a dramatic writer, and that every utterance of his must be interpreted with this in view. We still think that he has attached too much importance to the Sonnets as autobiography; yet there is a wide difference between his caution and the recklessness of current speculation. He points out with decision what is, after all, the most necessary lesson for every one to bear in mind, that, whatever personal feeling may underlie these poems, they are not mere transcripts from experience. They cannot be used as if they were private correspondence, for they are the idealized and partly dramatic expression of imaginative moods. He attaches too much importance, in our opinion, to the supposed *de profundis* character of the tragedies and the darker comedies, yet here again he is moderation itself. Contrast, for example, Dr. Brandes's view of "Timon of Athens" as the reflection of a time when Shakspere hated the human race, with Mr. Mabie's eminently reasonable comment: "Timon" is "a study of temperament, not a judgment upon life." And compare his wise caveat against the "easy process of reading universal history in the light of personal experience." It is to be wished that he had gone a little further—that he had asked himself the searching question, "Why did all Elizabethans enjoy these gloomy subjects?" But we are not disposed to quarrel with a book which is, in manner and matter, a constant protest against the irresponsible fancies which have done so much to obscure the facts. Such moderation, in a popular book sure to be widely read, will do much to foster a sound public opinion. And sound public opinion is the best protection against learned fantasy and misapplied insight when they are running amuck. Time—that is, the verdict of the majority in the long run—tries all things. Books like Mr. Mabie's, not so striking as widely influential, have weight in settling the verdict of time.

Thus much in general. In detail, there is a good deal to criticise. The preliminary chapter on "The Forerunners of Shakspere" is very poor. It is vague and scanty, and gives slight evidence of genuine knowledge of the subject. Shakspere's contemporaries are also insufficiently treated, and what he learned from them is not set forth with any clearness. The discussion of Euphuism seems to miss the real point of Lyly's influence on the drama. Again, the true importance of the "tragedy of blood" is hardly suggested. Indeed, the whole subject of Shakspere's relations to classical tragedy comes tardy off. Nor are we content with Mr. Mabie's treatment of the relations of Puritanism to the Elizabethan spirit; there are good remarks, but the matter does not seem to have been properly thought out. One notes also observations on the French and the Italian drama that are not quite intelligible. Some of the oracles in the book are perversely inspired. What can Mr. Mabie mean, for example, after saying that Shakspere and Burns and Lincoln "were educated through the imagination rather than through the memory and rationalizing faculties," by adding, "Homer and Æschylus and Sophocles were educated by the same method; so also was Dante"? There are a few downright mistakes, as when Chaucer's "Troilus" is numbered among the "Canterbury Tales" (p. 317), and when the story of Greene's "Pandosto" (the source of "The Winter's Tale") is said to "have its roots in an incident in the history of Bohemia" (p. 372).

The book is handsomely made and richly illustrated. It is a pity, however, to exalt the Chandos Portrait to the dignity of a frontispiece, for this gives it a kind of authentication that will deceive many. It is a still greater pity to present so hideous a caricature of the Ely House Portrait. Finally, it is diverting to find the hall at Charlecote, with the busts of dead and gone Lucys on the mantel, labelled "The Hall at Clopton." Some of these defects will no doubt be remedied in a second edition, which will certainly be called for before long, and in which we hope to see the preliminary chapter either rewritten or discarded altogether.

MR. HOWELLS AND HIS FRIENDS.

Literary Friends and Acquaintances: A Personal Retrospect of American Authorship. By W. D. Howells. Illustrated. Harper & Bros. 1900.

Those who have read the several chapters of this book as they have appeared from time to time in one or another magazine, will be glad to have them in a continuous arrangement, and will read them with even greater pleasure than those who now for the first time make their acquaintance. Nowhere has Mr. Howells written more delightfully. The subtile but not too obvious rhythm of his sentences is a perpetual charm. But the spirit of these recollections is, if possible, more admirable than their form. Mr. Howells apologizes for his frankness, saying that he is merely using his personality as a background against which divers important figures are projected. But the background of many pictures is not the least pleasant part of them, and it is certain that we would more willingly spare many pages of Mr. Howells's description of his literary fellows than as many dealing with himself and his affairs in a casual or deliberate manner. Famed and unfamed are treated with such kindness as one must go far to equal—say, to Grant's memoirs. Yet there is ample firmness and discrimination. The result is not reached by a judicious balancing of praise and blame, but by a geniality which suffuses the most depreciatory judgments with a kindly warmth and light. There is something delightful in the fearlessness of Mr. Howells's admirations. Some of them sound a challenge to the depreciations of our English friends, but here and there to their excessive praise, as in the case of Poe, whose damnation, however, by Emerson as "the jingle-man" Mr. Howells would not accept as a complete characterization. He is with Lowell heartily in his opinion that the Cambridge society of his day was the best in the world, and that English was nowhere else so well spoken—especially, Mr. Howells would add, when Lowell spoke.

Of the eight parts of the book, the first three are those in which Mr. Howells has a happy prominence. They describe his first visit to New England, his first impressions of literary New York, and his roundabout second journey to Boston by way of Venice.

His first meeting with Lowell and the other Boston men was in 1860, a few months before Lincoln's election, and the wonder is how little presage there was in the air of the great events that were shortly to burst on the world. In his twenty-third year, doing the Boston sights boy fashion, his emotions must have been overwhelming when Lowell made a little dinner for him at the Parker House, with Fields and Holmes. He was "not a forthputting youth," he tells us, but he had the courage to propose himself for the post of assistant editor of the *Atlantic*. Four years later he attained to this, but he is persuaded that his knowledge of the details of a printing-office was the asset that most commended him to the powers that were. His heart's desire in his early manhood was to be a poet and as much like Heine as possible. The vicissitudes of some of his early ventures in prose and verse are eloquent of the vanity of human appreciations. The chapters which make up the 'Italian Journeys' were "rejected addresses" in Boston when the *Nation* took them up in 1865. It is evident, however, that from the start the *dii majores* saw more in young Howells than his humorous depreciation of himself would persuade us to believe there was.

The veil of anonymity is thrown over the editor of the New York *Saturday Press*, for which Mr. Howells did some of his first writing. It is said of him that "if he had been half as bad as his talk, he would have been too bad to be." The *Press* was much affected by the Bohemian set of whom Mr. Howells saw something on his first visit to New York at Pfaff's and elsewhere, and was less impressed by the awful appearance of the more dissipated than they expected him to be. At Pfaff's he met Whitman, but there is no suggestion of his likeness or Mr. Howells's in the picture of the event by the artist who furnishes the generally futile imaginative illustrations of Mr. Howells's vivid text. Later, there is a tragic story of Edwin Booth's taking up the cast of Lincoln's hand at an evening party and asking whose it was. The praise of Curtis is all that his best lovers could desire. Mr. Howells does well to retract his wish that Curtis had devoted himself wholly to the beautiful and let others look after the true. To say that "in early life he was a communist" is strong language for the fact that as a schoolboy he boarded for two years at Brook Farm; and not 1855 but 1856 was the date of "his first great speech on the Kansas question," of which Mr. Howells remembers at least one passage while confessing to entire forgetfulness.

Part Fourth, "Literary Boston as I Knew It," is such a full account of the New England writers in the later sixties that when one of these is conspicuously absent, the omission might seem "to hint a fault, or hesitate dislike," if some better explanation could not be easily inferred. Here we have pleasant meetings with Miss Prescott (Mrs. Spofford), Miss Larcom, Celia Thaxter, E. P. Whipple, George Ticknor, Edmund Quincy, T. B. Aldrich, Mrs. Howe, Mrs. Stowe, and others. Proof-reading after some of these gifted persons was a ticklish business. Mrs. Stowe's syntax had to be made over in a liberal fashion, but, like Hippocleides, the Corinthian, she didn't care. Whittier's bad rhymes were of greater frequency than Mr. Howells's reverence for his character permits him to report. A mistake of Emerson's was instructive in its consequences as to what wrath can harbor in celestial minds. He wrote Mr. Howells to "return the proofs and break up the forms." It is not often that Parton's histories get such generous recognition as they have here. We find Parkman coming to see Mr. Howells just to tell him of his delight in 'A Boy's Town.' Ropes's engrossment in war studies never blinded him, we are assured, to the atrocity of war. The inevitable mistake is made about William Ellery Channing, the Concord poet, who is not William Henry.

Holmes has a chapter to himself, and it is not too much for the fulness of Mr. Howells's recollections of that quintessential Bostonian. It is passing strange to read of the infidelity of his 'Guardian Angel' as costing the *Atlantic* many subscribers. The 'Poet at the Breakfast Table' is set down as having been as near a failure as Dr. Holmes could come. It seemed to Mr. Howells "that he enjoyed sitting at his chimney-corner rather as the type of a man having a good time than as such a person." There are parts of this chapter which one fancies written in a different mood from that which dominates the remainder of the book; they are more rhetorical than Mr. Howells's characteristic manner. It is quite too bad that he never got so near to Emerson as to Lowell or Holmes; but perhaps no one ever did. He formed the belief that Emerson did not care for him, but did not blame him, so often was he of a similar mind regarding his own worth.

"The White Mr. Longfellow," so named after Björnstjerne Björnson's designation, is a chapter abounding in the intimacies of personal knowledge of the man and all his works and ways. Here is the best account that we have ever had of the famous Dante Class to which Longfellow read his translation of the 'Divina Commedia.' The humor, at one of these sessions, of Lowell's oysters, so fond of red pepper that when he put a red-pepper pod into a barrel of them they all came out clinging to it in a solid mass, got its prosperity mainly from the matter-of-fact acceptance of the tale by a somnolent old gentleman whose hard breathing competed with that of Longfellow's fat terrier, making a dual but indistinguishable obligato to the music of the "Paradiso," as Longfellow read his translation "with a mellow, resonant murmur, like the note of some deep-throated horn." It would be ungracious to Mr. Howells to multiply such incidents of his genial recollections of his loved and honored friend. We must not impoverish his book.

The "Studies of Lowell," which constitute Part Seventh, easily overtop the other parts in the quality of their representation of a rich and splendid life. These studies are so sincere that Lowell does not at all figure in them as

> "That perfect monster whom the world ne'er saw."

He had his foibles, as where you must acknowledge his supremacy before he would be the gracious friend. "If he liked you, he liked being with you, not for what he got, but for what he gave." Mr. Howells thinks he might have let "the Land of Broken Promise" stand for America in his Agassiz ode, "to the end of making people think." It would certainly be truer now than it was in 1873. As to the whimsical lines in 'The Cathedral,' which Mr. Howells says "he would not change, and they stand as he first wrote them," this is not true of the whimsical passage about the Englishmen whom he met in Chartres. This (nineteen lines) was omitted in all the later editions, and so ingeniously that the pronoun which refers to the Englishmen in the first edition refers in the later ones to "the flies" which were, with him, "the only customers" at the pea-green inn. The change in Lowell's habits and manners wrought by his foreign residence is indicated with admirable discrimination. It was a superficial change. It meant no failure of that abounding faith in the possibilities of American democracy which was expressed in his great Birmingham address.

It would be a congenial task to follow Mr. Howells into the details of his last chapter, in which his Cambridge neighbors are commented on in terms of warm affection and intelligent discrimination. In the account of Mr. Boyesen we cannot but admire the loyalty that exaggerates the importance of his friend. The elder James will be a discovery to many who have known him hitherto only in that fine audacity of his style which has survived in some degree in the writing of his son William. It is very good to have some of the other "unknown heroes equal to the greatest heroes known" set in a light which makes their virtues plain. It is a lofty privilege to be introduced into such vital contact with so many noble spirits, few if any of them more engaging than the writer who is never for a moment absent from the pleasant scene.

Historic Towns of the Middle States.—Historic Towns of the Southern States. Edited by Lyman P. Powell. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 2 vols. 1900.

Like the 'Historic Towns of New England,' previously noticed in these columns, these books consist of brief sketches, historical and descriptive, prepared by residents or other persons specially interested, some skilled in literary composition, and some who will doubtless improve by practice.

That the history of most of these towns is brief, unromantic, and uneventful, need hardly be said. Possibly the thirtieth century may invest the opening of railroads, building of State-houses, and establishment of manufactories with a romantic glamour, but that is not at present the case. It is true that the early chronicles of New York and Albany have a sort of Old-Delft picturesqueness; that Schenectady has its Indian massacre, and Pittsburgh has inherited Braddock's defeat, while St. Augustine may boast a genuine antiquity, the truculent memory of Menendez and De Gourgues, a visit from Sir Francis Drake, and the unique possession of a city gate. But most of them can claim the beatitude attached to communities whose annals are uninteresting; and from this point of view, happiest of all is Little Rock, where nothing seems ever to have happened, not even in the civil war, when the Federal captors "did the place no harm."

But as chronicles, for the most part, of peaceful prosperity, these sketches can be read with interest. The illustrations are numerous and handsome, and the whole make-up of the volumes excellent.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Ashley, W. J. Surveys Historic and Economic. Longmans, Green & Co. $3.
Bellaigue, Camille. Musical Studies and Silhouettes. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.

Blaisdell, A. F. The Story of American History. Boston: Ginn & Co.

Blok, P. J. History of the People of the Netherlands: Part III., The War with Spain. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Boothby, Guy. My Indian Queen. D. Appleton & Co. $1.

Bourget, Paul. Pages Choisies des Auteurs Contemporains. Paris: Armand Colin. 3 fr. 50c.

B., E. V. Sylvana's Letters to an Unknown Friend. Macmillan. $2.50.

Cervantes, Miguel de. The History of Don Quixote of the Mancha. 3 vols. Macmillan. $4.50.

Corelli, Marie. Angel's Wickedness. Walter R. Beers. 75 cents.

Day, Sarah J. From Mayflowers to Mistletoe. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Dibble, H. C. The Sequel to a Tragedy: A Story of the Far West. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

Dodge, R. E. A Reader in Physical Geography for Beginners. Longmans, Green & Co. 70 cents.

Eggleston, Edward. The Transit of Civilization from England to America in the Seventeenth Century. D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.

Elson, L. C. Shakespeare in Music. Boston: L. C. Page & Co.

Farrelly, M. J. The Settlement after the War in South Africa. Macmillan.

Foulke, W. D. Maya: A Story of Yucatan. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Griffith, F. Ll. Stories of the High Priests of Memphis. (With portfolio atlas.) Henry Frowde.

Hartmann, Sadakichi. Shakespeare in Art. Boston: L. C. Page & Co.

Helps, Sir Arthur. The Spanish Conquest in America. Vol. I. 4 vols. John Lane.

Hillis, N. D. The Influence of Christ in Modern Life. Macmillan. $1.50.

Hollis, Ira N. The Frigate Constitution. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.

King, Basil. Griselda. Chicago: H. S. Stone & Co. $1.25.

Laut, A. C. Lords of the North. J. F. Taylor & Co. $1.50.

Loeb, Jacques. Comparative Physiology of the Brain and Comparative Psychology. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Memorial of an Invitation Chess Tournament for Masters and Amateurs, at the City of London Chess Club, April and May, 1900. Longmans, Green & Co.

Morton, Eliza H. Elementary Geography. Butler, Sheldon & Co.

Mumford, J. K. Oriental Rugs. Scribners. $7.50.

Norcross, Mae Ruth. Springtime Flowers. Silver, Burdett & Co. 36 cents.

Payne, E. J. Voyages of the Elizabethan Seamen to America, 2d Series. Henry Frowde. 5s.

Quiller-Couch, A. T. The Oxford Book of English Verse, 1250-1900. London: Henry Frowde.

Randolph, L. V. F. Survivals. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Satow, Ernest M. The Voyage of Captain John Sears to Japan, 1613. London: The Hakluyt Society.

Thacher, Lucy W. The Listening Child (Selected Verse for Youngest Readers). Macmillan. 50c.

The Cocktail Book: A Sideboard Manual for Gentlemen. Boston: L. C. Page & Co.

Weed, G. L. A Life of St. John, for the Young. Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co. 75 cents.

Wilkin, Anthony. Among the Berbers of Algeria. Cassell & Co. $4.

Wilson, E. Cathedrals of France: Popular Studies. More than 200 illustrations. New York: The Churchman Co.

Wolf, Emma. Heirs of Yesterday. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.

Zangwill, I. The Mantle of Elijah. Harpers. $1.50.

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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 20, 1900.

The Week.

The case from the Philippines now before the Supreme Court is that of Emil J. Pepke vs. the United States. Pepke was a soldier, a member of a volunteer regiment from North Dakota. Returning from Manila with his regiment, he brought fourteen diamond rings upon which he paid no duties at San Francisco. Subsequently the rings were seized by a customs officer at Chicago as having been smuggled into the country, and an information was filed against them in the United States District Court at that place. The claimant made answer in due form that the property in question was not subject to duty, since the Philippine Islands had been annexed to the United States, and formed a part thereof. He claimed exemption under the clause of the Constitution which provides that all duties, imposts, and excises shall be uniform throughout the United States. The fourteen diamond rings, if procured in California, would not become dutiable if the owner removed with them to Chicago. Therefore they were not dutiable when he removed with them from Manila to San Francisco. But if diamond rings from Manila can come in free of duty, then any other goods, whether natural products or manufactures, can enter in the same manner. But that is not all. Our treaty with Spain provides that her goods shall enter the Philippines on the same terms as our own for ten years. So Spain can send any kind of merchandise to Manila and enter it free of duty, and then send the same goods from Manila to the United States and enter them free of duty. Carrying the trade one step farther back, Spain can buy English goods and send them to the United States via Manila free of duty. In cases where the duty is 50 per cent. or more ad valorem, it would be worth while to do so.

One thing should not be forgotten, in connection with the Hay-Pauncefote treaty, whose fate is hanging in the balance,—namely, that a dog-in-the-manger policy respecting an interoceanic canal is not only foolish in conception, but absolutely impossible of execution. Consider the situation. The proposal is to build a canal as a kind of military short cut exclusively for our use. We are to shuttle-cock the *Oregon* back and forth through the Nicaragua Canal in case of war, but it shall be positively inhibited to the war-vessels of other nations. This is very fine strategy on paper, but what will be the sure result in fact? Why, that the European Powers will at once conclude to push the Panama Canal to completion. If canals are to be thought of only as military measures, two can play at that game. France and Germany and Russia, to say nothing of Great Britain, would be justified in finding the money to finish the work at Panama, if a canal at Nicaragua were to be dug as a kind of threat to them. Then our plight would be ridiculous enough. We should have lost our exclusive line of communication between the fleets of the Atlantic and Pacific, and should have sunk at the same time $200,000,000 in a canal which could not possibly be made to pay as a commercial venture in competition with a second one along the Panama route. All this is but a specimen of the madness which lies that way—the way of opposition to a reasonable, safe, and civilized treaty.

How far our new-style Jingoes have left even Blaine in the rear—looking, by contrast, like a conservative statesman—may be seen by comparing their proposals with his. Their most vicious amendments aim at striking out from the Clayton-Bulwer treaty everything that would prevent the United States, and also Great Britain, from annexing territory in Central America. Elkins wants this, so does Mason, so does even Foraker. But Blaine, in his urgent dispatch of 1881, arguing for the modification of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, specifically proposed to leave in full force "every part of the treaty in which Great Britain and the United States agree to make no acquisition of territory in Central America." Poor Blaine, how little did he know of Destiny! Senators are denying the report that their utterances in secret session have been marked by hostility to Great Britain. They admit, however, that the tone of their debates in private has been more and more pronouncedly "American." The distinction is perhaps too fine for ordinary eyesight; and we still lack a definition of what it is to be so thoroughly American. What the Senate is doing we can see. It is making a spectacle of itself and of the nation which it represents; it is talking wildly of doing what our word is pledged not to do; it is proposing to build an interoceanic canal which would be an anachronism and a failure from the beginning; it is loose and foolish in speech and lavish of money—yet all this is to be intensely "American." The country will not thank the Senate for teaching it that word.

The discussion of the Hay-Pauncefote treaty shows that a majority of the Senators can see nothing in the Isthmian canal but an instrument of war. Their entire preoccupation is not commerce, but the grand strategy of national defence, and the canal as a part of it. Now, the two things cannot be mixed. If the canal is to promote international trade and to be a paying investment, it must be built under the presuppositions of peace. The moment you put warlike notions first, you bedevil the whole project. You might as well build a battleship to carry coal to Europe. The incongruity would not be greater. Business, commerce, profits, civilization itself presuppose peace. War, instead of being so studiously provided for, should be taken into the calculation only as we might feel compelled to reckon upon the possibility of an earthquake or hurricane or some other calamity. But to put war uppermost in planning what must be an artery of peaceful trade, if it is not to be a grotesque absurdity, is to turn all rational ideas about the matter topsy-turvy. Of one thing be assured, says Mr. Goldwin Smith, that if you think of war, if you talk of war, if you prepare for war, you will get war. The laws of the human mind are known, and are as true of nations as of individuals. Brooding on suicide is the road to suicide; a morbid dread of insanity is the first step towards going mad. So of that madness, that form of suicide, which we call war.

No more studied insult could be offered the President than the intimation, now put forward by some of his supporters, that he never did favor the Hay-Pauncefote treaty, and coldly sent it along to the Senate in the distinct hope that it would there be amended or killed. This is equivalent to saying that Mr. McKinley has abdicated his office. The Secretary of State is unknown to the Constitution. It is the President to whom is delegated the power "to make treaties." Col. Hay is only Mr. McKinley's clerk. The Secretary's act is the President's act. When the President sent the Hay-Pauncefote treaty to the Senate, it was as his treaty, an instrument to which he had given assent in every particular, and which he desired to see ratified as it stood. If this was not the case, it would have been his duty to withhold the treaty. Transmitted to the Senate, it necessarily bore the stamp of his approval. Any other view of the matter would make him out both knave and fool. Yet his friends, with a truly Chinese anxiety to "save his face," are the ones who are now urging the preposterous notion that it is Secretary Hay who is alone responsible, and who must be affronted and compelled to resign. We should think that even the long-suffering McKinley would do something besides turn the other cheek to such cruel smiters.

The Merchants' Association of New York on December 10 adopted a resolution in the nature of a protest to Congress against any subsidy to ships built abroad even though owned by American citizens, and although coupled with a requirement to build an equal amount of tonnage in American ship-yards. We presume that this resolution was adopted with full knowledge that if the Subsidy Bill were amended in this manner, it could not command votes enough to pass Congress. The Atlantic Transport Company, organized, owned, and operated by Americans, is one of the most important navigation companies in the trade between England and America. It has been built up slowly and by careful attention to details to a position of which Americans may well be proud. It has become prosperous by fair competition with older companies, and not by Government favor. Its ships were built abroad, but that circumstance has never been adjudged a crime. This company lately sent a first-class steamship (the *Maine*), without charge, to Chinese waters, as a hospital ship to take care of the wounded soldiers of all the nations at war there. We are opposed to all subsidies, but if any navigation company is deserving of a subsidy, this one is. Now, is it proposed to turn the money of the United States Treasury into competition with this American company, which has built itself up in accordance with the law and in accordance with sound business principles? Because its ships were not built in the United States, is it proposed to give its rivals and competitors a subsidy large enough to take away the business it has secured by years of enterprise and prudent management? The International Company, otherwise called the American Line, will also receive a heavy blow if the proposed amendment is adopted, as it has a considerable fleet of foreign-built steamers running between New York and Antwerp, which would be entitled to half-subsidy under the bill as it now stands, but which the amendment would exclude.

Charles M. Taylor's Sons, steamship owners or operators, of Philadelphia, inform us that they are running lines of steamers from that city to London and also to Bristol via Avonmouth, and that they have carried abroad 681,856,000 pounds of the products of our farms and factories this year (1900). They say also:

> "We have for years been operating established lines of transatlantic steamers, and have for some time been laying our plans for the building of American steamers, as a part of a fleet to be engaged in transatlantic commerce; but the passage of a measure like the present Senate Subsidy Bill would put us under such a burdensome handicap with respect to competitors whom this bill especially favors, that we may be entirely barred from the consummation of our plans in this respect."

How does it come about that one American line would be so handicapped by the Subsidy Bill that it might be driven out of the trade altogether, after many years of successful operation on its own sole merits? Messrs. Taylor's Sons explain this enigma. As the bill now stands only those foreign-built vessels may be admitted to American registry, and to participation in the compensation stipulated in the act, which were either already engaged in trade from United States ports, on February 1, 1899, and at that time either owned in full or in majority by United States citizens, or such foreign-built steamships as may have been under contract for construction, the copies of such contracts having been filed with the Secretary of the Treasury on or before February 1, 1899. 'It will be apparent to any fair-minded person," they say, "that such a provision, based upon conditions which must have been complied with nearly two years ago, is most un-American and unjust." That it is unjust we can easily see, but that it is un-American is not so apparent. The House of Representatives passed a bill the other day to kill oleomargarine for the benefit of butter, both being American products and American industries. Why not pass a bill to kill off one American steamship line, or half a dozen, for the benefit of another or another half dozen? The principle is the same. It is only a question of votes.

The question whether Mr. James J. Hill's speech at the Bankers' Club in Chicago on December 8 should be interpreted as favorable to the present Ship-Subsidy Bill or to any subsidy bill, is still an open one. He said that the farmers want better markets for their products, and he believed that if they could have a subsidy paid on the actual amount of such products carried, there would be "some justice" in such a subsidy. The inference is plain that a subsidy computed and paid in any other way, as for instance according to cargo capacity or cargo space, would, in his opinion, be unjust. As for himself, he acknowledged the politeness of the framers of the bill in amending it so that 30 per cent. of the money paid should go to ships on the Pacific Ocean. Still, the Great Northern Railway was building its ships "with or without a subsidy." The inference to be drawn from this business-like observation was that if the American eagle, casting its eye over the national interests, should discern a number of ships building in its honor, and should be so moved with gratitude that it could not refrain from paying an annual bonus to the owners for twenty years, then Mr. Hill would accept the money and place it to the credit of profit and loss; but if the eagle should be otherwise minded, he would go on building just the same. On the whole, we do not think that Mr. Hill's speech contributed much to the chances of the bill in Congress.

That the return of even 9,000 volunteers will embarrass Gen. MacArthur is shown by his reply to the War Department's orders to begin their return. The regiment first entitled to come home cannot be spared, being "in the field," and the others must give up, before leaving, the regular officers associated with them, to perform special duties the necessities for which are constantly growing. The first two regiments and no less than 1,000 volunteer convalescents are to be shipped by January 15. How the remainder are to be landed by June 30 does not appear, although there are twenty-three more regiments to come. Gen. Corbin boldly assures Gen. MacArthur that he will send him "regular regiments to further relieve volunteers," but where are they to come from? Of the regular regiments now existing and not in MacArthur's army or in Cuba, there are only four in the United States proper, exclusive of artillery, and one of these, the Seventh Infantry, is in Alaska. Two or three artillery regiments could be sent by denuding the coast forts, but this is evidently not being considered. What Gen. Corbin means is that Gen. MacArthur's next reinforcements will be some of the regular regiments about to be authorized by Congress. The true inwardness of this announcement of the return of the volunteers is further indicated by the statements that accompanied the correspondence, which declared "positively" that no more troops can be brought home unless the Army Reorganization Bill is passed this week. It is evident that Secretary Root's order just published, warning officers against influencing legislation, does not apply to Gen. Corbin, for a more barefaced departmental attempt to force Congress to act on a particular measure could hardly be conceived.

The difficulty experienced by the Philippine Commission in regulating the liquor traffic in Manila demonstrates that the weaknesses of government by committee are not one whit less great in dealing with subject races than with free-born American citizens. The governors of the archipelago cannot unite, it appears, on the question whether Manila's main streets shall be deprived of their saloons. None the less, a reform measure was passed by a majority vote. One of the Commission, Mr. Ide, is even in favor of forbidding the sale of liquor to the soldiers, in whose interests, as well as in those of public decency, the removal of the saloons to less conspicuous localities was determined upon. The native police, it seems, are also quite unable to deal with the situation when the American soldiers "become hilarious." This looks like a reflection not only upon the

American soldier, upon the officer in charge of the Manila police, and upon the provost-marshal's military guard, but also upon the discipline of the whole army, and as such we look for immediate and complete denials of the justice of it by those concerned. On the other hand, the exceptions are the able and fearless correspondents and church people, who have not hesitated to declare the wholesale importation of American liquors and the moral condition of the city of Manila a disgrace to Mr. McKinley and his Government. These protestants will welcome this first attempt to deal with the question.

Civil-service reformers have reason for satisfaction over the vote in the House of Representatives on Monday by which a new Veteran Preference Bill was overwhelmingly defeated, receiving only 51 yeas to 105 nays. The scheme was to extend the advantage given by existing law to men who served in the Union army during the civil war to all who were called into the service during the war with Spain, so that any such man who should enter a competitive examination for office and reach only 65 per cent. should have the preference over a man without army record who might secure 100 per cent. On the principle that turn-about is fair play, many Grand Army men favored the proposition, and the danger of offending the "soldier vote" supplied another motive. That, notwithstanding this, over two-thirds of the Representatives opposed the scheme is a gratifying proof of the growing strength of the merit system among politicians.

An ill-conceived plan for the enlargement of the White House is in danger of slipping through Congress. That the architects of the country regard this danger as imminent is shown by a resolution offered to the Institute of American Architects at their late convention in Washington. The resolution was skilfully worded so as to give no personal cause of offence, but the Bingham plan now before Congress was clearly intended. The Institute merely petitions the Senate Committee on Public Buildings and Grounds, before considering any plan for the alteration of a "masterly, scholarly, and pleasing example of architecture," to call in the aid of a competent architect or architects; and the Institute stands ready to nominate such an architect to the appointing power. It is hard to see how Congress can fail to honor so reasonable a petition, and if any prejudice against Col. Bingham's scheme were alleged, Congress has merely to ask the opinion of the Supervising Architect to learn why the present plan offends all artistic and historical proprieties. But such considerations have little weight with the army lobby that is believed to be backing Col. Bingham's plan on purely personal grounds. It will require a vigorous expression of public opinion to make sure that, between amateur architecture and Congressional indifference, an historic building is not permanently disfigured.

The financial reports of the athletic committees of Columbia and Pennsylvania on the college year just ended, which have been made public, show enormous expenses incurred, apparently without the slightest idea of the value of money and without any thought as to the desirability of economy in student finance. When a statement, such as that of the University of Pennsylvania, shows that the gross receipts from athletics for the college year amount to nearly $100,000, and that the expenses were $12,000 above that figure, it would seem to indicate that the time for alumni, if not for faculty, interference is at hand. The statement of the Columbia committee is no better. About the only source of income from sport at that university is football, and, with gross receipts of over $40,000, there is a deficit of $8,800, to be added to a further loss of $2,000 on the other sports. Details of the reports show lavish expenditures for theatre tickets, cabs, and dinners, which can scarcely be called training necessities or deemed a part of the legitimate expenses of an athletic team. There is nothing in the age or experience of undergraduates which fits them for the disbursement of such sums. The mere presence of faculty members upon the committees does not seem to check minor extravagances as it should. A radical reform (such as graduate treasurers, as at Harvard), with increased responsibility of all concerned with detailed disbursements, is wanted.

International arbitration scores a distinct success in the adjustment of the boundary dispute between French Guiana and the republic of Brazil. It is impossible to go into a controversy most interesting to geographers, but this much may be said, that before the selection of Switzerland as arbitrator, in 1897, the boundary question was of two hundred years' standing, and three governments in Brazil and half a dozen in France had negotiated without permanent success. The maximum French claim included the coast from the present border of French Guiana to the Amazon, and a vast stretch of the hinterland—in all, 400,000 square kilometres, more than two-thirds of the area of France. The final French claim was for 240,000 square kilometres, still half their European area. There were all the elements of a serious complication, for valuable mining properties had been discovered in the disputed territory. Many Frenchmen worked these mines, and the establishment of great chartered companies on the English model was confidently expected. It was, in fact, an affray at one of the mining towns that pointed the necessity of immediate arbitration. France is now the gainer by about 3000 square miles to the south and west. Brazil retains all the coast line in question, and the line is established upon the natural boundaries of the Oyapock River and the crest of the Tumac-Humac Mountains.

According to the recently published statistics for the year 1899, the birth-rate in France continues to decrease alarmingly. There were in that year about 10,000 less births than for the year preceding, and the excess of births over deaths was some 30,000 only, out of a total of 847,627 births. When it is remembered that, at most, two out of three children born grow up and reproduce their kind, it will be seen that the total births of the past year in France were about 250,000 short of the number required merely to maintain the present population. In the year 1898 the births in Germany were 1,943,731, more than twice the number in France for the same year. For thirteen years past, this ratio has held, and in seven years more, at the same rate, Germany, approximately the equal of France at the time of the Franco-Prussian war, will have double the population of her western neighbor.

These facts have aroused the gravest apprehensions of French publicists and legislators, and attempts have been made to remedy the situation, both by law and by private initiative. A national alliance for the increase of population in France has an irresistibly comic suggestion. Its work, however, has been serious enough. So far it has merely offered inducements to the raising of large families. By its motion some 85,000 minor officials receive increasing pay proportionately to the increase in their families. When, however, as now, the attempt is made to render childlessness onerous, there is danger of crossing the line that parts the philanthropic from the ridiculous. A certain Senator Piot has introduced a bill to augment the taxes of all persons, male or female, who pass their thirtieth year unwedded. A still heavier penalty is to fall on married couples who have passed five childless years, and to continue until a child is forthcoming. There is in such a law even less of the proverbial French logic than of common sense, for it makes the celibate condition less obnoxious to taxation than the childless wedded state. It may well be doubted if the matter can be reached at all by legislation, but the mere proposal of such laws shows how keenly the French feel the annual indictment of their vital statistics, and how genuine was the problem raised with almost brutal frankness in Zola's 'Fécondité.'

A CONSCIENCE REPUBLICAN.

The address of ex-President Harrison at Ann Arbor on Friday supplies the needed rallying-point for the men who voted for McKinley in the recent election, but who were opposed to his policy in the Philippines. It is safe to say that Mr. McKinley could not have been reëlected without the votes of such men. If any conservative Democrat of good character had been nominated, the campaign would have had a very different ending. When the smoke of the battle passed away, there was a deep and earnest desire among the class of voters we have described for some strong man of unquestioned Republicanism to speak out and take the lead of this unvoiced sentiment in the party. All eyes turned to Senator Hoar as the proper man for this duty, but the only response heard from that quarter was, that after the Philippines were pacified and the supremacy of law established (presumably by killing the inhabitants), the blessings of liberty would probably be granted to them. No other voice was heard until Mr. McCall made his speech in the House of Representatives. This was in the true spirit, for freedom and self-government, but Mr. McCall could not command the following that Mr. Hoar might have gained, or that he had already gained by former speeches on this question. Such was the situation when Mr. Harrison made his magnificent speech at Ann Arbor. It was an unexpected deliverance. It was known, indeed, that Mr. Harrison was opposed to what is denominated Imperialism, but it was not anticipated that he would make a public declaration of his beliefs. It has been so much the habit of our ex-Presidents to avoid political discussion, except in a brief and desultory way, that a thoroughgoing speech on the Constitutional status of our new belongings came as a surprise. As nothing was more needed, so nothing could have been more weighty. Mr. Harrison's position is such that his gun carries farther in the Republican party than Senator Hoar's or any other.

Mr. Harrison's speech was upon the relation of "our new possessions" and their inhabitants to the United States, and especially upon the question whether the Federal Constitution applies to Porto Rico and the Philippines. He was perfectly frank in the presentation of his views, which were expressed with great clearness and force. As to the legal questions involved, he holds that the Constitution follows the flag; that as Porto Rico and the Philippines are parts of the United States, the fundamental law of the republic applies to them as much as to any other parts of the United States. The ex-President is an able Constitutional lawyer, who has the faculty of making his points so clearly that everybody can see them, and his argument that the Constitution everywhere applies as a whole—not such portions as a President or Congress may choose to apply in one or another section—appeals irresistibly to the mind of the candid layman. He combats the theory that the Constitution applies only to the States, and not to the Territories—a theory which consistent Imperialists have carried to its logical conclusion by claiming that Arizona and New Mexico, like Porto Rico and the Philippines, are outside the protection of our great national charter, and subject to a Congress acting, as Mr. Harrison puts it, "under no restraint except what interest and benevolence impose." This view of the American Constitution he flatly declares to be "shocking." The theory that the Porto Ricans and the Filipinos will be sufficiently protected by the "benevolence" of their rulers at Washington—in other words, Mr. McKinley's policy of "benevolent assimilation"—is treated with contemptuous ridicule and righteous indignation. "The man who has to rely upon benevolence for his laws is a slave," bluntly says Mr. Harrison. He points out that the tea tax against which our forefathers protested was not oppressive, but that they objected to it on the ground that the British Government had no right to levy it. He asserts that it was a mockery to raise the flag in Porto Rico while the Governor stood under it and read a proclamation putting the island outside the Constitution and under Congress. The hypocrisy of the pious claim that has been advanced in behalf of the policy of conquest is exposed with relentless severity. Mr. Harrison asserts that a condition has been created contrary to liberty for a commercial profit, and says that he has been told that the Porto Rican Tariff Law was passed to protect the beet-sugar interests. He waxes sarcastic when he talks of the alleged "duties that Providence has imposed on this country," remarking that we are carrying the white man's burden, but that he has noticed that this means to carry the black man's gold.

This is, or of right ought to be, an epoch-making speech. Everything conspires to give the utterance dignity and weight. It comes from an ex-President, who is reserved by nature and who has spoken on public questions but seldom since his retirement from office. It is a solemn, earnest, and indignant protest against the policy of a Republican Administration from a man who is by instinct a strong partisan, and who has always been loath to condemn the political organization with which he has acted ever since its origin. This ringing cry for the maintenance of the republic's principles is forced from him because he is a patriot, the descendant of a man who fought to establish the Constitution, and himself a soldier in a later war to maintain that Constitution, and as much a believer in the principles of that instrument as his ancestor was in the last century or he himself a generation ago. No question is ever settled until it is settled right. The great question before this nation will never be settled except upon the lines which ex-President Harrison laid down at Ann Arbor. It is only a question of time when it will be so settled.

PHILIPPINE PROGRESS.

The country may well congratulate itself if a change of attitude towards the Filipinos is being forced upon the President and his Cabinet by Republican dissatisfaction with the prospect of indefinite hostilities in the archipelago, as was foreshadowed last week by the *Evening Post's* Washington correspondent. After having complacently swallowed for nearly two years the fictions of Gen. Otis and others as to the approaching end of hostilities (officially announced in 1899 on March 17, April 3, May 8, May 18, August 12, etc.), it appears that the Administration is at last awakening to the fact that the military outlook is "very serious." Coming as this does at the very moment when Congress is upsetting the whole army organization, it can hardly be pleasant. It may even be that the Hong Kong correspondent of the London *Daily Mail* possessed some foundation for his recent sensational dispatches as to the American inability to make headway in the islands and to prevent the traffic in arms and ammunition. Be this as it may, it will be a cause for widespread rejoicing if it appears that the Administration has really been able to grasp the size of the problem before it. On an understanding of the situation arrived at, it may happen that other remedies than extermination will suggest themselves to the Cabinet and to the Republican leaders.

If the Manila *Times*, a leading American newspaper in the Philippines, may be relied upon to give a truthful picture of the situation, Republican dissatisfaction with the outlook is more than warranted. Its issues form a dreary and disheartening collection of tales of misgovernment, of native and American criminals and their crimes, of constant slaughterings of natives, of bloody deeds of revenge, of burned villages and towns, and of native suffering sufficient to satisfy the most morbid taste. One year in Bilbid prison without trial, and when tried declared innocent of robbery—this is the story of Gabino Andres, styled by the *Times* an "intelligent-looking native." The rape of a fourteen-year-old prisoner is the charge against six Manila policemen, according to the *Times*, while some of the Macabebes enlisted in the army are accused of having "burglarized" and completely ransacked the house of a respectable woman. From a native contemporary, the *Times* learns that a patrol of soldiers in San Mateo. "fatigued by the monotony of their rounds," were by a "miserable piece of treachery" surrounded and attacked by insurgents summoned by their hosts. The editor of the *Times* himself editorially testifies to the corruption of the Government's court interpreters, but excuses the condition of affairs on the ground that the Government is doing all that it can. Stabbings, shootings, and suicides among the Americans are as regular occurrences as are the prize fights between soldiers in the Manila Athletic Club, in which civilizing displays the garrison regiments, the Twentieth and Twenty-first Infantry and Sixth Artillery, were well represented on November 17.

In plain sight of eighty Filipinos there was murdered about the same time the native tailor of E troop, Fourth Cavalry, near the Manila Country Club. the reason being his failure to obey a summons to return to his place in the native ranks. None of the spectators arrested the murderers, who walked away. Of three American soldiers who started forth in a native cart to arrest suspected insurgents in the outskirts of Manila without the permission of their officers, two "disappeared." Guided by the third, troops reached the place where it was *thought* that the men had been done away with, and burned every house. "Not a shack was left standing," but the inhabitants escaped, having fled at the mere approach of the troops. Similarly there disappeared a drunken private of the Signal Corps in the interior of Luzon, after having fired a peaceful village for his own amusement. It is reported that the natives put a prompt end to this civilizer.

Rosario, a village in the Batangas district, was recently completely destroyed by fire by American troops, with a view to the destruction of Filipino stores and munitions of war, which the invaders "had reason to believe" were stored in the village. The church and the convent were spared. Capt. George W. Beigler of the Twenty-eighth Infantry, and his men, slaughtered seventy-five Filipinos in a trench, both ends of which the Americans occupied. The dead lay within a space of fifteen yards, the Americans killing them as they ran out. The account of this glorious deed is to be found in the *Times* also, as well as the manly revenge for the death of Lieut. Max Wagner, Twenty-sixth Infantry, when fifty-two natives were killed, although there was no proof whatever that they had ambushed the dead lieutenant. It is not unnatural that, under these circumstances, the southern islands should again be reported to be suffering greatly, or that Señor Buencamino should appeal to the Philippine Commission for their aid in rebuilding a road through a country nearly ruined by war and typhoons. Only prompt action, he says, will prevent the complete ruin of this once prosperous Luzon province of Pampanga by hunger, sickness, and theft.

Through all this sickening record, taken at random from the *Times*, there comes an occasional glimpse of the activity of the Philippine Commission—such as an order for a civil-service system; plans for schools and money for their improvement; here a costly project for the improvement of the harbor of Manila, and there the rebuilding of military roads. Nowhere is there the slightest evidence of a growing cordiality between natives and Americans, nowhere a sign that the two races have begun to understand each other or to live on other terms than of veiled or open hostility. In Manila itself the frequent arrests of Filipino recruiting officers give color to the stories of Aguinaldo's having been in the city, and prove that Filipino officers are willing to run great danger in behalf of their cause. They even risk coming before one of the many American military tribunals which pass upon questions of life and death, and weigh legal evidence with all the experience given to them by years of company drills in frontier posts and by recruiting duty in our large cities, their numerous death sentences being generally reversed by Gen. MacArthur.

It must be plain that this state of affairs cannot go on for ever. Either the Administration must tire of it and decide that humanity is, after all, the best policy, or it must call for the reconcentrado and still bloodier policies. The concentration plan is now being tried in South Africa, with which our own situation in the East still forms a close parallel, and at least one English service paper speaks with disgust of Roberts's "fatuous weakness" in handling the Boers thus far. It is for Americans of all kinds and conditions to prevent the continuance of the present policy in the Philippines by prompt and persistent protest to the authorities, on the grounds of decency, justice, and humanity. We have heard much of our inability to give up the Philippines because of our honor before the world. It may well be that a prompt relinquishment of the islands, or a complete change of policy, will alone save the United States from a bitterer humiliation than any yet realized by those whose curious honor permits the extermination of a people, but prevents doing them simple justice.

THE PARALYSIS OF THE TREATY-MAKING POWER.

The United States is rapidly coming to be regarded by the other great Powers as a nation which is not able to make a treaty. We have been trying to conclude important international agreements during the past fifteen years, but have seen one after another of them go to wreck in the Senate. It is needless to enumerate the long and melancholy list. Whether the President was Cleveland or Harrison or McKinley, whether the negotiators were Democratic or Republican, the power of the Senate to ratify treaties has been mainly exercised as the power to kill treaties. Three valuable conventions with Great Britain have been broken on the Senate's veto. The Chief of State has made treaties with France and Germany, but the Senate has said with a sneer, "They reckon ill who leave me out," and has brought the whole work to the ground. With or without intention, we seem to the world to have stripped ourselves of a leading attribute of sovereignty—the power to make treaties.

That the result is badly to impair our national prestige admits of no question. Already foreign writers on government and international relations are beginning to say that it is absolutely worth no country's while to attempt to make a treaty with the United States. The President may be conciliatory, the Secretary of State may be willing to agree, but there is always the intractable Senate to say us nay; so what is the use? This is a most humiliating thing to be truthfully said of a great nation. It leaves us in a contemptible position. Treaties between nations are like social obligations between individuals; and the nation, like the man, that does not observe them is apt to be sent to Coventry. These repeated fiascos, in the case of weighty international agreements, put us very much in the awkward plight of a country gentleman who should graciously invite his neighbors to joint use of a shady lane, but should warn them at the same time that certain ill-conditioned cousins of his would give them a clubbing if they attempted to walk there.

In a newly hatched and loudly cackling "world-power," this inability to make a treaty is little short of ludicrous. To be a world-power means at least to meet other powerful nations on equal terms. It is, indeed, an essential function of world-powers to make agreements with each other for their reciprocal advantage and for the peace of the world. But here we are, thrusting ourselves into the company of the great Powers, and at the same time confessing that we cannot bear ourselves as a great Power should. We cannot make, or at any rate cannot complete, a "gentleman's agreement." It is as if we sought membership in an expensive club, and got promptly posted for non-payment of dues. It is all very well to say that foreigners ought to understand the playful ways of our Senate, and to bear in mind that it is an essential part of the American treaty-making power. What they see, after repeated demonstration, is that the Senate makes waste paper of all that the President and his authorized agents can do. "Very well, then," they will say, when next approached for the adjustment of some international grievance, "first produce the advice and consent of the Senate, for otherwise we shall simply be wasting our time and yours." This would not be a very respectful way of addressing the chosen rulers of a world-power, but if we condemn ourselves to the attitude of a world-feebleness, what can we expect?

The brute obstructive position which the Senate now so regularly assumes in the presence of all capital treaties submitted to it, is the strange effect of many complex causes. One of them lies, undoubtedly, in the singular mixture of functions assigned to the Senate by the Constitution. It is a Privy Council and a legislative body in one. Curiously enough, the perils of such a union were foreseen in the Constitutional Convention, and a proposal was made that there should be a Privy Council in addition to the Senate. This would have had more support if the future development of the Senate could have been unfolded before the gaze of the fathers and founders. At first, in truth, the Senate was very like a Privy Council. Its membership was small. Its sessions were all in secret. It played but a small part in legislation, compared with the House. But a hundred years have changed all that. A body of ninety men is a ridiculously large number to act as the confidential advisers of the President. Moreover, the Senate has come to be indisputably far the more powerful legislative house. It shapes ten laws to its will where the Representatives have their way in one. And just here is where the huge mischief comes in as respects treaties. They cannot be separated, in the minds of Senators, from great matters of legislation before them. They confuse their function as Privy Councillors with their functions as legislators. Any one can see, for example, that the forces antagonistic to the Hay-Pauncefote treaty are inspired by ulterior motives. It is not simply that the opposing Senators desire to beat the treaty, or cut the spinal column out of it, but that they have their eye on other measures, which they hope that the fate of the treaty will retard or advance, as the case may be. Votes cast for or against the treaty are really cast for or against a canal bill, a ship-subsidy bill, railroad legislation, or what not.

It is, then, through a Constitutional displacement, so to speak, combined with the degeneracy of the character of the Senate, that that body has come to have its present unhappy reputation as the great assassin of treaties. The result is before us, and is enough to make our cheeks tingle with shame. To be given a bad name among the nations in consequence of failure after failure to ratify what they consider a solemn promise made by the head of our Government, is a real disgrace. The loss of a battle could not humiliate us more. The remedy is simple, as far as suggestion goes, though we admit it will be immensely difficult to apply it. If the Senate could be remanded to its old and proper place in legislation, and its membership restored to its ancient standard of broad-minded statesmanship, the trouble would be largely overcome. But this would imply a House of Representatives and a President ready to stand up for their Constitutional prerogatives against a usurping Senate. Neither of these is visible on the Washington horizon, however, and so we seem doomed to go on for a time with a Senate in which prejudice and selfish interests and sinister motives shall prevail over the higher considerations of international good will and the peace of the world. Yet, unless there be a change, the United States will continue to enjoy the unenviable distinction of being the only great nation which is powerless to make a treaty.

SENATOR HANNA'S SPEECH.

In his speech on behalf of the Ship-Subsidy Bill, familiarly known as the "Hanna-Payne Bill," Senator Hanna made himself responsible for certain figures purporting to give the amounts received for carrying the mails by the principal Atlantic lines. These are the figures that represent the lamentable condition which it is sought to correct by the bill; and as Senator Hanna acknowledges himself to be one of the authors of the bill, it seems reasonable to expect accuracy of statement on so important a matter, where the facts can be readily obtained from official documents.

Senator Hanna said that, with a subsidy of $290,000 a year each, the vessels of the American Line would not earn as much as was earned by the vessels of the Cunard and White Star Lines under the mail pay received from Great Britain. Now here are the facts: In the official report of the Superintendent of Foreign Mails, issued by the United State Post-office Department on October 23 last, on page 6 it is stated that the American Line, for carrying from New York 825,339,773 grammes of letters and prints, received from the Government a compensation of $647,278.40. It is interesting, in connection with this, to observe that the Cunard Line, for carrying 849,618,113 grammes, received from the same source only $184,721.04, and that the White Star Line, for carrying 209,113,953 grammes, received only $48,820.71. But taking the amount officially stated as having been paid to the American Line for this mail service ($647,278.40), and comparing it with the recent reports of the British Postmaster-General, it appears that the subvention paid by the British Admiralty to the Cunard Line was £15,000 ($75,000), and to the White Star line £14,600 ($73,000), for one year, and that in addition to this the total amount paid for the carriage of mails from the United Kingdom to New York during the year was £107,694—say about $500,000; that is, the entire subvention paid by the British Government to the White Star and Cunard Lines, plus the entire cost of the carriage of the mails *by all vessels* from the United Kingdom to the port of New York, was $648,000, as against $1,160,000 per annum which four vessels of the American Line would receive under the proposed bill, even adopting Senator Hanna's own figures.

If the *Congressional Record* were examined to find the excuses assigned for Government gifts to favored industries, it could be shown that this scarecrow of foreign aid to competing enterprises has been worked upon the public with the greatest regularity, but probably never with a more utter disregard of the facts than now. It is well known that the aids given by the British Government to certain great mail-carrying lines to India, China, and Australia are given for political rather than commercial purposes, and are made necessary for the purpose of maintaining connection with the scattered colonies of the empire, whose freight and passenger traffic would not justify or support the lines which are absolutely required for Government purposes; yet England, which controls about half the tonnage of the world, pays subsidy amounting to only 53 cents per ton on its sea-going steam tonnage, while the United States, on tonnage of the same character, pays under the *existing* postal subsidy $1.23 per ton, all of which is apparent on pages 3 and 18 of the report of the majority of the House Committee on Merchant Marine and Fisheries, filed on March 31 last in support of this very bill.

Mr. Hanna declared in a triumphant way that the four ships of the American Line, which are the carriers of the United States mail, have never made a dollar of net profits. He did not say whether the company has been well managed or not. Consequently there was a defect in his logic almost as marked as the difference between the figures he gave concerning the mail-pay of the Cunard and White Star Lines and the correct ones. It is quite possible that a company might not make any net profits, however large its gross earnings might be. Everything depends on the management. Senator Lindsay asked Mr. Hanna if it were true that the American Line, even with the proposed subsidy, would not earn as much as the Cunard Line or the White Star Line, and Mr. Hanna replied that in his belief it was true. Naturally Mr. Lindsay did not see what was the use of passing the bill in that case. Finally Mr. Hanna declared that he was seeking to promote patriotism and pride in our national life. He put the Subsidy Bill on higher grounds than dollars and cents. It was for the interest of the whole people, he said, that the bill should pass. His theory is that money collected from the taxpayers and put into the hands of ship-owners and ship-builders will diffuse itself through the community in a satisfactory way, especially if it is paid to those who are not making any net profits now. We think the results would be even more satisfactory if the money were distributed to the people of the United States per capita, and that if any preference were shown, it should be to those who are able to make a fair living by their own exertions.

Mr. Hanna's argument as a whole seems to be merely an amplification of the statement made by Mr. Clyde, one of the members of the "Maritime Committee" (of which Mr. Hanna is also a member), in his argument before the House Committee last winter. Mr. Clyde is himself one of the beneficiaries of the proposed Subsidy Bill, although we believe not one of the originators. He belongs rather to the class of old-fashioned, steady-going ship-owners, who did not know how much they needed Government aid till somebody else told them. Having been persuaded, however, that he had pocket-room for any share coming to him under the bill, he took a purely business view of the subject, which is expressed in the following words:

> "If we are satisfied, we who expect to share the direct benefits of this bill, to begin with—if we are satisfied to see one single member [Griscom] of that [Maritime] Committee receive that much money, in whose affairs we have no interest whatever, we think you can be sure that he is not getting more than the service he renders is fairly worth. . . . If we can agree among ourselves as to how that money can be distributed so as to do the most good and build up the largest possible merchant marine, I do not think that you should give weight to the adverse criticisms of people who have had no practical experience in the ownership or operation of ships."

This appears to have been Mr. Hanna's view also, although he did not express it as frankly as Mr. Clyde did.

AN EXAMPLE FOR GOVERNORS.

A year ago the people of Massachusetts tried the experiment of electing to the Governorship a plain business man, who had little taste for the ornamental functions of the office, but a great capacity for executive work. His first term, under the system of annual elections which Massachusetts still maintains, is about closing. Mr. W. Murray Crane comes of a family which for many years has successfully conducted the industry of paper-manufacturing in Dalton, a small town in the Western part of the State. He is in middle life and has maintained the business traditions of his house, while at the same time showing an intelligent interest in public affairs and a hearty sympathy with good causes. He was given one office after another of growing importance, until in 1896 he was elected Lieutenant-Governor, and three years later he was promoted to the position of "His Excellency," as the Massachusetts Constitution styles the Chief Executive.

Gov. Crane's address to the Legislature, upon his inauguration last January, gave the public a welcome surprise by its brevity; it would fall considerably short of filling two pages of this newspaper. It was so brief that it is safe to say ten people read it where one would have waded through a message of three times its length. It was as pointed as it was brief. Beginning with a statement that the financial condition of the Commonwealth was the most important subject to come before the lawmakers, he set forth the situation in detail and said:

> "The lesson which the figures of this debt statement teach is that Massachusetts has reached a limit of indebtedness beyond which she should not go. It is time to call a halt. The Commonwealth needs a breathing-spell for financial recuperation. Rigid economy must be exercised in appropriations and expenditures."

The system of government by commissions has been carried very far in Massachusetts. The new Governor declared that inquiry and reflection had confirmed an opinion which he had held for some time, that the best interests of the public service would be advanced by a revision of some of these commissions. The Massachusetts Legislature, like that of New York, has often interfered in the government of the State's chief city. Gov. Crane expressed positive views on this question:

> "Cities and towns should be let alone, to work out their own municipal problems. It is in the end no kindness to them to be granted authority by the Commonwealth to assume financial burdens which are prohibited by general laws. A wiser policy would be to compel them to live within their means, the Legislature imposing its superior authority only when it is clear that an extraordinary emergency exists."

The legislators found that the Executive meant what he said. When they proceeded to pass bills that contravened his urgent recommendations, he promptly vetoed them. The Governor had laid stress upon the especial necessity of avoiding further indebtedness for the so-called "Metropolitan district," which includes much of Boston's suburban territory, and in which heavy obligations have been assumed for great parks, an increased water-supply, improved drainage, and sanitation. "I recommend," he said, "that a stop be made at once to the authorization of expenditures for new work in this district." When the Legislature, nevertheless, passed two bills authorizing the expenditure of $755,000 and $200,000 for parkways and driveways therein, he referred to his protest in January against such action, and said that his convictions had only been strengthened by his experience since then, declared that "the ease with which great financial burdens are imposed or assumed is a tendency of the times which, in my opinion, needs to be checked," and refused his signature.

When bill after bill was pushed through the Legislature authorizing Boston to incur indebtedness for a municipal building, a park, playgrounds, and additional schoolhouses, he pointed out that a law had been recently enacted increasing the tax limit and the debt limit of the city, chiefly in order to avoid such applications to the Legislature; reminded the legislators that those measures contravened his recommendation of January in opposition to the tendency of the State to interfere in the local affairs of cities and towns, and in one case usurped authority that should be exercised by the Mayor and City Council; and he vetoed every one of them.

The spoilsmen tried their hand at breaking down the merit system by getting a bill passed which would allow call substitutes in the Boston Fire Department to be made permanent members of the force without a civil-service examination. It did not affect many men, but it involved a great principle, and the Governor vetoed it in a brief but cogent message, which served as the death-knell for other bills, of the same sort, but of a more pernicious character, which were on the calendars. Perhaps the most important exercise of this power was in regard to the Westminster Chambers Bill. In 1898 the Legislature had passed a law restricting to ninety feet the height of any building to be erected in certain streets adjacent to Copley Square in Boston. A syndicate of wealthy capitalists was then putting up a large building which they wanted to have ninety-six feet high; they made it of that height, and then appealed to the Legislature to condone their offence by passing a special law for their benefit. The Legislature readily complied, but the Governor refused his sanction to a measure "intended to relieve citizens of the Commonwealth from the consequences of deliberate disregard of the provisions of a statute," declaring that "the vital point involved is not the appearance of the building or the difficulties under which the owners labor, but it is rather whether law may be violated only to be excused or condoned."

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THE CLERGY MILITANT.

I am entertained by the surprise and horror expressed in England by a number of writers and thinkers over the operations which are marking the close of the Boer war. This, I consider, is a fair illustration of the ignorance with which all wars are entered into. Hard fighting is expected in all of them, but the people who begin them always expect them to end very soon, yet in time to put the bravery of the soldiers in a striking light. Every one anticipates that the last battle or skirmish will be fought just to suit the convenience of the victor, who always wants to hang anybody that keeps the conflict going longer than he likes. I was talking to an officer in the Guards in London last year, just before the Boer war broke out, about the length of time it would probably last. I asked him, first, whether he thought there would be any war, for it had not yet begun, and he replied that there certainly would, for if there were not a war, it would be the ruin of Chamberlain. I then asked him how long he thought it would last, and he answered, three months, because he expected the Boers to disperse immediately, as militiamen usually do when they come in contact with regular troops. This, I think, was the general opinion of the British public. The obstinacy of the Boer resistance has been a great surprise.

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in which we are pacifying the Philippines. We all remember how short the Cuban war was expected to be, and still more the Philippine war. The Philippine war was to end in a month, but the blackguards have been keeping it up for about two years. It is just as easy for the stronger power to bring the conflict to an end as for the weaker one; in fact, much easier. But the weaker power is supposed to have less right to keep on fighting than the stronger; and the stronger keeps on fighting as long as there is any resistance, and is held entitled to kill everybody who keeps up this resistance. This is so well known that the suprise and lamentation expended over the Boer resistance are mysterious. It is the history of all wars of subjugation. The rule is that the weaker party must submit or die. This is one of the great beauties of war.

This delusion has been greatly helped during this later war-revival by the readiness of the clergy to take part in it. Until now they have, as a rule, at least in Protestant countries, abstained from praising the killing of people as an aid to the diffusion of the gospel. But an immense stimulus has been given to man's natural propensity to kill his fellows by religious or semi-religious poetry. The poets have been extremely desirous of glorifying man when he is engaged in killing. The amount of verse expended on this is one of the saddest things in the literary history of humanity. From the first war-song of the savage down to Rudyard Kipling's poetry is an immense space of time, but this space has been filled by very much the same sort of stuff. The butchery of human beings has received almost as much attention from the poets as has been accorded to their loves.

Our sacred literature, too, is full of similes drawn from the battle-fields. Everything is done by the soldiers themselves to make war seem a picturesque business. The uniform, the serried ranks, the glittering steel, the martial music—all help to quicken the blood of even the most timid, and hide from him the horrors of actual warfare. In fact, an army engaged in the work for which it was embodied and trained undertakes the most shocking and anti-social task to which man can turn himself. Nothing can be more squalid, filthy, or inhuman than actual war, and to think that it should be the means of deciding disputes between civilized nations which are capable of producing jurists and publicists of the first rank!

The reinforcement of war by the Christian ministry seems to be largely due to the slighter hold which is retained by ministers on their congregations, at least in countries where the voluntary system prevails. The old reverence for the minister no longer exists. In a large number of the country towns he is simply a hired man, whose retention of his place depends largely on his preaching in a way to please the deacons. Consequently, every means has to be resorted to to satisfy the congregation, including agreement with the majority concerning the political questions of the day, such as war. There is no better way of pleasing it, if it be warlike, than praying for "the success of our arms." "The
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The attempt usually made to bamboozle the Creator of the universe about the nature and object of war is the grossest attempt of humanity at deception. If preachers were honest, they would, on the outbreak of a war, pray for what actually occurs in every war, successful or unsuccessful. They would approach the Throne of Grace with a petition that the enemy might have his optic nerve cut out by a ball; that he might have his pelvis smashed; that he might be disembowelled; that he might lose one or two legs; that he might lie on the field thirty-six hours, mortally wounded; that he might die of enteric fever; that his provisions and water might give out; that his house might be burned, and his family left roofless and starving. In this way, the real nature of the war would be laid before the public carrying it on, and something would be done to disabuse the minds of the young men and their parents of the idea that war is simply a kind of diversion, in the nature of a football game, which will elevate their character and improve their health and increase their business.

E. L. G.

MALTA AND THE QUESTION OF LANGUAGE.

FLORENCE, November 25, 1900.

"Much ado about nothing," say the English in Malta, and at home, anent the present agitation caused by the recent decision of the British Government, that the language of the law-courts, hitherto exclusively Italian, shall henceforward be both English and Italian, and that fifteen years hence it shall be English only. "It's an ill wind that blows no one any good," say we, even if it be of the blustering, flustering kind that envelops Mr. Chamberlain in all climes and at all seasons. But for the Colonial Secretary's incurable vulgarity, the pleasure he takes in being disagreeable, in doing right things in the rudest way, the question of "language in Malta" might have been settled amicably, and, by the united efforts of cultured Maltese and the Dante Alighieri Society, the study of the Italian language would have been carried on quietly, so that at the end of the fifteen years prescribed it might hold its own as the written and spoken tongue of Malta and Gozo. But, owing to the aforesaid blustering, the question has become a burning one. There is scarcely a newspaper in Italy but has long correspondences and leading articles on the subject, with which are mixed up political and religious discussions, neither wise nor temperate, nor calculated to enlist English sympathies on the side of the debaters.

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English garrison, on account of the difficulties arising from the adoption in the Maltese law-courts of a language which is neither that of the immense majority of the people, nor of the Government. The Maltese, as a whole, still speak the *lingua franca*, a corrupt Arabic, with many Hebrew and Greek words intermixed, and with an increasing number of Italian words pronounced in the queerest fashion. This vernacular can neither be read nor written; and though attempts have been made to write it in Roman characters, many of its sounds cannot be expressed save by an Oriental alphabet. Maltese children have to be taught either English or Italian before they can acquire any information from books, and this is one of the chief reasons why the masses remain more densely ignorant than on any other islands in the Mediterranean. One of the reasons, we say; the other being the determination of the priests to maintain them in ignorance, objecting to English as the language of heretics, to Italian because since 1849 the Italians have shown themselves determined opponents of the temporal power of the Popes, and since its overthrow in 1870 the hostility has increased with accelerated velocity. The English, who number between two and three thousand, do not care to learn Italian, as many of them reside in Malta for a time only, changing with the change of garrison; hence it is easy to see how the difficulty often frustrates the administration of justice. True, the laws of the island are published in both English and Italian, but in the law-courts the barristers plead in Italian only, and witnesses must express themselves in the same tongue or trust to interpreters. The jury, generally composed of English and Maltese, have to come to a verdict without a clear idea of the facts of the case; the judge sums up and passes sentence of acquittal or condemnation in Italian, and, especially in the case of British soldiers and sailors, the condemned never feel that they have had a fair trial.

After a long series of grumblings and protests, the chronic discontent was brought to a crisis after the trial of an English officer, who, not understanding a word of Italian, had to trust entirely to interpreters. On reading his own statement, as rendered in the translation, he denied its correctness, and refused to sign the *procès-verbal*. For this the judge committed him to prison for contempt of court. The Governor of the island warmly espoused his cause, insisted on and obtained his release, upon which followed a hot discussion in the Maltese and English press, and the subsequent decision that henceforward the double language—English and Italian—should be adopted in the law-courts. So far so good; but why add the rider that, after fifteen years have elapsed, the English language shall alone prevail? If it be right that English residents and English garrisons shall have justice administered in their own tongue, is it equitable that the educated portions of the Maltese shall have said justice administered in a tongue that is not theirs?

The Maltese are not a conquered race, nor have they ever considered themselves as such, and every attempt to encroach on such liberty as remains to them has been resisted with an energy and persistence that does them credit. Though they submit on the whole tranquilly and submissively to British dominion, they never forget that their ancient Constitution, their popular Council, granted by Roger of Sicily, destroyed by the Knights of Malta, was that they demanded from the French when Bonaparte wrested the islands from the last grand master of the Knights, the Austrian Hompesch, and that his scornful denial of the suzerainty of the King of the Two Sicilies, whose rights he promised to "demolish with bullets"; his enforcement of the French language in the schools; the demolition of their convents, the despoiling of their churches, the insulting epithets applied to the Pope in the French official *Gazette de Malte*, so exasperated the people, masses as well as classes, that they rose up in rebellion and appealed for protection and assistance to their liege lord Ferdinand, King of the Two Sicilies in name, an exile and fugitive at Palermo in fact. Neither do they forget that, in answer to that appeal, Nelson, who, after the victory of Abukir, had anchored in Maltese waters, was sent by the King of Sicily to their assistance, and that, throughout the siege and long after the capitulation of the French and their exit from the island, that astute Admiral kept up the comedy of acting only as his Majesty's representative; the Maltese actually subscribing out of their own pockets for the expense of the war and for the supplies which they obtained from Sicily.

The Maltese objected to the restoration of their island to the Knights, and, in an interminable address to his Britannic Majesty, expounded their grievances, reminding him that they were the first to take up arms against the French, and blockade them in the town and fortress of La Valetta; that they had lost 20,000 men during the war, whereas the English had not lost a single soldier; that they had done all this to be rid of the French, and that, this effected, they altogether declined to be handed back to the Knights of Malta, which would be tantamount to being delivered bound into the hands of Bonaparte. They affirmed their desire for independence, subject to the suzerainty of the King of the Two Sicilies; failing this possibility, they were "willing to become subjects of the good British King, who is known to act as a father to his children"; or, still better, to have their independence recognized and remain under the protection of Great Britain. The deputies are assured that they have the hearty good will of his British Majesty and people, but are reminded that as Great Britain is one of the signers of the Treaty of Amiens, the demands of the Maltese cannot be formally acceded to. Meanwhile three months and many more pass by, but the British troops neither evacuate the fortresses, nor does the fleet quit the Maltese waters, nor are the Knights of Malta allowed to take possession, nor are the 2,000 troops, which the King of the Two Sicilies is to send to their defence for one year, allowed to land. "Without Malta," wrote Bonaparte to the Directory, "the Mediterranean will never be a French lake"; hence his anxiety for peace which should turn the English out of the island, while on the other hand England reopened war with France almost exclusively to obtain a pretext to remain in Malta. The Maltese regarded this as the best of a bad solution, and the seventh article of the Treaty of Paris runs: "L'île de Malte et ses dépendences appartiendront en toute propriété et souveraineté à sa Majesté Britannique."

From the moment of their union to Great Britain, the Maltese persistently forwarded a series of protests and lists of grievances to the home Government, either directly or, when he condescended to receive them, through the local Governor. They complained of the first Governor Maitland's abuse of power, and he was bidden to maintain complete separation between the legislative and executive authority on the one hand and the judicial authority on the other; but the Maltese maintained that it was to regain their legislative independence that they had refused to submit again to the Knights of Jerusalem, and they insisted strongly on the right of direct petition. The Marquis of Hastings, second Governor, was conciliatory, but gave great offence by allowing a Methodist chapel to be built, Maltese workmen refusing to assist in its erection. Then, on the death of the Catholic Bishop of Malta, ensued a contest between the King of Naples and the Pope, as to who should name his successor. Then followed a fight to obtain trial by jury and a reform of the civil and military codes, and an attempt was made then and there to introduce English legislation and the English language in the courts of law. This brought the island very near to an insurrection, but the home Government yielded, and the Napoleonic code and the Italian language were adopted between 1831 and 1834. Next came the inauguration of the Council of Government. The Catholic Bishop refused to take the oath unless authorized by the Pope, who refused his consent, seeing that it bound the taker "to do nothing that should injure the Protestant religion or the Protestant Government in the United Kingdom." The home Government decided that the Council should be elected without the Bishop. Next came the question of the liberty of the press, which was granted in 1848.

Presently it was found that the Governor of Malta ought not to be a military man, and, as Sir Patrick Stuart had come to grief by disallowing carnival festivals on Sunday, a civilian and a Catholic replaced him in the person of R. More O'Ferrall, who was hailed with universal applause, but he gave offence by appointing an English surgeon to the office of Comptroller of Charitable Institutions, which much needed reform. Then came the reformed Council of Government. Letters patent ordained that the Council should consist of eighteen members, ten of whom were to be men holding offices under Government, and eight to be unofficial members elected by the people every five years. At the first election three priests were chosen, at the second four; at the third, five out of the eight were Roman Catholic ecclesiastics. When the revision of the Penal Code came in, this "Popish Council" started with the assertion that, the Roman Catholic Apostolic Church being the sole dominant in these islands, the code which took for its basis the equality of all religions was illegal, as the pastor, the mufti, and the rabbi would be equally protected with the Catholic priest. Canon Amato was mild in his demands, but Monsignor Fitemi affirmed "that there is no law which can be quoted to justify the exercise of any other worship than that of the Catholic religion," and he trusted that the Council would "abstain from giving any legal recognition to that church." The amendment, that the words "dominant in Malta" be omitted, was negatived by eleven votes to five. Thus the

"Reformed Council" denied the Church of England any legal status, and naturally the English residents and the Bishop of Gibraltar came to the front. The result was that the Queen refused to sanction the measure, and, during the administration of Sir William Reid, issued new letters patent by which all ecclesiastics were rendered ineligible to the Council. But the priests "out of Council" were dominant in all else. The new Governor, Sir William Reid, devoted himself to educational reform of the primary schools and of the university, but was thwarted at every step by the priests, who, among other prohibitions, forbade native merchants and office-holders to send their children to private schools lest they should be tainted with heresy. A recent instance of their intolerance is the fact that they have actually succeeded in preventing a single religious commemoration of the late King Humbert in any of the churches. It is their "dominant power" that checkmates all progress. One Governor in 1865 appointed a commission to inquire into the state of education in the island. Mr. Emilio Sceberras, a much respected Maltese gentleman, and Dr. Baker, professor of the University of Corfù, were members. Their report says the senior classes were unable to read correctly, that the pupils broke down in the conjugation of the simplest verbs, in both Italian and English. In the primary schools, "Italian reading and dictation indifferent; scarcely any knowledge of the meaning of the words. English bad, no knowledge of the subject read. Arithmetic, three out of twenty-seven pupils in one school succeeded, after a considerable time, in working out a short sum in simple multiplication." Summing up, it was found "that neither the English, Italian, nor Maltese languages was taught, and that of arithmetic, history, and geography the pupils knew next to nothing."

According to the census of 1891, the population stood at 163,850, English 2,201, foreigners 1,117. There were ninety public schools, with 11,000 pupils, with a university, a lyceum, and two secondary schools. But, according to recent reports, the quantity of schools has increased, the quality of the teaching has not ameliorated. And now that the Government may be considered to a certain extent representative, as the Governor is "assisted" by an Executive Council and a Council of Government, consisting, according to the Constitution of 1887, of six official and fourteen elected members, it really is the fault of the Maltese themselves if, allowing the priests entire domination, this state of abject ignorance continues. And if it continues for the next fifteen years, the salvation of the Italian language will be a thing past praying for. As now, the aspirants for office under Government *must* know English, parents will not oppose the study of English in the schools, but, as the study of Italian will be entirely voluntary, unless the educated Maltese put their shoulders to the wheel they will find themselves out in the cold decidedly.

Wise old Robert of Gloucester, who survived the eventful years of the civil war of the reign of Henry III., left a useful lesson for posterity. He accepted the Norman conquest as a fact, even as a divine judgment, regarding Edgar the Atheling, and not Harold, as the lawful King of England. What he reproached the English for was "that they, following the example of their conquerors, speak French." "Only here," he says, "in the world do the people speak another language than the mother tongue. But it is well to understand French as well as English, for the more one knows the more he is worth." And from his time downwards the mother tongue regained its ascendancy. If the Maltese will condescend to a similar course, they will find that even of Mr. Chamberlain's inurbanity it may be said, *Tutto il male non vien per nuocere.*

J. W. M.

"NEW ART" AT THE PARIS EXPOSITION.

NEW YORK, December, 1900.

A general exhibition of human work when held in Paris is certain to be rich in those works of art and industry, together and indistinguishable, which make up what we commonly call decorative art. And there is this about such an exhibition in Paris, that the French, alone of modern peoples, have managed to keep clear in their minds the unbroken connection between fine art of the higher and more expressional character and that which is almost exclusively matter of adornment, or even of display. The Frenchman knows that there is no distinction which any one can be sure of between the costly carving in hard, semi-precious materials, sumptuous rather than thoughtful, and the subtile imaginings of Whistler or Puvis. And so, although he makes pretence to keep the "fine arts" by themselves on one side of the river and the "polite arts" in another building on the south bank, this proves to be merely a form, and his phrase *les beaux-arts*, to be merely a popular way of designating the framed canvas and panel, the free statue and the group. In the Exposition of 1900 the two palaces, Grand Palais and Petit Palais, are assumed to be the home of the fine arts more commonly so called—easel pictures, prints, bas-reliefs, portable statues, architectural drawings, and the rest; but the smaller one is filled with a retrospective exhibition of French art since the Gallo-Roman times, and this, of necessity, consists more largely of tapestries, ornamental furniture, metal work, enamelling, glass, pottery, and decorative carving than of painting or sculpture in the more common sense of those terms. On the other hand, the great building, Le Grand Palais, in which French art of the present century is housed in its two divisions of the first nine decades and the single last decade of the century, shows a notable invasion of such pieces of work as in any other surrounding would be called in the vulgar tongue bric-à-brac, or in more dignified language *objects d'art*. This is shown in a sufficient way by the retrospective collection of furniture.

Probably some of the letters from Paris which you have printed already, contain the statement that each department of the Exhibition, each section, has its own retrospective show combined with the display of modern work. Furniture is no exception to this rule; and, while a large number of splendid pieces of all epochs from the fourteenth century to the year 1800 are gathered in the Petit Palais, and while those of the present century are grouped in a large room of the Grand Palais, there is still required a vast space in the buildings of the Esplanade south of the Seine to contain the retrospective exhibition of furniture properly so called, and which must of necessity be shown alongside of the work of the Parisian makers of the moment. Moreover, this remarkable display may be extended at will, and at very slight cost of time and effort on the student's part, by observation of the Garde-Meuble, close at hand, on the Quai d'Orsay.

In this department, however, the modern Paris workmen have not much to show that is at once novel and instructive. The buyer of furniture may be better off in Paris than anywhere else, because the assured touch of the designer working on old traditional lines is more to be trusted than the vagaries, however attractive, of the deliberate seeker after originality. Buy your furniture of the Paris workmen, the conservative adviser might say, but by all means go to England and to Germany, and also to the Viennese, for an interesting inquiry into what the bolder designer thinks can be done with those movables which make life easy. Accept the style of Louis XVI. or Louis XV. for your rooms, by all means, and let modern Paris adapt it to your needs; so you will be quite sure in advance of what you ought to have and how you will like it. But study, rather, the marvels of modern whimsicality, because among them a spark of real information may be shining. When, in fine or decorative art, any workman is seeking rather for novelty than for excellence in the old ways, his work is sure to be less satisfying; but it may have ideas in it, troublesome and useful ideas. And of all this modern designing and untraditional character, perhaps the boldest and assuredly the most generally employed is what is called by its cultivators the New Art. This *art nouveau* is said to have originated in the dreams of a Belgian architect, but it was snatched up instantly by German and English industrial artists, and by at least one French master. It consists mainly in an attempted reduction of all forms, constructional and ornamental alike, to abstract curves, and these so arranged in series and so combined that an effect is produced suggesting perhaps some vegetable scroll pattern, but rather the forms of Arabic letters in wall inscriptions, which forms must be thought to develop themselves instinctively from the hand and under the eye of the calligraphist.

This new decorative motive may be thought to develop itself as naturally under the instinctively moving hand of him who tries to imagine how the leg of a table or the upright of a screen may be bent from the vertical and worked into some form more attractive to the eye. In metal-work the thing can be done, naturally and easily. It may even be thought a matter of absolutely individual taste how far the combination of curves, as in wrought-iron—curves at first slow and almost invisible, but then growing rapidly more decided, and ending almost in volutes—how far such work in abstract curvature may please, for the moment, or may be thought to satisfy a more critical examination. Here is a grille, a fixed or swinging grating of iron; and its curves, which seem to one critic most crazily tossed about, may seem to another well calculated for effect, and even suggestive of construction. Here is a round dish of hard gray pottery, upon which is mounted a rim of block-tin, and the bright metal shows against the bluish-gray earthenware along an outline as much diversified with strange and indescribable curves as the mind and hand of the worker could make it.

In an interior such as that of the Viennese school of decorative art at this Exhibition, we note that the medallions which are filled by representative painting—by views of scenes and incidents—are enclosed by a curved bordering which takes shapes not wholly disagreeable. A medallion may be bordered by abstract curves which suggest nothing; it need not be round, need not be square; the student goes no farther back than the time of Louis XV. to find very satisfactory medallions bounded by abstract curves. A medallion may be of any shape; the bounding edge may be rectangular, or of geometrical curve, or of wholly undescribed and indescribable curvature, and nothing but the pleasantness of the resulting form is to be considered even for a moment. The division between one surface and another surface is and must be an abstract line—there is no escaping from that. If we see a round dish hanging against a wall, the actual outline which the eye preserves, the boundary between that pottery surface and that panelled or painted surface behind it, is an abstract curve, and one which the observer will find it hard to describe. The case changes as soon as the abstract curves in question are asked to do the duty of chief decorative elements. In this very room which we are in a way considering, the panels which are not filled by descriptive painting are scrawled—that is the word—scrawled over with slender lines suggested by nothing that one can recall in nature or in previous art, except that there is something a little Egyptian in the way in which patches of color are set within bounding outlines. These slender lines are carried up and across, in and out, making angles with each other, or forming indescribable curves which are more or less closely concentric or parallel to one another—more or less often tangent or nearly so to one another, more or less contrasting with one another, more or less diverging from each other.

Let the reader imagine himself in a bare room with a potful of color and a big, coarse paint-brush; let him go at the walls with no idea in the world but that of drawing lines of about uniform thickness which shall twist about or run straight as the momentary whim seizes him. He will find that, almost without deliberate purpose, his line runs for a while parallel to the trim of a door, and then suddenly breaks away from it and forms irregular curves which will be more or less pleasant in their curvature as his eye and hand are more or less trained, and as his spirit is more or less refined in such matters as this. He will enjoy the fun; he will find it the most amusing thing in the world to carry five lines, vertically, parallel to the door trim, window trim, or corner of his room, and then, at a height of five or six or eight feet above the floor, to cause these lines suddenly to diverge one from the other, and, as they diverge, to form curves which seem to echo one another for a while, and then suddenly dash one across the other in headlong confusion. To bring some kind of a design out of this sort of work will be extremely entertaining. If he sees this work a week later, he may still find some enjoyment in it. But now let him call in some one else to design a room of this spirit and to do it more deliberately—let him spend money upon a room decorated in this way, and if he can endure the result a month later, he will be made of different stuff from any art student whom the present writer has had the pleasure of consulting.

When this sort of design is put into solid metal work, the abstract curves are, or seem to be, justifiable in the very way in which the lines drawn on the wall were justifiable—that is to say, thin iron bars are as easy to twist into one curve as another, and the labor of so twisting them is scarcely greater than that of tracing the painted line which has been imagined above. An iron grille so designed is capable of the same kind of momentary pleasure-giving influence that the painted curves are. The result will be equally unsatisfactory in the end, except when there is some significance given to the lines by the apparent utility of the metal bar as tying, sustaining, separating, uniting parts of the construction. But the reader will observe that the moment this is to be said of any one of the curves in question, it ceases to be an abstract curve in the sense in which we have been using that term—it unites itself at once with the whole vast forces of nature, which, because not at all times visible, are not on that account less valuable to the designer. Your iron gate seems to be held up better by the resilient nature of the curve given to the iron bar which seems to support that gate (whether it does so or not). You have here, too, a reason for your curve, and the thing is lifted out of the department of *l'art nouveau* by that very fact. Even without this, however, the iron bars can be endured now and then if they are arranged according to this school of abstract curvature.

Now let the student try the same thing in woodwork, and he will find immediately that the material is far less yielding, and that the curves of *l'art nouveau* are not easily produced therein. In the very same room which has been in question above, that of the Austrian School of Decorative Art, there is furniture of this kind. In adjoining rooms—in the German exhibit, most of all, perhaps, in the separate pavilion put up by the Paris dealer Bing, and dedicated to *l'art nouveau*—there is much of it. The front of a glass case, the doors of a book-case, the sash of a window has the wooden sash-bars—which we more often see drawn straight from edge to edge of the space to be filled with glass—curved. There must be a bar reaching from the bottom to the top of the glass door, but this bar may be so sawed out of wood or so bent by the steaming of a thin bar of wood that it ceases to be straight, and assumes a curve almost exactly that which the designer has imagined. "Very good, then," says the designer, "we will not have any more straight lines; we will bend these bars, and we will try to make the curves which they assume help one another and be attractive in themselves as pieces of abstract curvature." In no case, however, are they attractive, or can they endure even a moment's examination. In every case the effect is unlovely, and has a shock ready prepared for the observer of discriminating taste—that is, for the observer who feels the difference between the possible charm of this and of that form. Finally, to close this too long analysis, these same abstract curves, when used for the lead sash bars holding the glass which is to close and adorn the openings themselves, are doing their worst possible mischief, and are producing their ugliest effect. There are studies in ornamental glass in these pavilions, as there are in the celebrated and carefully designed Castel Béranger in the Rue La Fontaine, in which it does seem that the utmost possible bad taste is attained, so ludicrously inappropriate to the material, both of the lead outline and of the glass filling, are the long, nearly parallel, slowly diverging curves.

Everything that the present writer has noted at the Exhibition tends to confirm the feeling which is growing upon all those designers whose work he has learned to respect and whose opinions he knows—the feeling that nothing can be done without close adherence to tradition. La Farge, in his paper on Puvis de Chavannes published in *Scribner's Magazine* for this month, quotes Puvis as saying to his pupils that they should beware of tradition and use it only for a guide. And that is a beautiful thing to read—a fine thing, an instructive thing to hear coming from the lips of the one man of our own time who held the noblest traditions of the painter's art and knew how to use them as they were used of old. For such a traditionalist as Puvis to say "Beware of tradition," is to say the thing which his pupils must have needed more than any other one thing; but to the would-be introducer of things wholly novel and designed on general principles, Puvis himself would say: "Stick to tradition, worship tradition, believe that tradition is the first thing which the designer needs!"

What is the reason why the curved woodwork of the modern designers, German, Austrian, French, and British, is so hideous, when the curved legs of a table made in France about 1775, or during the forty years which followed, by imitators all over the European world were nearly always endurable and sometimes even lovely? We have tables in our simple American homes in which the slender legs gather slowly together as they reach downward from the heavier top, or, if you please, spread outward slowly as they mount from their little claw-foot bases; in which, moreover, they follow, as they diverge from one another, the most graceful and subtile curves, a slow and hardly perceptible curve passing more rapidly into the claw-foot below and into the heavier mass of wood above provided for the framing of part into part. Why are these forms attractive when the forms of *l'art nouveau* are hideous? Partly, no doubt, because we are accustomed to them; partly so; but less and less so as the observer is more and more accustomed to art of many schools and of many epochs. Chiefly, without doubt, because the curves of the eighteenth-century workmen were the result of slow development, of changes imperceptibly made from year to year, the tradition beginning in unfathomed depths of time, and coming slowly down through generation after generation of workmen to the time when the wood was carved, the lead cast and filed, the iron hammered. One is almost ready to say that in all this vast world of decorative art there is nothing really worth seeing, the traditional origin of which is not traceable by the well-instructed inquirer. That is extravagant, no doubt; no doubt there are cases where it would be hard to trace the original study of natural form—to name the *causa causans;* but it is not too much to say that there is nothing really fine, in our time, nothing really worth looking at more than twice, which has not taken its goodness from the their own hands and dealt swift justice. Not that the avengers always represented the law-abiding class of the community—they were often friends of the defunct or injured individuals; but the more these happenings partook of a spirit of revenge, the sooner and more apparent became the need of organized action on the part of law-abiding citizens.

These punishments were given without regard to race or color. In my own experience, extending over five years in the wildest part of the Southwestern frontier, I never knew of summary punishment being visited on any but two negroes; they had been guilty of robbing the mails of pay-checks belonging to railroad employees. They were carried several hundred miles to prison, where, the dilatory action of the authorities being only too apparent, they were taken out and flogged and told to leave the country. The only wonder was that more severe measures were not adopted when they were first apprehended.

Mr. Conway's experience, however, has been in the South, where courts of justice have long been established, but where undoubtedly the strong race prejudice against the negro has caused, and still continues to cause, the horrible barbarities recorded so frequently in the daily papers. Mr. Conway's long and eminent service in behalf of these oppressed people gives him undoubted authority in this field of observation, but renders him unable to deal intelligently with the wholly diverse conditions on the Western frontier.

Each of these two earnest and fearless men knows thoroughly about the conditions of which he talks, but each is ignorant in the domain of the other.

Chas. F. Lawton.

New Bedford, Mass., December 10, 1900.

THE WONDERFUL CENTURY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: All through the year 1900 I have been watching the leading periodicals for some article, or series of articles, on the changes which the hundred years from 1800 to 1900 have wrought in the world, under something like the following heads:

First, the new conveniences in daily life, such as the lucifer match, the steel pen, the sewing-machine, the typewriter, the bicycle, the photograph.

Then, the conveniences furnished to the dwellers in cities from a central source—water-pipes and sewer connections in the houses, gas supply for light and for heating, electric lights, and telephones.

Then, the labor-saving appliances—the improvements in the steam-engine, the dynamo, and use of electricity as motive power, the power press, the typesetting machine, the sewing-machine in the factory, the steam plough, the reaper and mower, the vast improvements in weaving-looms and in spindles, the still greater improvements in smelting iron and turning it into steel, and in making rails and steel ships, with much more on the same lines.

The improvements in firearms on land and sea, resulting in a revolution in the art of war.

The progress in physics and chemistry, which made these advances in practical life possible.

The quicker communication between place and place, by means of the railroad and the locomotive or the electric car, the river steamboat, and the ocean steamship with its growing velocity, the instantaneous sending of news over land and sea with or without wires, the long-distance telephone, which verifies one of the wildest dreams of the 'Arabian Nights.'

The growth, I might say the birth, of those sciences which are not applicable to the arts of life, such as historical geology and palæontology, leading to the Darwinian theory of evolution, the history of early humanity as read in the monuments of Egypt, of Nineveh, Babylon, and Nippur, of Troy, Mykenæ, and so forth.

The progress in medical knowledge, such as the use of anæsthetics, of the antiseptic method, of the antitoxins, the disuse of bloodletting, the greater care in preventing disease by public cleanliness, especially in the water supply of cities, with the consequent greatly lessened mortality.

The effects upon religious and political thought of all this progress in wealth-production, in comfort, and in knowledge.

The conquest by the European nations of the Mohammedan and heathen world in Asia, Africa, America, and Australia, now almost completed.

The gradual absorption of the smaller states into great nations and into still greater empires.

The growth of the English-speaking peoples, next to them that of Russia and of Germany, and the comparative effacement of France and Austria.

The great advance of Democracy—France again a republic, having remained such for thirty years, the United States now the foremost nation in almost every element of power, Great Britain a monarchy only in name, and Parliamentary institutions firmly established in Germany, in Austria-Hungary, in Italy, even in Japan.

Here is room for thirteen highly interesting essays. L. N. D.

Louisville, Ky., December 10, 1900.

[As the century still lacks completion, our correspondent need not despair of seeing his desire gratified.—Ed. Nation.]

INTERCOLLEGIATE DEBATING.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: For ten years now, from the inside and from the out, I have been observing intercollegiate debating. I have always heard at least one debate a year, generally two, frequently more. But during this whole period, as I recall it, I have listened to only one discussion from which, it seemed to me, an outsider of ordinary intelligence, given to reading the newspapers, could have obtained any enlightenment or any information. Good speeches there have been, and in plenty; cases, too, showing considerable logical power; but the discussions, taken as a whole, have invariably left one with the feeling that much of importance had been left unsaid, and that little had been said to the point.

The debate in Sanders Theatre of a week ago between Harvard and Yale only bears out this criticism. The debate was certainly up to, perhaps above, the average. Nevertheless, I venture to say not only that no one in the audience had his conviction changed—this, possibly, is too much to expect—but that the number who knew more after the debate than before as to the merits of the question (the retention of the Philippine Islands) was infinitesimally small. Yet half-a-dozen capital speeches were made, and made, moreover, by speakers who, I fancy, are better acquainted with the subject than ninety-nine out of a hundred men in public life.

Now, this result is certainly unfortunate. Of course, it doesn't detract from the importance of the debates as training for public affairs and for citizenship, but it does limit their usefulness to that, and that alone. It makes them public academic exercises of no real value in themselves—little better than the so-called oratorical contests. But should this be? It seems to me not. There is no reason why men from twenty to twenty-six should not say something about a political question well worth listening to by those with no interest in the speakers personally or in the occasion. Or, if there be a reason, it must lie not in the nature of things, but in the schoolboy methods followed by the debaters.

Under the present scheme for debates, adopted by Harvard, Yale, Princeton, and Columbia, there are three main speeches and three rebuttal speeches on each side. Each of these is to a greater or less extent prepared in advance—prepared, it is true, so far as possible, with reference to the opposing case, yet prepared so rigidly that, if the other side offers a line of argument different from that anticipated, the original plan must, nevertheless, be carried out. The end of it all is that only by chance or unusual prescience do the two cases get together; that much time is wasted over irrelevant and minor points, to be admitted later; and that the real issues are never fully developed till the very end, when, of course, they have only a meagre, half-hearted treatment. In addition, there is always a deal of uninstructive talk about the meaning of terms, the sources of evidence, the reliability of quotations, and the like. Naturally, the effect isn't calculated to provoke enthusiasm from one who is after information, who wishes to learn.

But is this inevitable—is there not a remedy? I think there is, a simple one, near at hand: to take over to debating the method employed by lawyers to inform a court and opposing counsel of their case, namely, by submitting briefs. Let each college be required before a debate to hand to its opponent and to the judges a syllabus, setting forth the chief arguments to be relied on and the citations. That this would work a radical change in the debates, no one, I am sure, can doubt; and that the change would be wholly for good seems to me quite as clear. At the very least, it would insure a more thorough, intelligent discussion of essentials. Whether the improvement would be so great as to give the debates real value on their own account is more conjectural. But, so far as the conditions of actual contests before courts and referees are introduced, just so far the meetings will cease to be academic, and will become worth while, not as training, but for themselves.

Ralph Curtis Ringwalt.

Cambridge, Mass., December 12, 1900.

Notes.

The Oxford University Press will publish, ortly after the turn of the year, a proba-y final edition of the Complete Works f Bishop Berkeley, being Prof. A. Campbell Fraser's thorough overhauling of his 871 edition in three octavo volumes. The ntroduction and notes have been practically rewritten, and a brief new biography will be a further feature of the revision, which requires four volumes instead of three.

Brentano's, having acquired the sole right to publish in the United States Rostand's "L'Aiglon" in the original French, will bring it out immediately.

Mr. Francis P. Harper renders a pious service in publishing a collection of 'Early New York Homes.' The work will be complete in ten parts. Taking the first part as an earnest of the whole, the large octavo volume will be in every way handsome typographically. The illustrations from photographs and old prints measurably escape the defects of "process"; the vignettes and other printer's decorations, representing appropriately old-time houses or household utensils, are by C. G. Moller, jr., and the text is in the competent hands of William S. Pelletreau. In the present sample, we should prefer mention of a mere street-number to the picture of a quite modern building which occupies the site of Capt. Kidd's house. Of the ordinary edition 525 copies only will be printed. For the more fastidious collector there is a still smaller edition of twenty-five, with Japan paper and duplicate plates as the added inducement.

Minerva, that incomparable annual for the learned world (Strassburg: K. J. Trübner; New York: Lemcke & Buechner) offers its tenth volume to the new century. Its size has more than trebled, nearly quadrupled, in the decade, corresponding to an enlargement of its scope beyond university bounds. Dr. Trübner has dispensed with former assistance in the compilation, and now assumes the full responsibility for its merits or demerits. To those not familiar with this work, whose index of names (*Personalregister*) covers 161 pages of four columns each, we can convey some idea of its utility by stating that a whole page closely printed in full width is required merely to enumerate the universities and colleges, schools of technology, agricultural colleges and theological seminaries, libraries, museums, observatories, learned societies, and miscellaneous bodies and institutions of the United States alone, whose personnel is subsequently recorded, together with the principal facts in the history and constitution of each. Extend this to like organizations all over the globe, and the enormous convenience of *Minerva* becomes apparent at a glance—along with the extreme and disinterested labor that has collected all this information and this galaxy of names not allied with "strenuousness" in the Bobadilian sense. The regulation portrait frontispiece is of a hero of true science—Wilhelm Conrad Röntgen, etched by J. Lindner.

An essay might be written on the fate of the "belle" in this country, since the time when our cities were small enough to make a preëminent beauty the talk and the pride of the town. In the first third of the pres-[illegible] Marshall was the unquestioned beauty of Boston, but who can say who is now its belle *par excellence*? Is there even *a* belle of Baltimore any longer? Mrs. Virginia Tatnall Peacock has been moved to celebrate in a book the 'Famous Belles of the Nineteenth Century' (Philadelphia: Lippincott), and has executed her task with taste and restraint, and with sectional impartiality. Her style is rather pleasantly Southern, as where it gilds the old "public functionary," James Buchanan, with a halo of romance unknown to any other occupant of the Presidential office. She sketches the lives of Miss Marshall, whose portrait is at the front (reproduced for the first time in color), Harriet Lane, Sallie Ward, Elizabeth Patterson, Theodosia Burr, Jessie Benton, Kate Chase, Jennie Jerome (Lady Randolph Churchill), Mary Victoria Leiter (Baroness Curzon of Kedleston), etc., etc. There are more portraits than accompanying sketches, and these give the holiday character to the book. If one asks, Would the latter end of the century accept the judgment of the earlier in the matter of good looks?—here is material for an answer, but, perhaps, not so satisfactory as the next century will enjoy, with a full line of photographic counterfeit presentments.

A long familiarity with Hindu life has given Mrs. Marcus B. Fuller the right to speak with authority in regard to the subject employed as the title of her little book. 'The Wrongs of Indian Womanhood' (Fleming H. Revell Co.). The various phases of wretchedness are well described, and the pitiful condition of Hindu women is made clear enough, though it is not quite so clear why it is necessary to wait for every woman in India to hear the gospel in order to get "the real remedy." On the contrary, two things are shown unintentionally, but plainly, in this little volume. First, that all reform must come from without, by compulsion; second, that the English, who have done so much good work in reforming India, are at present afraid to press their power. As infanticide has been reduced and in some phases entirely put down by British law; as the practice of burning widows has been abolished by the same means; so must the English take the initiative in suppressing child-marriages. Mrs. Fuller herself admits that the women of India will be the last to give up their own wrongs. The simple style of the author is marred by awkwardness—redundant *thats* (pp. 92, 93), and such inexplicable sentences as the one on p. 154: "Rajput infanticide as it has, and does to some extent still exist in India." Six per thousand is not indicated by 0.6 (*sic*, p. 268), which may be corrected in another edition, as should be corrected also the two solecisms in English found in one sentence on p. 97: "We would have been glad to have overlooked the subject." But Mrs. Fuller writes out of the heart rather than the head, and her tale of woe is related with graphic earnestness. Occasionally, too, a sidelight is thrown on other personages in India, and those innocent Americans who think that travelled Hindus are good expositors of their country's faith may be benefited by Mrs. Fuller's incidental remark about Vivekananda: "The success he was reputed to have achieved in the West has won him reverence here [in India]. He was practically unknown till then."

Mr. George Neilson's 'John Barbour: Poet and Translator' (London: Kegan Paul) is a reprint, in a limited edition, of a paper first published in the Transactions of the Philological Society. Mr. Neilson undertakes to rescue the "Troy Fragments" and the 'Legends of the Saints' for Barbour. In the first case, he has the testimony of the scribe on his side; in the second, there is no external evidence, the ascription to the author of the 'Bruce' originating in a conjecture of the late Henry Bradshaw. The adverse arguments are mainly linguistic. In the course of his studies, Mr. Neilson was led to ascribe to Barbour 'The Buik of Alexander,' a fine old Scottish romance, first printed in 1580 and usually thought to date from 1438. He relies in the main on parallel passages, of which he produces a formidable array. It would take much space to discuss this interesting paper as it deserves. Mr. Neilson writes with enthusiastic conviction, and, if he has not proved his case, he has at least thrown a fresh apple of discord into the assembly of philologists.

Welcome in its cover of ocean blue is the last volume of the Hakluyt Society on the Voyage of John Saris to Japan in 1613. It is edited from contemporary records by Sir Ernest M. Satow, for nearly forty years in or associated with Japan, and now British Minister in Pekin, who last August, in London, was happily able to deliver his manuscript of the introduction — almost as valuable as the record of Saris himself—and to write the preface. It is a book to delight the old resident in Japan, to quicken his memory, and to enrich his dream-hours. With a reproduction of Linschoten's map of the Eastern seas, abundant explanatory notes rich in scholarship, and a capital index, with several portraits of shoguns and daimios whom Saris saw, the book-lover has in this volume all he desires. It is very pleasant also to see the uncouth spelling of Japanese names set forth in correct form in the notes. Sir Ernest Satow has been able to solve many a puzzle that has baffled others who were very courageous but less ably equipped. Some of the cacographic knots, however, remain uncut or disentangled, but these seem to be of small importance. The value of the text consists in its vivid pictures of Japanese feudal life, which show how virtually unaltered that life continued to be down to 1868. Besides the air near the large cities poisoned because of the effluvium from the decayed human bodies still hanging on the bamboo crosses—matched by similar sights in England, on Temple Bar or at the cross-roads, of which Pope complained—there was also a new street song about the "black ships" of the foreigners, just as, in Perry's day, a fresh one was composed. The Englishmen were then called "Koreans" and "Chinamen," just as the reviewer remembers that he was often so called by the country people. Saris's expedition was simply one of venture, and no further English commerce was noted. He did not again tempt fortune in the East, but married in England, died in 1643, and was buried in the church at Fulham. We are glad to see in the list of subscribers to the Society many American libraries.

Effingham Wilson, London, has published a translation of the 'Maritime Codes of Italy,' by Judge Raikes of the English bench. This is the third volume and fifth code translated and edited by Dr. Raikes, who is one of the most competent authorities upon maritime jurisprudence now livslightly, being very nearly the largest on record, while the maize crop was up to the average. The value of the cotton crop (which, in 1889, was, in round numbers, $43,000,000) was $83,000,000.

The Oriental Institute of Vladivostok, Siberia, has been organized and put in active operation during the past year. From a manuscript report, we learn that the sum of 90,000 rubles a year is set apart by an imperial order for the maintenance of the edifice, salaries of the professors, and the support of thirty students to be boarded, clothed, and educated at the expense of the Government. Other pupils must pay 500 rubles a year for the same privileges. Students may take elective courses in any of the four languages, Korean, Japanese, Mantchurian, and Mongolian, with, of course, Chinese as the basis of the written language of each and all. The obligatory studies in these faculties, besides the two Oriental languages, are English, higher theology, political economy, review of political and municipal institutions in Russia and elsewhere, the geography and history of Oriental countries, and jurisprudence. The study of French is optional. The whole course lasts four years. Beginning in November, 1899, the year closed April 1, four professors and nineteen students being present. The number of students for 1900-'01 was expected to be about eighty. During the summer vacation the students are supposed to travel and reside in the countries whose language they are studying.

—The interest of the world is now far from Egypt, and Dr. H. D. Traill's 'England, Egypt, and the Sudan' (E. P. Dutton & Co.) has fallen upon evil days. It is a readable, lucid, and fairly trustworthy history of modern Egyptian affairs, from the rebellion of Arabi Pasha—with a sketch of what led up to it—to the present reconquered and pacified Sudan. Dr. Traill is at no point a first-hand historian; he takes his materials from other men's books, and weaves them into easy narrative. His own book belongs to the same class as Fitchett's 'How England Saved Europe,' and has the same amusing suggestion in its tone of *Gesta Dei per Britannos*. But there are other aspects of humor in it which the author himself probably appreciated more highly. Mr. Gladstone's course is analyzed with pitiless glee. The destiny of nations certainly never worked with a finer irony than when a Gladstonian Ministry was driven, by sheer weight of circumstances, to action which has had the largest Imperialistic consequences. No objection is taken to these consequences here, but the subtle subterfuges of the great orator are laid bare in the old *Blackwood* style. But with the fate of Gordon, deserted in Khartum, the glee vanishes, and the indictment is lofty and severe. The second half of the book deals in much greater detail with the events of the reconstruction period after the abandonment of the Sudan. The last chapter is a really clever and satisfactory reply to the common charge against England of insincerity and hypocrisy. It considers the course of events by which Egypt has passed from being a vassal state of Turkey to what is practically the status of an Indian protected state under the control of a British Resident, and traces through them that thread of inevitableness which is always so easy to find—afterwards. The printing is of a curious carelessness. President for resident, national for rational, alternate puzzlingly. The senseless misprint has no dangers, it is the misprint with a sense that is a pitfall. There are many here for the unwary.

—'The Forward Policy and its Results,' by Mr. R. I. Bruce (Longmans), is a volume largely of memoirs, but partly of disquisition on the proper attitude to be maintained by the Government of India toward the hill tribes. The author has been Political Agent in Beluchistan and Commissioner for the Derajat division of the Punjab. Apart from personal experiences, the motive of the book is to praise the policy which was followed and advocated by Sir Robert Sandeman. Punitive measures are decried in the loudest tones, and Mr. Bruce favors the plan of conciliation. The tribes, if well managed, will furnish many good recruits to the Indian army, and they can be kept in good order at less expense than is involved in the suppression of their risings. Concerning the "Forward Policy" itself, Mr. Bruce has no doubts. Like most Anglo-Indians, whether soldiers or civilians, who have worked on the frontier during the last twenty years, he believes that India should control the whole northwestern march line. Indeed, he favors its direct annexation. He would have either a frontier province under one chief commissioner, or constitute Peshawar and the northern frontiers into a second "frontier chief-commissionership" on the same footing with Beluchistan. He inclines toward the latter plan, on the ground that it is more practicable. Like others, too, who have dwelt long in the northwest border-land, he feels keenly the neglect of this project by the British and Indian Governments. Sufficient care is not taken to train agents, particularly the political agents, for their intercourse with the tribes, and the inducements should be increased. One very significant feature of this book is the unconscious emphasis which it lays upon love of distinction as a motive in the Indian civil service. Mr. Bruce frequently takes us into his confidence, and tells us how grieved he was when he was passed over at this stage or at that. Public officials will, apparently, work harder and more faithfully with a title or a decoration in prospect than they would do without it. From the standpoint of artistic autobiography, Mr. Bruce says, perhaps, too much about his aspirations and but partially recognized services. But his book will be a valuable one to students of Indian affairs, especially on the administrative side. Another reflection which is prompted by any book like the present is that the retired Anglo-Indian official must always find himself in a strange element. After years of wide power and exciting experiences he comes back to the "quiet life." To him as to the full private do the words of the poet apply:

> "Think what 'e's been,
> Think what 'e's seen,
> Think of his pension, an'
> Gawd save the Queen!"

—'The Love of an Uncrowned Queen,' by Mr. W. H. Wilkins (Chicago: H. S. Stone & Co.), is a book with a melodramatic title which does not altogether belie the contents. Mr. Wilkins publishes two thick and profusely illustrated volumes on the loves of Königsmarck and Sophie Dorothea. At the time when these began, the lady was married to George Louis of Hanover (who afterwards became George I. of England) and was the mother of two children, George Augustus (afterwards George II.) and Sophie Dorothea (afterwards Queen of Prussia and mother of Frederick the Great). She was divorced, owing to her relations with Königsmarck, before her husband succeeded Queen Anne, and accordingly she never bore the royal title. During the later years of her life she was kept in guarded seclusion at the Castle of Ahlden, though she was not imprisoned in *lettre de cachet* style. Save for three facts, the case would never have assumed any historical proportions beyond those of the commonplace court *liaison*, since simply as lovers Königsmarck and Sophie Dorothea do not reach the level of Abelard and Héloïse. The reasons referred to are the assassination of Königsmarck, the divorce and forced retirement of Sophie Dorothea, and the mission of Aurora Königsmarck to the court of Augustus the Strong—a mission fruitless on her brother's behalf, but resulting in the birth of that great warrior, Marshal Saxe. The celebrity of Sophie Dorothea's children and grandchildren may also have added to the general interest in her career. At any rate, a large number of books, mostly very poor, have been written on it. Mr. Wilkins's ground of excuse for reopening the subject is that he has been to the University of Lund in Sweden, where the letters exchanged between the lovers are preserved, and has made a careful examination of them in the light of Hanoverian history. With the exception of Palmblad, a professor at Upsala, who used a portion of the correspondence fifty years ago, no author seems to have handled the letters themselves, or to have compared them critically with other available information. On imperfect grounds, and largely because Palmblad presented a few letters in garbled form, the authenticity of the whole correspondence has been doubted. Thus, Dr. Adolf Köcher declared against it in Sybel's *Zeitschrift*. However, says Mr. Wilkins, he never saw the documents, and based his opinion merely on a misleading and mutilated version. We cannot discuss the question in detail, but we may state that Mr. Wilkins makes out a good prima-facie case for the letters by comparing the allusions which they contain to petty events at the Hanoverian court with the witness of English Ambassadors, notably with the entry-book of Sir William Dutton Colt. Whether original or spurious, the letters are poor compositions, and any value which they possess is due to their connection with a *cause célèbre*. As for the whole work, we must call it an unusual mixture of historical research with florid writing. Mr. Wilkins has a good knowledge of Hanover and its princes, but he is too much inclined to write in this strain: "A queen, though never acknowledged, a queen though always a prisoner, a queen though never crowned—truly, a queen of tears."

—The lead, in bulk, of the second series over the first of the great 'Index-Catalogue of the Library of the Surgeon-General's Office, U. S. A.,' which was manifest in the fourth volume, has been maintained in the fifth (Enamel-Fyuner). In the corresponding first-series volume, a part of the letter H was included. The additions continue to be by no means wholly in recent literature of book and periodical. The oldest medical works are still sought for, with a frequently surprising wealth of parallel editions in many languages, as may be seen under Fabricius, Hildanus, Falcutius, Ficinus, etc. New rubrics appear, as, Faith-cure, unknown to the first series, though the Library has now acquired 'A Narrative of the late extraordinary cure wrought in an instant upon Mrs. Eliz. Savage (lame from her birth), without the using of any natural means. With the affidavits which were made before the Right Honorable the Lord Mayor . . . Enquired into, with all its circumstances, by noted divines. . . . With an appendix, attempting to prove that miracles are not ceas'd' (London, 1694). There is, by the way, another 'Enquiry,' "about the lawfulness of eating blood, occasioned by revelation examined with candour," etc., "by a prebendary of York" (London, 1733). Friends of the inheritance tax (as applied to others) will take satisfaction in the 'Essay on Death-Bed Charity,' contemporaneous with the foregoing (London, 1728), "proving that great misers giving large donatives to the poor in their last wills is no charity." For the rest, the perennial topics demand most space in this volume—Fevers filling 225 pages; the Eye, 78; Epilepsy, 36. Under Epidemics, there is a notable array of titles illustrating the history and statistics of epidemics by places. So proceeds one of the greatest of modern enterprises in this line.

—The question whether Greek is an absolute prerequisite for a professional education or not, has in recent months become a burning one in Government and educated circles in Germany. Surface indications all go to show that the language of Homer and Plato is being sadly crowded to the wall, and that its advocates are on the defensive. At the Educational Conference held some months ago in Berlin, called together by the State officials for the purpose of revising the course of the Prussian gymnasia, the study of Greek would have been entirely eliminated from the course as a *sine qua non* for entrance to full university privileges and graduation with degree, and that, too, by the vote of university and gymnasia men themselves, if the friends of the cause had not agreed to a compromise. The Berlin philologian, Prof. Wilamowitz, was appointed to submit to the authorities and to the educational world plans for an adjustment of the study of Greek to the ideas of the times. This he has now done, in connection with a new Greek chrestomathy, which he offers as a means of arousing a deeper interest in the study. The author is of the opinion that false methods in teaching are solely responsible for the opposition now so widely manifested, even in Germany, towards the Greek language. He suggests three radical changes, viz.: making Homer the first Greek author read, and reducing the Homer course of four years to two; the introduction of a chrestomathy for cursory reading with selections from the whole range of Greek literature; the limiting of philosophical prose to the last year of the gymnasium course. Incidentally, too, Wilamowitz objects to the monopoly of Attic Greek, and insists that all expression of Greek thought and life must have equal rights in the study of this language and literature. In making his selections for the chrestomathy he has acted in accordance with this principle. His proposals for reform have had a divided reception. The conservatives, of whom Paul Cauer, in the *Wochenschrift für classische Philologie*, is the main spokesman, protest against the innovation with indignation, regarding it as a mortal blow at the whole classical gymnasium system, while the progressive party, as is seen from a representative discussion in the *Beilage* of the Munich *Allgemeine Zeitung*, No. 230, applaud the proposals.

FORD'S WASHINGTON.

George Washington. By Worthington Chauncey Ford. 2 vols. Paris: Goupil & Co.; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1900.

The reverence which all Americans feel for the memory of Washington has to some extent disadvantageously affected his biographers. Solicitous to present him always clothed in a lofty and majestic greatness, they have made him something like a mythical hero; grand but indistinct, like a distant mountain. We welcome, therefore, a biography that undertakes to show us the real Washington—the plain Virginia farmer, only moderately well educated, neither brilliant strategist nor profound statesman, who, chiefly by force of *character*, became greater than a monarch, and one of the most august names recorded in history. Mr. Ford's careful and conscientious edition of Washington's letters, and the studies which it involved, have given him special qualifications for such a work. He has had an opportunity of studying Washington from all sides, and of being admitted to his confidence. Avoiding all temptations to superfluous comment or panegyric, and austerely rejecting unnecessary details, he keeps the reader's eye from first to last fixed upon Washington himself, the events of whose life are narrated with a simplicity and sobriety that bring the man before us as he lived.

In the portion of the narrative which deals with the military operations of the Revolution, this rigid self-restraint on the part of the biographer is especially noticeable, only so much being told as enables us to understand the position, acts, and motives of the Commander-in-Chief. Indeed, this austerity at times seems almost excessive, as when he tells us no more of the battle of Long Island than that "an engagement on the 27th [August] resulted in a defeat for the Americans." Surely a line or two might have been spared to the heroism of the Maryland and Delaware troops of Stirling's brigade, who sacrificed themselves to save the army, under Washington's own eyes. Again in the affecting case of Capt. Asgill (drawn by lot to be executed as an act of retaliation), had he mentioned that the King and Queen of France, touched by the agonized appeal of young Asgill's mother, interceded with Washington in his behalf, it would not only have heightened the interest, but have shown how Washington was enabled to yield to his natural feelings of humanity without appearing weak or unjust.

The careers of most men are determined for them by apparently slight chains of circumstance, and so it was in the case of Washington. But for the peculiar aversion in which his mother held the sailor's life, he would have entered the navy as a midshipman; but for the early death of his father, he would have been sent to England for his education, as his half-brothers had been. The Virginia schools at that time were poor enough, but he seems, by good fortune, to have found a capable teacher of mathematics. At least, he found one who could teach him surveying; and, in a country in process of settlement, where great allotments of land were being mapped, staked off, and subdivided, there was sure to be business for a surveyor. While still a boy, he was employed by Lord Fairfax to make some surveys of his lands on the upper Potomac, and, becoming thus to some extent a protégé of that territorial magnate, was brought to the notice of influential men as a young fellow who would do whatever he undertook to do, and do it faithfully.

Again, Lawrence, his elder brother, was a member of the Ohio Company, and much interested in the lands on that river, for which he anticipated a great future. When the far-reaching designs of the French on the great basin drained by the Mississippi and its affluents became apparent, Lawrence, no doubt, foresaw that the Ohio valley and its trade would soon have to be fought for; and, through his influence with the Governor and Burgesses, he procured George a commission as major of militia. So when the French began building forts, and orders came from England to Dinwiddie to notify them to desist, who so fit for the mission as Major Washington? It was true he could not speak French, but he could take an interpreter; and whatever the issue of the mission, he could be relied upon to bring back valuable information and perhaps sketch-maps of the unknown country. And thus the young soldier-surveyor was connected with the settlement of the great question whether North America was to be French or English.

His brief military service, and the affair with De Jumonville, though disastrous, taught Washington invaluable lessons. It was not merely that he heard bullets whistle and built a little fort. He gained knowledge of the country, of the Indians, and how to deal with them, and of the art of frontier warfare; and he acquired a decided taste for a military life. When Braddock came with his regulars, he had to rely on some one who knew the country, and Washington, who had just been over the ground, was naturally the man to whom he turned; so he placed him on his staff. Out of the catastrophe which followed, Washington was the only officer who emerged with increased reputation. When others lost their heads, and the commanding officer did not think himself safe anywhere west of Philadelphia, Washington kept cool, heartened the panic-stricken settlers, and put the frontier in a state of defence. When the war of 1756 broke out, men did not forget the young officer who kept calm amid the general terror and flurry, and who always knew what to do; and they made him Commander-in-Chief of the Virginia militia, and second in rank of all the provincial officers. But there was little left for him to do. Fort Du Quesne was abandoned, the war rolled to the far northeast, where the great controversy was settled for all time. Washington considered his military career at an end; he resigned his commission in 1758, settled down to the peaceful occupations of a planter, and closed one chapter of his life, which, as it turned out, was only the preface.

Seventeen years thus quietly passed away

er of his life, and the years in
usually mould their lives. From
twenty-six to that of forty-three,
n's mind was chiefly occupied with
ion of crops, reclaiming of waste
roving of stock, and other villatic
nd vexed with derelictions of lazy,
, or drunken overseeers. He had
ille a seat in the House of Burgesses,
es not seem to have taken a promi-
art in public affairs. The French
es being settled, there seemed not the
est probability that the quiet Vir-
planter, now well past the middle of
would ever again draw his sword, or
rge from the modest semi-obscurity of a
pectable country gentleman. He took
ne interest in public affairs, regretted the
amp Act, and was glad to hear of its re-
eal; was sorry that the Ministry were act-
ng so unwisely; regretted the tea-tax, and
oped that the non-importation associations
might bring Townshend and the rest to their senses. When the news came of the Boston Port Bill, and the more fiery spirits began to talk of an appeal to arms, he "went to church and fasted all day."

Events hurried on with dizzying rapidity. A congress of delegates from all the colonies was agreed upon, and Virginia elected her representatives. First was the distinguished Peyton Randolph, second was the eloquent Richard Henry Lee, and third was the pacific farmer of Mt. Vernon. Peace was still hoped for; but war—desired by some, deprecated by others—was seen approaching. At the Virginia Convention of 1775, when Patrick Henry was breathing war, and urgent for arming the militia, Washington remained silent, probably with gloomy forebodings. Lexington and Concord turned the scale. The second Congress resolved to organize an army; and, on the nomination of Thomas Johnson of Maryland, supported by John Adams of Massachusetts, Washington was appointed Commander-in-Chief of the Continental forces.

The choice must have puzzled many. We who have learned to look upon Washington as the natural chief, the man of men, are apt to forget that the men of that time could not know what we know. All but a few must have asked wonderingly, what it was that designated the Virginia farmer as worthiest of this high honor, as best fitted to assume this terrible responsibility. Not his brief military record, for that (though through no fault of his own) had been mostly associated with disaster. Not an illustrious lineage and powerful family connections, for he could not reckon back his own pedigree beyond the fourth degree, and did not know what part of England his American ancestor came from. Not his wealth, for, though he held much land, he was comparatively a poor man. Not his persuasive or enkindling eloquence, for he was slow and diffident of speech, and in public bodies usually sat silent. Not his fiery patriotism, for his moderate views and aversion to extreme measures must have seemed lukewarm to the impetuous Henry and the ardent Mason.

Some have supposed that the choice was due to the rivalries between more conspicu-
idates, and that Washington was
e"—a man of good
hom all

leading men in the country's councils as to suppose that they were guided by no higher motives at a crisis so momentous. We must believe that it was because not only his fellow-Virginians, but his colleagues in Congress, had learned to recognize in him qualities far beyond birth, fortune, or brilliant genius: the firm mind not veered by popular winds; the sober judgment that weighed well before deciding; an unhesitating devotion to right, and a constancy that no trials could shake.

The task before him was one of almost inconceivable difficulty. With no military experience beyond frontier warfare, and no experience whatever in organizing an army, he had to create the army of the continent, and plan regular campaigns. Of his major-generals there was hardly more than one who could give him the support he needed. His soldiers were raw recruits, without drill, and with hardly a conception of discipline, who were to be taught to hold their own against the solid columns of disciplined veterans led by experienced officers. The General was the servant of the Congress, and Congress the servant of the States; and Congress was distracted by petty rivalries and jealousies, while most of the States were dilatory and penurious, each anxious to place the burdens of the war on other shoulders. Whichever way he turned, he met with hindrance, if not downright opposition.

For the story of the war we refer our readers to the pages of Mr. Ford, who treats it from the biographical point of view, showing Washington as the central figure bringing order out of chaos, harmony out of distraction, and finally victory out of impending ruin. This accomplished and peace secured, Washington resigned his commission to Congress that had conferred it, and again retired to Mt. Vernon to spend, as he hoped, the remainder of his days in a private station.

This, however, was not to be. A Constitution had to be framed for the Federal Republic, and Washington's counsels could not be spared. Never were his moderation and balance of mind more needed. From the very first, two antagonistic views showed themselves, giving rise to the two great parties, which (under various names) have ever since divided the country. Hamilton and his followers believed that a constitutional monarchy was the best of all governments; and, while they did not advocate a monarchy for the United States, they thought that the nearer the government approached to it, the better. They profoundly distrusted the people; wished to see the government in the hands of men of property and intelligence, and the central power increased at the expense of the States and of the people. Given the substance of monarchy, the people might well be flattered with the name of a republic. The party of which Jefferson was the leader had an abhorrence of monarchy and dread of centralization. It had firm faith in the people; believed in the integrity of their motives; and thought that individual follies would neutralize each other, and the resultant action be certainly patriotic, and probably wise. Both parties saw that the reserved rights of the States were the barrier against empire; so to the one they were an obstruction to be removed, to the other a rampart to be defended. Each was too optimistic. Ex-
hown that wealth and intel-
mply disinterested

devotion to the public good; and it has also shown that the people may be foolish in masses, as well as individuals, and that patriotic millions may concur in what is the height of unwisdom.

Through this critical period, when jealousies, animosities, and conflicting interests so nearly wrecked the ship of state before it was fairly launched, Washington pursued a conservative course. He was not a partisan of either Hamilton or Jefferson, and his position as presiding officer of the Convention made neutrality obligatory. The Constitution once framed, he used all his influence to procure its adoption by the States. With the adoption came the unanimous choice of Washington as the first President of the United States.

Perhaps his trials in this position were greater than those he had undergone as commander-in-chief. Parties were fiercely hostile, and recrimination embittered controversy. Washington, who tried to conciliate and avoid extremes, was malignantly attacked, both privately and openly. The outbreak of the French Revolution produced dangerous divisions. The country had a warm and natural affection for France, but was that to extend to the furious mob that had beheaded, with atrocious cruelty, the king who had come to our aid, and was clamorous for the blood of Rochambeau and Lafayette? chivalrous D'Estaing, and —that seemed to be launched on a career which, if persisted in, would destroy not only civilized society, but the conditions which make civilized society possible? Happily for Washington, the scandalous behavior of Genet, the emissary of the Directory, furnished him with reasons for demanding his recall which even Robespierre approved. A treaty with England followed in due time.

Wearied with the labors and anxieties of eight years of office, Washington resolved to retire, and on March 4, 1797, he took a final leave of public life, and retired to Mt. Vernon, where he died on December 14, 1799.

Allusion has already been made to the growth of a Washington myth, or at least a tendency to regard him as a partly allegorical personage. Probably nothing favors such a conception so much as his Presidential career, and the extreme difficulty one has in reconciling it with natural laws. A President who looks upon himself as the President of the whole people and not of his party only; who regards political services as not the chief recommendations to office; who weighs measures by their intrinsic merit and not by their probable influence upon the elections; who accepts a gift from his native State only on condition that he may devote it to a public use—such a President now seems naturally to belong to the realm of allegory or poetic
dream, like Buddha or Zarathustra. The re-
viewer himself has felt this impression a
times very strongly, and acknowledges
debt to Mr. Ford for placing Washingt
once more on the firm ground of reality

There are a very few slight slips in
book, such as 1759 for 1659 (i., 15), and "
in-law" for "grandson" (ii., 185); but
are quite unimportant. Perhaps it is
the manes of Edward Prescott to
one statement. Mr. Ford says (i., 1
Prescott, being captain of a vessel
on the high seas, ordered a suppos
to be hanged to placate the elemen
he was tried for this murder in

and that the result is not known. The whole trial is on record. Prescott proved that he was not the master of the ship, and that he had withstood and protested against the atrocity. No witness appearing against him, he was discharged.

The two volumes are, in all respects, exquisite specimens of the book-making art; and the illustrations, especially the tail-pieces to chapters, are of extraordinary delicacy and beauty.

ROSEBERY'S NAPOLEON.

Napoleon; The Last Phase. By Lord Rosebery. Harper & Brothers. 1900.

The quarter-deck of the *Bellerophon*, Paul Delaroche's picture of the Emperor in his garden, *la politique de Longwood*, the multiplied precautions of Sir Hudson Lowe, O'Meara's 'Voice from St. Helena'—these are the things with which the thought of Napoleon as a captive in British hands is popularly associated. Going a little farther, one meets with charges and counter-charges, the fabrications of Las Cases, the polemical and ponderous volumes of Forsyth, accusations of brutality on the one side and of plotting on the other. Like everything else relating to Napoleon, St. Helena has been an excuse for much writing and bitter recrimination. Ill-feeling was to be expected, but it alone will not account for the aridity which marks almost all the literature of "the last phase." We refer to the books based upon O'Meara, Las Cases, Montholon, etc., and not to the original sources, which are untrustworthy rather than dry. The St. Helena controversy has been barren because it has been so narrow, because it has been unable to rise above petty detail, and because it has been content to abide in abusive gossip. Now comes Lord Rosebery and strikes a new note. He has studied the minutest particulars, but he does not rest in them. He detaches the question of Napoleon's later years from a solitary rock in the tropics and brings it back to its proper affiliations.

When Lord Rosebery went out of office in 1895, he did not talk, like Thiers, of seeking refuge in his beloved books. Accordingly, he has produced something good for which he gave no promise. Besides delivering those occasional addresses which so delight the people of Great Britain, he has found time for hard and systematic reading. If he has personally investigated all the special points which he touches in this book, he has dug deeply and patiently. But what we have most in mind is his motive for taking up the closing part of Napoleon's career. It seems to be threefold. The subject is an old hobby, the recent publication of Gourgaud's journal has revived it, and, if we may read between the lines, Lord Rosebery does not wish the century to close without seeing some authoritative reparation made to France for the treatment which her most brilliant sovereign received from the British. We ascribe the last motive without express warrant and on the strength of a general impression, but the other two can be made out from the interesting passage which follows (p. 243):

> "To the present writer Lord Beaconsfield explained why he wrote *Count Alarcos*, a drama nearly, if not quite, forgotten. It was produced, he said, not in the hope of composing a great tragedy, but of laying a literary ghost. The story haunted him, and would, he felt, haunt him until he should have put it into shape. And so it is with this little book. It cannot help embodying a tragedy, but it was written to lay a literary ghost, dormant for years, only quickened into activity by the analysis of Gourgaud's last journals, and by stimulating leisure."

Lord Rosebery has always been praised for the shapeliness of his speeches, and he shows the same skilful modelling in whatever he writes, in his essay on Pitt and in this monograph on Napoleon at St. Helena. The essential matters are singled out, discussed according to their importance, and then dismissed. No irrelevant facts, however amusing, are admitted. The style is beautifully clear, and has the characteristics of clever, compact, and well-sustained conversation. Lord Rosebery writes as one who has had much experience in holding the attention of large audiences. He writes, too (if we may use an analogy which will recall happy memories to more than one of our readers), in the same eager and animated way that the late Mr. Ropes talked about Napoleon. The satirical touch is not wanting, and is playfully directed against almost every one in turn. But, like Holmes, Lord Rosebery is on his guard against being as funny as he can. Until towards the last, where he becomes deeply serious, there is no page which lacks its little quip or its witty adjective; yet it is something very different from levity which gives tone to the book.

The first three chapters are devoted to a statement and criticism of the sources. Napoleon had four personal companions at Longwood, and all but one of them have left memoirs. Las Cases, Montholon, and Gourgaud do not tell the same story, and they were tormented by mutual jealousies, but what they have written furnishes the staple of our information about the Emperor in his second exile. Bertrand alone, the Grand Marshal and the survivor who placed Napoleon's sword upon the pall at the interment in Paris, kept a dignified silence. Antommarchi, O'Meara, Lady Malcolm, with the spurious book of Santini, come in at the tail of the procession. The evidence in favor of Sir Hudson Lowe is contained in the three volumes of Forsyth.

Among these biographers Las Cases, the most detailed, and Gorgaud, the most sincere, are the outstanding ones. Lord Rosebery enhances the value of Gourgaud at the expense of Las Cases. The latter is a convicted forger of documents which seek to justify Napoleon's action at certain doubtful points in his career. He throws the blame for the Spanish catastrophe on Murat, he interpolates spurious letters to Bernadotte and the King of Holland, he produces a dispatch which discovers the motive of the Russian expedition to have been a reconstruction of Poland. Las Cases has been caught cheating so often that his evidence must be deemed suspicious whenever it is unconfirmed. Gourgaud, on the contrary, wrote not for Europe, but for himself. His journal was not published either after Napoleon's death, when any book with a semblance of truth enriched its author, or during the Bonapartist revival of 1840-1850. It appeared only two years ago, and its unflattering revelation of Gourgaud's own foibles is pretty clear proof that he meant it for private use. Its chief merit is that it reveals a new side of Napoleon—the good-nature and patience which he showed towards the most thorny and impossible of his attendants.

This examination of authorities amounts to a preface. The bulk of the book is devoted to three subjects: the relations between the British Government and Napoleon arising out of the captive's custody; Napoleon's life at Longwood, and the thoughts with which his later days were filled; and finally, his character considered in the light of his whole career. The first of these three topics seems to us to be handled less successfully than the other two. We shall not deny for a moment that Napoleon was treated in a very narrow spirit by Liverpool, Castlereagh, and their colleagues. A needless lack of magnanimity was shown in withholding the imperial title, and the fine sentiments which the Czar professed were not in the least shared by the British Government. But while Lord Rosebery places the real responsibility where it belongs, and speaks severely about Downing Street, he lessens the force of his criticism by putting Sir Hudson Lowe in the pillory. His chapter on Lord Bathurst should have preceded that on the deportation. Without insisting that Lowe did as well as could have been done under the circumstances, we think him unduly abused. He had no tact, and Lord Rosebery cannot forgive him because he asked "Gen. Bonaparte" to meet "the Countess" (Lady Loudon) at dinner. His excessive vigilance, too, may be laughed at now, but, remembering that Napoleon's wars had cost England £800,000,000 and Europe 2,000,000 lives, it was reasonable for an officer in the discharge of his duty to err on the safe side. Lord Rosebery urges that Napoleon was past his prime at Waterloo, and could have given little trouble thereafter, but such a theoretical view could have had no just weight with Lowe. He was a pedant, destitute of humor, but, having accepted a dreadful responsibility, he thought of nothing else, day or night, except his charge. He showed a good deal of forbearance, and received less thanks than his conscientiousness deserved.

Life at Longwood must have been almost as dull to Napoleon as to his suite. Gourgaud is always writing in his journal: "Ennui, Grand Ennui, Mélancolie." "Here," says Lord Rosebery, "is a week's sample record: 'Mardi, 25, Ennui, Ennui! Mercredi, 26, idem. Jeudi, 27, idem. Vendredi, 28, idem. Samedi, 29, idem. Dimanche, 30, Grand Ennui!' Again, 'J'étouffe d'Ennui.'" One might suppose that it would have been even worse with the Emperor, but probably this was not the case. He knew that he would get full credit for martyrdom, and that his sufferings would accrue to the benefit of his son. The King of Rome was constantly before his mind. He had longed to found a dynasty; and the feeling that he was helping forward this cause probably gave him some crumb of comfort.

However monotonous the daily routine at Longwood was, Lord Rosebery does not let it make his book monotonous. We pass by the account of Napoleon's amusements, his gardening with the help of coolie labor, his shooting of goats, bullocks, and other tame animals, his games of billiards and *reversi*. His reading, whether to himself or aloud, his writing, whether dictated by daylight or in the dead of night, and his conversations are the matters to which one turns with the greatest curiosity. In our own generation we have had an object-lesson which recalls Napoleon at St. Helena—Bismarck retired to Friedrichsruh with his energies unabated, and with more years in store for him than Napoleon had when he was forced to withdraw from the world. In volubility the Emperor anticipated the Chancellor. Lord Rosebery weeds out a good deal of the rhodomontade which his companions set down because they thought it sounded well and was what he ought to have said. He talked, not always seriously, upon serious subjects—war, national character (a favorite topic with Bismarck), and religion. Perhaps the most valuable passages which can be gleaned from his table-talk are those relating to his great historical exemplars, Alexander of Macedon and Frederick of Prussia. To the first he owed an incentive; to the second a recent lesson in what could be done against odds, although he thought Frederick a less able general than Turenne.

Lord Rosebery throughout provides much lively writing and much appropriate detail, but the essential part of his book is contained in the last fifty pages. We refer to the chapters on "Napoleon and the Democracy" and "The End." The closing chapter is the longest, and it assumes the nature of an historical portrait. Lord Rosebery would admit with perfect frankness that, as an expert in Napoleonic literature, he has not traversed the ground which M. Vandal and M. Houssaye have so thoroughly explored. Still the world at large will take more notice of his judgment upon Napoleon than it would pay to a character sketch by M. Vandal or M. Houssaye. Lord Rosebery has been Minister of Foreign Affairs and Prime Minister. He may be either or both again. Accordingly, one reads a paragraph like this with more than academic interest:

> "And so they may obliterate the eagles and the initials if they will; it avails nothing. France, in chill moments of disaster, or even of mere material and commercial well-being, will turn and warm herself at the glories of Napoleon. The atmosphere is still imbued with the light and heat of the imperial era, with the blaze of his victories, and with the lustre of those years when Europe was the anvil for the hammer of France."

Lord Rosebery furthermore calls the memory of this period "a symbol, as monumental and visible as the tomb in the Invalides, to stimulate the national ambition." When a politician in the first rank implies that France still cherishes a strong hankering after military glory, the words have another meaning than that which they would bear on the lips of an ordinary historical essayist.

Judging him by the standard of sheer capacity, Lord Rosebery raises Napoleon to a height beyond which the enthusiasm of the devotee could hardly soar. "He carried human faculty to the farthest point of which we have accurate knowledge." "Till he had lived, no one could realize that there could be so stupendous a combination of military and civil genius, such comprehension of view united to such a grasp of detail, such prodigious vitality of body and mind." "No name represents so completely and conspicuously dominion, splendor, and catastrophe." These are not new ideas, but it is interesting to find that Lord Rosebery reiterates in prose the sentiment of Victor Hugo's ode—

> "Tu domines notre âge; ange ou démon, qu'importe!
> Ton aigle dans son vol, haletant, nous emporte."

Nor is the tone of admiration much softened by what follows: "He raised himself by the use, and ruined himself by the abuse, of superhuman faculties. He was wrecked by the extravagance of his own genius. No less powers than those which had effected his rise could have achieved his fall."

Lord Rosebery has written a clever, forcible sketch of Napoleon's end, and his own reflections have a double claim to the attention which they will receive.

PERUGINO.

Pietro Vannucci, called Perugino. By George C. Williamson, Litt.D. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 1900.

This latest volume of the series of "Great Masters in Painting and Sculpture" is by the editor of the series and the author of the volume on Luini, already favorably reviewed by us. From him we expect a thoroughly sound and scholarly work, and even slight slips become worthy of comment. He must, therefore, pardon us if, before considering his attitude towards Perugino as man and artist, we point out one or two instances of careless or confused writing which seem to us regrettable. The error by which the "Beckford Altarpiece" is given as the "Schiavone Altarpiece" is set right by an "Erratum," inserted on a slip at the end of the "List of Illustrations," but this is evidently the only mistake noticed by the author-editor. Nearly as serious is that on p. 68, where the picture elsewhere correctly called the "Virgin in Glory," is spoken of as an "Assumption." The presence of the Christ-child in the picture should make such a description impossible. On p. 64 Mr. Williamson says: "In the Bologna picture we see the lovely figure of St. Michael, to which allusion has already been made when reference was made to the Certosa altarpiece," etc.; but there has been no such reference, and the Certosa altarpiece comes up first for discussion on pp. 67-8. On p. 61, in discussing the authenticity of the "Sposalizio" of Caen, Raphael's discipleship to Timoteo Vite is apparently taken for granted. Yet on p. 82 the author finds "no distinct proof of the influence of Timoteo upon the young Raphael." The printer is probably partly responsible for the passage on p. 37, where Vasari's tale of the painter, the Prior, and the bowl of ultramarine is immediately followed by the sentences: "Pliny records a singular story about vermilion. Perugino's skies were painted with this color," etc. Mr. Williamson's word was most likely "similar," not "singular," but this correction would not remove the ambiguity of the following sentence, which is the more unfortunate as it is well known that skies were not infrequently laid in with vermilion and washed over with ultramarine. But Mr. Williamson's gravest blunder occurs on p. 17, where it is said of the figures in a "Baptism of Christ" at Rouen: "They stand firmly and well balanced on their feet, the slight exaggeration of one of St. John's feet being due to an accurate understanding on Perugino's part of the distortion apparently given to the limb by its being below the surface of the water." The assertion that any painter of the fifteenth century observed or rendered the distortion caused by immersion is so startling that one immediately turns to the reproduction of the picture for confirmation, only to find that one of John's feet is certainly high and dry on a rock, and that the other is apparently so; the only feet in the water being those of the Christ. It might be to one of these that Mr. Williamson is referring, but on pp. 43-4 it is stated of this and two companion pictures that "in each picture a strip of the foreground which was damaged in transit had to be restored," and that in the Baptism "the damage is serious, as the foreground strip includes the feet of Our Lord and one foot of the Baptist." Thus the only foot of the four which is not a restoration is the one that is certainly not in the water.

These are the only errors we have noticed, and though they are regrettable, they are not numerous enough to destroy the character of the book as a workmanlike study. We do not agree with Mr. Williamson in his estimate of Perugino's art or character, but these are matters of opinion and the force of evidence, and Mr. Williamson's opinion is more nearly that generally accepted than is our own. The book would hardly have been written had not the author a very great admiration for the art of Perugino, and it is natural that that admiration should incline him to a defence of the artist's personal character. What we shall have further to say is therefore not in the nature of fault-finding, but of argument against argument, and our own argument is on the unpopular side.

What is to be explained about Perugino is the seeming contradiction that his art has always been accepted as pietistic and religious, while the man has been set before us by Vasari as irreligious and avaricious, or, as Berenson puts it, "an atheist and a villain." People find that the pictures of Perugino evoke the religious emotion in them, and they cannot believe that this is possible unless the man himself experienced religious emotion. How, then, explain the character drawn for us by Vasari? The general method is that adopted by Mr. Williamson, and is like that other well-known solution of an insoluble problem—"The boy lied." It is so much the fashion nowadays to contradict Vasari that critics find it very easy to assume that he was wrong, though the proof they may bring against him be of the slightest. Let us see how it is done in this instance. The charge of avarice is simply ignored. The defence against the charge of irreligion is in two parts. The first part is, as far as it goes, a fair argument. After Perugino's death, his sons "entered into a contract with the monks of San Augustino, who were still in their father's debt 50 scudi, that they should remove his body from Fontignano and bury him in their church, and the sons agreed to pay for the Mass. Mariotti says that there was in his time no proof that that ever was done; but, says Mr. Williamson, "the very fact of the contract proves that nothing could be said to the discredit of Perugino's life or character, and refutes idle rumor as to his atheism." Two pages later we have again: "His employment by the Church, not only by the Chief Pontiff, but by numerous dignitaries and by many religious orders, and the arrangement just mentioned and entered into by his sons as to his burial, sufficiently refute Vasari's statements." The second part of the defence is that "it is inconceivable that such pictures as the Pazzi 'Crucifixion,' the San Severo 'Deposition,' the Vallombrosan 'Assumption,' to name but three typical ones, could be painted by an

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 27, 1900.

The Week.

The Joint Note to China, which has at last been signed, has most unfortunate specifications. They are what the State Department had led us to expect the American Minister could not possibly put his name to. Indeed, it is explained now that Mr. Conger muddled a cablegram in the translation, and insisted with zeal upon terms which he was, in fact, ordered to oppose. Then, in a fit of desperation, the Department decided to back him up in what he had blunderingly done. This seems an odd kind of diplomacy—to feel bound by the mistakes of your subordinates. However that may be, we see in the Joint Note none of the things for which the United States was supposed to be standing out. We have signed an ultimatum couched in as extreme language as has ever been proposed, unless exception should be made of the demand for "the severest punishment" of the guilty officials, in place of the original call for their heads outright. But the interdiction of arms and forts, the insistence upon "military occupation of certain points, to be determined by an understanding among the Powers," the demand for new commercial treaties "considered useful by the foreign Powers," and the stark announcement of an intention to stay in Pekin and the adjoining provinces until the Chinese Government has done everything "to the satisfaction of the Powers" —all this is a sheer disregard and practical extinction of Chinese sovereignty. We are thankful that at least the hypocrisy was not indulged in of saying anything more about "the integrity of the Chinese Empire." Not a word about that or about the open door appears in the Note. And if, in addition to yielding these American contentions, we are going to do our part in that military occupation to which we have assented, the troops which we withdrew will have to be sent back at once. Where they are to come from, Heaven knows; Root and Corbin certainly do not.

Gen. MacArthur continues to be the *enfant terrible* of the Philippine question. With appalling frankness he blurts out truths which the Administration at Washington and the Commission in Manila compass sea and land to conceal. To Judge Taft, in particular, that prophet of smooth things, it must be like a blow in the face to have the military Governor-General bluntly admit, in an official proclamation, that Manila itself is the "rendezvous of the emissaries of insurrection." Where does this leave the cocksure preëlection predictions of Roosevelt, Root, Schurman, and the rest? Looking very like exploded humbugs. Instead of that general crawling of the Filipinos to the feet of the invincible McKinley which we were to see immediately following Republican success at the polls, we now discover that the islands are more disaffected than ever, that they are honeycombed with insurrection, and that the revolt has become so pervasive as to compel Gen. MacArthur to begin operations against even non-combatants.

Coming to the details of this latest Philippine proclamation, we find it threatening to treat the insurgents as "fugitive criminals"—that is, bandits to be shot on sight or hung without trial if captured; to try as "traitors" even "well-disposed persons" in places "where secret committees are permitted to exist on behalf of the insurgents"; to accept no "pleas of intimidation" from non-combatants who have been forced to contribute to the insurgent cause; and, finally, to deny the "privileges of prisoners of war" to all rebels in arms who are not "part of an organized force." It will be left, of course, to the American officers to decide what is an "organized force," and it is clear that what is contemplated is a reversion to the fine old Spanish practice of standing prisoners up against a wall and shooting them as soon as taken. So we see that the good McKinley's breathings of grace, mercy, and peace to the Filipinos work out into this policy of "Thorough," which may lead to our outdoing of Cromwell in Ireland or Alva in the Low Countries.

Mr. Phelps Whitmarsh, the correspondent of the *Outlook* at Manila, gives Gen. Otis a belated raking for saying that "the war in the Philippines is already over; the insurrection ended some months ago; there will be no more real fighting; there is no rebel army, nothing but guerrilla bands, ladrones, armed robbers, who prey on their countrymen," etc. That has a far-away sound, but Mr. Whitmarsh's comment is equally applicable to present conditions. What is meant by ladrones and armed robbers? he asks. Evidently we mean those who go through the country seizing property indiscriminately, and who are governed by no rules of civilized warfare. Now what do we see? A few days before the letter was written, one of these bands captured an American officer and ten enlisted men. Two of the latter were wounded. Instead of killing them or leaving them on the ground to die, the "ladrones" conveyed them to the nearest American garrison and delivered them up in order that they might receive proper medical attention. Another Filipino officer, Gen. Tecson, has recently released several American prisoners on parole. That there are some ladrones, however, is proved by the fact that the Filipino General, Cailes, captured seven of them, whom our troops had been vainly pursuing, and turned them over to the American commander for punishment. "Do these things," asks Mr. Whitmarsh, "look like the work of ladrones, which means thieves or bandits?"

As the obstinate love of independence threatens to bring to naught the most benevolent intentions of two powerful nations, Americans should be interested to know that their example in the Philippines is yielding great comfort to the Englishmen who have to defend their own cruelties in South Africa. Mr. Balfour has cited the American military regulations, and the exploits of our troops in Luzon, as a convenient precedent for farm-burning and the deportation of women and children in the Transvaal. Cruel civilizers, it seems, love company. Mr. Timothy Healy, on the other hand, speaking as one of those Irish members of Parliament who, in times past, have had the closest relations with America, and the warmest admiration for her, said in the Commons that Irish sentiment was opposed to the Boer war not simply because Irishmen were anti-English; they hated cruelty and oppression everywhere:

> "He believed the conduct of the Americans in the Philippines was more disgraceful, more abominable, and less excusable than the conduct of the British in the Transvaal. Unlike the Americans in the Philippines, England had some rag of justification for her action. He did not believe the conduct of English generals in the Transvaal had been as black and disgraceful as the conduct of the American generals in the Philippines. He had read of Catholic churches being desecrated, tabernacles desecrated, and the chalices of the natives pawned in the pawnshops of San Francisco. There were no such stories as those from the Transvaal, yet it was an unhappy omen, when the right honorable gentleman wanted to justify his policy, that it was to America in the miserable squabble with the Philippines he had to go."

Thus has Expansion first opened the eyes of the Old World to the true grandeur of the United States!

Argument closed on Thursday in two cases pending before the Supreme Court which involve the Constitutional aspects of the Expansion policy, but other cases involving the same issue are to come up in January, so that a decision is not to be expected for a number of weeks. There is naturally much speculation as to the probable attitude of the judges, based in part upon questions put by some during the argument, in part upon their political affiliations, and in part upon the probable sympathy of six of the nine with the two ex-Presidents who appointed them and who agree in opposing the contention of the Administration. All this is idle. The course of the court in declaring the Civil Rights Act unconstitutional and in sustaining State rights in the Virginia debt case, years ago, when nearly all the judges were Republicans, is warrant for the belief that politics will cut very little figure in the decision. Moreover, when the ruling of the court comes, the struggle will not be ended. If that tribunal should hold that the United States may do wrong, there will still be people who will insist that it shall not do wrong. The situation has been happily stated by the New Bedford (Mass.) *Standard*, when it says: "At the bottom we have the old struggle between 'man as a consumer' and 'man as a creation of God endowed with inalienable rights,' and no Supreme Court can ever decide that issue. That goes to the court of humanity, where Benjamin Harrison has just ably presented his view of the case."

The changes in the Army Reorganization Bill made by the Senate Military Affairs Committee show a gratifying disinclination on the part of that body to be stampeded into accepting the House hodge-podge by any warnings of the War Department as to what will happen if the bill is not passed within a day or two. As matters stand now, the bill will go over the holidays, and will probably not become a law until well into the month of January. The delay means greater difficulties for the War Department in the matter of raising, drilling, and transporting the new regiments, a more complete disorganization of the regular service as a result of the process of reorganization, and a probable retention of some of the present volunteers beyond the time of their enlistment, as was done in 1899 in the case of the original volunteers in the Philippines. But the army will profit greatly if the Senate amendments are adhered to, and from the point of view of the army's future they are well worth fighting for. The striking out of the provision for an opéra-bouffe corps of high-titled veterinarians, subject only to the orders of the Secretary of War, the reinsertion of Secretary Root's plan for staff and line transfers, a cutting-down of the wholesale increase in the staff departments proposed by the House, and the excellent provision to bar out volunteers and spoilsmen by prohibiting any more permanent appointments to the staff corps—all these changes are in the interest of efficiency, economy, and reform, as well as of advantage to the abused regular officer. The Senate should insist upon their retention.

The action of the Senate Military Committee in restoring to the Army Reorganization Bill the provision for a canteen in which beer, but not light wines, may be sold to soldiers, was not unexpected, in view of the strenuous efforts of the War Department officials in behalf of the institution, and of the recent and striking testimony in its favor of so distinguished a prelate as Archbishop Ireland and of other prominent people. If there are dissenting notes, such as the conscientious opposition of Col. A. S. Kimball, depot-quartermaster in this city, and of other officers, it must be said that an overwhelming majority of the army have asked for the retention of the canteen. This has had its effect, and although the opposition will seek to exert the same powerful influence which compelled the House to defeat the canteen provision by a one-sided vote, it looks now as if the Senate amendment had come to stay. According to such well-known supporters of it as Gen. Corbin, Gen. Theodore Schwan (from whom we elsewhere print a communication on this subject), Gen. J. M. Wilson, and a host of others, the canteen has brought with it greater contentedness on the part of the enlisted man, together with less drunkenness, less desertion, less sickness, and less temptation to immorality. It must be pointed out, however, that a true comparison with the decade previous to 1889 is impossible. Between that year and 1898 the army was concentrated in larger posts near the great cities, and there was an immense improvement in morale and discipline, as the younger officers gradually took the places of much deadwood forced upon the service by the reorganizations of 1866 and 1870; and this improvement had no connection with the canteen. Practice marches and more frequent drills were instituted. The construction and garrisoning of Eastern posts brought the army more and more into contact with the public in the large cities, to which it had been hitherto unknown. The resultant benefit to officers and men from these changes was well shown at Santiago on July 1 and 2, 1898. The time-worn adage as to Satan, mischief, and idle hands, has a special significance for "single men in barracks," and it is significant that there is little anxiety about wholesale drunkenness in the German army, where men work, day after day, from four A. M. until six P. M., or until ready to drop from a wholesome fatigue.

If the recommendations of the Naval Board of Construction are adopted, Cramp & Sons will receive contracts for the construction of one more battle-ship and of two large cruisers at a cost of $10,370,000. We sincerely hope that Secretary Long will not be so hard-hearted as to refuse this insignificant tit-bit to this struggling firm, which has labored against such overwhelming odds to hold its workmen together. So far it has been able to employ only 7,500 men, and its yards at present are constructing only two battle-ships, one cruiser, and five large steamships of some 44,000 tons, while its list of vessels constructed for the new American navy comprises only some fifteen or twenty names, from dynamite cruiser to battle-ship. It may even be that the award of this contract might prevent the Cramps from building any more war-vessels for Russia, Turkey, and Japan. We have been waiting in vain for some truly American Senator or Congressman to denounce this un-American and sordid policy of supplying possible enemies with Philadelphia-built war-ships to use against our *Alabamas* and *Oregons*, but it may well be the best policy to keep the Cramps so busy with our own ships that they will be compelled to decline to receive Russian gold. Here is another striking argument for the Ship-Subsidy Bill which we have not yet seen mentioned. At least, this new contract may help to tide the Cramps over their present hard times until the Ship-Subsidy Bill comes to their rescue.

The recent joint convention of delegates from Oklahoma and the Indian Territory brought out much enthusiasm for common Statehood. What appeared most clearly was this, that conditions in the Indian Territory are rapidly becoming intolerable, and that the situation cries urgently for relief. The temporary Chairman of the convention described most strikingly the condition of a population exceeding 400,000, in an interregnum as wards of the nation, subject to the jurisdiction of Indian agents and inspectors. He said that there were more than fifty thousand children of school age, and no schools; cities, towns, and villages, and little or no law for the protection of the population thereof; mills, factories, and mines, and no roads to reach them; rivers to cross, and no bridges; deaf, dumb, blind, and insane, and no asylums. Their cities, he continued, might be ravaged with fire, and there was no law that allowed them to protect themselves. Contagion might rage and sweep the people of their towns from the face of the earth, and the laws were inadequate to offer any protection. The insane, he added, were chained in their lowly cabins like wild beasts in cages; the boys and girls were being educated in crime, and discharged inmates from the penitentiaries of the bordering States found an asylum in the Indian Territory. There may well be some little rhetorical exaggeration in this bill of wrongs, but does it not suggest at least that spreading the benefits of our civilization may be practised at home?

Nearly all decent people in New York were long ago convinced that Col. Asa Bird Gardiner was an unfit man to hold the office of District Attorney, or any other office in city, State, or nation. In view, however, of the precedent set by Gov. Roosevelt himself only three months ago, in the case of the charges preferred by the City Club, the public naturally inferred that the more recent charge against Gardiner, that he had given countenance to Devery's riot-provoking order just before the last election, would be likewise dismissed, with perhaps a reprimand. It was with great astonishment, therefore, that the community learned on Sunday that all but one of the fresh charges had failed, and that the Governor had removed Gardiner from office for a newspaper interview which he (Gardiner) denied that he had ever given. The interview purported to sustain Devery and to censure the grand jury for indicting him. It was very much like Gardiner to give such interviews, yet it is also the habit of a certain class of newspaper reporters to exaggerate and even manufacture such interviews, and to publish matter which the person interviewed intended as a private communication. That the Governor should have removed an elective officer on such grounds is really astounding. The wonder grows when we reflect that the Governor chooses such an act as this to signalize his own retirement from office. His term comes to an end next Monday.

William J. Youngs, private secretary to Gov. Roosevelt, has just been exposed as a party to a successful scheme to refuse the contract for building a State armory to the lowest bidder and give it to a higher bidder for purely political reasons. When the local Republican leaders found that a Democrat had offered to build the Medina armory on such terms that he ought to get the job, and appealed to the State boss to prevent this because "we need that armory to handle here in the politics of this county," Platt wrote to Youngs that he regarded the result sought "as of considerable political consequence"; that he thought Youngs, "being on the ground, and presumably having relations with the officials concerned, can find a way to accomplish it"; and that he "would like to have you do what you can in the interest of these gentlemen"—two Republicans whose bid was several hundred dollars higher than the Democrat's. Youngs acted immediately in accordance with this request. He saw one member of the Armory Board which would decide the matter, and secured his promise to do all that he could; agreed to see a second member the next morning; and wrote to Platt that the third was a Democrat, and that "I do not know whether you can reach him through Kreidenheimer or not." It needs no argument to show that such conduct on the part of the Governor's secretary is highly improper, and that there is only one way in which to treat it.

The death of ex-Gov. Roger Wolcott is a loss not only to Massachusetts, but to the country. He was an admirable example of the man who uses his education, standing, and wealth in the service of the public, displaying that robust sense of obligation to the community which characterized his ancestry, and the survival of which is the most hopeful augury for the future. He came naturally to the Governorship after repeated elevations from lower offices, and he was an Executive in whom the Bay State felt a justifiable pride. He possessed a person of such dignity and attractiveness as made him look the Governor, while he combined with the charms of courtesy such conscience and such strength of character as made him always ready to stand forth in defence of principle. The iron hand of the veto power was within the velvet glove, and the Legislature repeatedly felt its force, to the great service of the State. Mr. Wolcott was public-spirited and generous in every relation, and his death puts an end to a long list of gifts to charitable, educational, and progressive movements of various sorts. It is very hard to have such a man removed in his prime, when he should long have served as a model for our educated youth.

The Federation of Labor in its annual convention has declared unanimously against any form of compulsory arbitration, and in so doing has apparently accepted President Gompers's view of the matter. It is, he believes, another invention of well-intentioned but uninformed persons, of faddists, and of schemers to corrupt the principle of arbitration into a policy of coercion by playing upon the credulity of labor—not properly a scheme of arbitration at all, but one for invoking the power of the State to deprive wage-earners of their inalienable right to quit work. This declaration of policy on the part of organized labor is significant in view of the efforts which have been recently made for the creation of a National Board of Arbitration in certain industries. It is an evidence of the very general suspicion entertained by labor, in this country, of any sort of State interference or regulation. Neither employers nor employees appear to favor any plan of compulsory arbitration.

The old question as to the nature of a man's craft or trade came up again in the convention, and served as a subject for bitter speech-making and wrangling. The Knights of Labor, years ago, attempted to solve the problem by refusing to recognize any trade distinctions whatever—a laborer was a laborer, not a baker nor a candle-stick maker, and for a time this theory prevailed. But the trade spirit was too strong, and separate organizations still flourished. The question before the Federation involved the right of these single unions to determine who is eligible for membership. The brewery workers, for instance, are keen upon forcing brewery engineers and firemen to join their organization, but these engineers and firemen have organizations of their own respective crafts. Again, as machinists, those who attend the linotype machines should join the International Association of Machinists, but as printers they should of course join the International Typographical Union—the dispute as to which they should in fact join has lasted for four years, during which time all suggestions that the matter be arbitrated have been rejected. The recent convention, nevertheless, resolved that such questions should be submitted to the Executive Council of the American Federation for adjustment, and so the matter stands. Whether or not the unions involved in the dispute will act upon the suggestion remains to be seen.

No wonder that the Under-Secretary for War, Mr. Brodrick, sang in a minor key when laying the supplementary estimates before Parliament. He had to confess that the South African war, of which the cost was reckoned at the beginning as only $50,000,000, had already swallowed $500,000,000; and whereas the jaunty holiday march on Pretoria was to have been accomplished by 20,000 troops, in addition to the South African garrisons, no less than 270,000 men have had to take the field. Among these the losses have been appalling. Under the return, "killed or died of wounds," we have 11,000 men. As "wounded" are reported 13,000, while 12,000 more are "in hospitals in South Africa," presumably ill of typhoid and other diseases. Then there are 36,000 men who are grouped under the head, "returned to England, sick, wounded, or died on passage." In short, some 70,000 men killed, wounded, or disabled, in order to give 24,000 Outlanders a five-years' franchise, instead of a seven-years'! "Have we not seen the war fever before?" writes Mr. Goldwin Smith. "Did we not see it at its height at the time of the Crimean war, which is now universally condemned and deplored?" Even swifter must come the condemnation of the South African war, with its sacrifices doubly fearful because needless.

THE TREATY MUDDLE.

Granting the sincerity of the Senate in its action upon the Hay-Pauncefote treaty, we can only say that it has shown an extraordinary mastery of the art of how not to do it. Professing an ardent desire for the immediate construction of an Isthmian canal, the Senate has deliberately chosen to put the whole matter over for at least a year more. It was burning with impatience to abrogate the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, yet has gone ingeniously to work to make it more binding than ever. With loud pretence of friendly feeling for the Central-American republics, it has taken a step which can but excite their suspicions and fears in acute form.

What the British Government will do with the mangled treaty we do not profess to know. It needs no prophetic gift, however, to say that Lord Salisbury will take his time about it. If we have occupied eleven months in muddling the treaty, the English Foreign Office is entitled to at least three in passing upon our handiwork. That will mean the impossibility of any canal legislation during the present session of Congress. We are aware that Senator Morgan's latest report on the Hepburn bill advocates instant action without waiting to know, or caring, whether our solemn and acknowledged treaty obligations stand in the way. But it is incredible that the Senate will follow him in such headlong folly. If it should, the President would be bound to veto the Hepburn Canal Bill. He said last spring that he would, and his duty is unchanged by anything that has happened since. Hence, we say, the Senate has put it out of the range of probability that there will be any canal legislation at all during the session. It is not an enemy that hath done this, but the friendly Senate—the Senate which vows on every occasion that not a moment must be lost in beginning the work of connecting the oceans.

The indecency of trying to "supersede" the Clayton-Bulwer treaty in the way attempted by the Senate might well be remarked upon; but we prefer to dwell upon its fatuousness. We were in the position of one party to a contract, agreeing to modify it, in certain particulars, with the consent of the other. Then we coolly slip into the modification a notice that the whole contract is abrogated. That is surely not decent; nor is it even clever. We put ourselves absolutely in Lord Salisbury's power. He can keep us on tenterhooks, and with our hands tied, for a year, if he likes. He can then say, "I observe that you desire to void a contract existing between us. What consideration have you to offer? Will you give Canada a port on the Lynn Canal? What will you give? Of course, you mean to give something." Thus we should be thrust back to the beginning again, and the Clayton-Bulwer treaty left in full force meanwhile. This is what comes of being too sly. The way to abrogate the Clayton-Bulwer treaty is to negotiate directly to that effect, and the attitude of the British Government on this subject has always been that of the Earl of Clarendon in 1858, who then said that "her Majesty's Government would not decline the consideration of a proposal for the abrogation of the treaty by *mutual consent*." Snap judgment on one side is not mutual consent.

In striking for the abrogation of the whole treaty, including even those parts which bind the United States to make no acquisition of territory in Central America, the Senate has done its best to alarm the republics to the south of us. They can see in this action but a covert threat to their territorial integrity. Do not say that only a malicious Mugwump will suggest this. It was Mr. Blaine himself who, in November, 1881, wrote to Minister Lowell about this provision of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty:

> "If the United States should seek its annulment, it might give rise to erroneous and mischievous apprehensions among a people with whom this Government desires to be on the most friendly terms. The United States has taken special occasion to assure the Spanish-American republics to the south of us that we do not intend and do not desire to cross their borders or in any way disturb their territorial integrity, and we *shall not willingly incur the risk of a misunderstanding*, by annulling the clauses in the Clayton-Bulwer treaty which forbid such a step with respect to Central America."

Surely the oracles are dumb when a Republican Senate gives no heed to that voice!

We have been writing on the assumption that the Senate really meant its action to promote, not to retard, an interoceanic canal, and to solve the questions connected with it, instead of plunging them into hopeless confusion. But it is hard so to exalt its sincerity at the expense of its understanding. If they are truly the innocent Senators they pose as being, one could only compliment them, as Chesterfield once complimented the House of Lords, by assuring them that they might well thank God that it was not necessary for them to live by their brains. There may be a simple-minded remnant in the Senate which thinks that it has followed a wise and patriotic course; but the treaty muddle seems to us to be too studiously and artfully contrived not to have been the work of astute intelligence working craftily for that end.

In fairness, one word must be said about the President's part in the sorry business. If he had stood up like a man and a conscientious Executive for the treaty as it was originally framed, there is no doubt that it could have been ratified in that form. If he had shown one-tenth the firmness and patriotic conviction which Washington displayed when the Jay treaty was so vehemently assailed, he could have triumphed quite as easily as did the first President. But Washington took the duties of his office seriously. When he, as directed by the Constitution, "recommended" a measure to Congress, he did not indifferently throw it to the wolves, not caring in what shape it might emerge from their jaws, but exerted himself, and went behind the Senate and appealed directly to the people, in order to save a treaty of the highest public importance. Mr. McKinley prefers his ease. Under the form of carefully observing the Constitutional "division of powers," he waives the exercise of a part of the powers of the President, and allows the Senate to usurp or trample upon the rest. If we thus have a *roi fainéant*, we need not be surprised at having a do-nothing Congress. Muddled good-nature in the White House leads straight to such a calculated and malicious muddle as the Senate has now made of the Hay-Pauncefote treaty.

THE OLEOMARGARINE BILL.

Very little attention has been given by the press to the bill (H. R. 3717) which proposes to put a prohibitive tax on oleomargarine. This is an article of food manufactured from the fat of certain animals and the oil of certain vegetables. No sooner was the manufacture of this article started (some fifteen years ago) than the butter-makers became alarmed and went to the State legislatures demanding laws to overcome the competition of the rising industry. A great number of devices were resorted to for this purpose, under the police powers of the States. At first it was thought to be sufficient if the new article were marked and labelled with its own name, so that no package could be sold without giving notice to the buyer that it was not butter. Some of the labels required by State laws were ingeniously contrived to create prejudice in the minds of purchasers. Thus, one of the States prescribed the phrase "adulterated butter," and required this name to be inscribed on the package, and also to be placed on every dish containing it on a hotel table. A law of California required the words "substitute for butter" to be put on the packages, together with a list of the ingredients of which it was composed, and also a verbal notice to the buyer at time of sale. Connecticut requires, in addition to other notices of the character of the article, a sign to be displayed over the shop to let the public know that imitation butter is sold there. In Massachusetts hotel-keepers must notify guests if they use oleomargarine. Florida prohibits the sale of "any spurious preparation purporting to be butter." Most of these laws prohibited the use of coloring matter in oleomargarine, but one or two States required that the article should be colored pink. In short, all possible devices were employed to prevent the sale of oleomargarine, or butterine, or any article resembling butter, which was not made by churning milk.

In the course of time the public found out that oleomargarine was "good to eat," that it was a wholesome, palatable, and useful article of food. The consumers ceased to be deterred from using it by the labels, signs, and spoken words devised to alarm them. Many who had had experience of bad butter came to prefer oleomargarine because of its uniformly good quality. Moreover, the laws governing interstate commerce interposed many difficulties in the way of suppressing the traffic. So the butter-makers went to Congress and demanded a tax on oleomargarine, together with rigid inspection laws under officers of the internal revenue, on the pretence that the article was made of all sorts of deleterious stuff, including dead cats and dogs. Congress acceded to both these demands by putting a tax of two cents per pound on all articles made in imitation or semblance of butter, and established a system of inspection, while special taxes were levied on the manufacturers and dealers, both wholesale and retail. The total tax on oleomargarine under Federal law in the year 1899 was within a small fraction of $2,000,000.

Notwithstanding all these persecuting laws, both State and national, oleomargarine continued to grow in popularity. The quality, too, improved, and to this end the Federal inspection law was of some service, since it not only insured the purity of the article manufactured, but gave a sort of public certificate of its goodness. It has passed through all stages of trial, and now commands a market on its own merits. Professor Chandler of Columbia University says of it:

> "I have studied the question of its use as food in comparison with the ordinary butter made from cream, and have satisfied myself that it is quite as valuable as butter from the cow. The product is palatable and wholesome, and I regard it as a most valuable article of food."

Similar opinions have been expressed by professors of chemistry in the University of Pennsylvania, the Stevens Institute of Technology, Yale University, Cornell University, and other first-class authorities. Professor Atwater of the Agricultural Experiment Station at Washington says: "It contains the same ingredients as natural butter from cow's milk; it is perfectly wholesome and healthy, and has a high nutritious value."

All attempts to break down the character of oleomargarine and to prevent its sale having failed, the butter-makers have gone to Congress and demanded a tax of ten cents per pound on oleomargarine unless the makers will put it on the market without any coloring matter. Both butter and oleomargarine are colored yellow by the addition of anatto or some other substance which neither adds to nor detracts from the value of the articles as food, but merely pleases the eye of the buyer. Custom, habit, prejudice require that butter shall be golden in color, and this color is produced artificially both by the butter-maker and by the manufacturer of oleomargarine. All the agricultural newspapers and the dairy journals contain advertisements of such coloring compounds. It is assumed by the supporters of the bill now pending in Congress that if oleomargarine makers and vendors can be prevented from using coloring matter, they cannot sell their product, and thus their competition will be destroyed. This may be true, but the logic of this measure is that the strong arm of the Government is used to break down a legitimate and useful industry for the benefit of another, and at the same time to deprive the public of an article of food which has the advantage of being cheap as well as nutritious. The blow will fall with greatest severity on the laboring classes in cities, who will be deprived of an article of diet to which they are accustomed, and compelled to pay higher prices for a similar one. This is, at all events, the intention of its promoters.

It is needless to say that such a law is spoliation, and that the principle can be extended to the suppression of any other industry whenever a sufficient number of votes can be obtained. Cotton can suppress wool, wool can suppress silk, silver can suppress nickel, nickel can suppress aluminum, and so on through the whole list. We presume, however, that the bill will pass because the butter-makers have the votes. The day when bills were passed or defeated according to their merits has gone by. It may come again, but it is not the present day.

MR CLYDE ON SHIP SUBSIDIES.

Mr. Thomas Clyde, in a letter to the *Evening Post*, asks the opponents of the present Ship-Subsidy Bill to draft and present a better measure for the revival of our merchant marine before condemning the one now before Congress. "Revival of our merchant marine" belongs to a class of phrases condemned by Aristotle and all other writers on logic as *petitio principii*, or begging the question. It assumes a number of disputable points as being already proved. The phrase was introduced into our political jargon two or three years ago, when a tremendous effort was made to manufacture public sentiment in favor of subsidies. It assumes (1) that we now have no merchant marine; (2) that we ought to have one; (3) that the only way to get it is by Government subsidies; (4) that the men who are now lobbying for the Subsidy Bill at Washington are working for the revival aforesaid rather than for their own pockets.

All these propositions are disputable except the second. We agree that a merchant marine is desirable on condition that it supports itself and is not a burden on the taxpayers. We consider it a nuisance and a national curse if it depends on the public treasury; and this for a variety of reasons. It is state socialism on a large scale. It introduces fundamentally wrong ideas into the national life. It establishes a dangerous precedent. It prompts other industries, cliques, and sections to demand similar benefactions from the public funds. It makes the amount of the subsidy a matter of hugger-mugger between the beneficiaries and Congressmen, thus tending to corruption—witness the old Pacific Mail subsidy and its story of sin and shame. While we should be glad to see a merchant marine established if we had none, we should consider it a present affliction and a future danger if it were established in the way proposed.

Now as to the first example of *petitio principii*, implying that we have no merchant marine. If we have one now, it is deception to talk about "reviving" it. We only revive that which is dead. To show that we have a merchant marine now it is only necessary to point to the Clyde Line, which has been in existence for twenty or thirty years. Surely that line needs no physician. We have *some* merchant marine now, and the question is not of reviving, but of getting more. And this question brings another in its train, "What is the proper way to get more?" Before entering upon that inquiry, however, we shall call attention to the progress we are now making without the help of any subsidies. The report of the Commissioner of Navigation for the year 1899 furnishes unimpeachable testimony on this point in its opening paragraphs, viz.:

> "During the fiscal year ended June 30, 1899, American shipping industries shared in the general prosperity of the country, and the new fiscal year has opened with the promise of continued activity in our shipyards. . . . Our documented tonnage on June 30, 1899, was the largest since 1865. . . . Our tonnage of steam vessels registered for foreign trade is the largest in our history. . . . Our construction of steel steam vessels was greater than in 1891, or than in any year of our history."

This roseate view of our shipping interests continued throughout the year, and even grew brighter as the months rolled on. In his report for 1900, just published, the Commissioner says:

> "The fiscal year ended June 30, 1900, has

> been not only the most prosperous known to American shipping interests during recent years, but, measured by absolute, not relative, statistical standards, it has been the most notable year in the history of American shipping. The returns for the first quarter of the current fiscal year and reports on vessels under construction or contract give promise that the fiscal year ending June 30, 1901, will surpass even the remarkable record of the fiscal year just closed."

Such a picture of growth and prosperity would not, if left without explanation, be a very good argument for ship subsidies. The present Commissioner of Navigation, who has changed his views on the subsidy question since the McKinley Administration came in, accordingly hastens to show the gloomy side of it. "There is a reverse to these gratifying statements," he says. "During the last fiscal year American vessels carried the smallest *percentage* of our exports and imports in our history." This means that, although we are in a period of great prosperity as regards shipping and ship-building, the most notable year in our history, yet we need $9,000,000 a year for twenty years from the public Treasury for what? Not to enable our ship-owners or our ship-builders to do a good business, but to enable them to run a race with other countries! In the view of Commissioner Chamberlain, apparently, the ship-building business is so extremely meritorious that it ought to be promoted by public appropriations even when it is in affluent circumstances, because some other nation (Norway, for example) is doing more of it than we are.

The answer would seem to be that if little Norway is doing more shipping business than the great American republic, the reason probably is that Norway can find more profitable employment for her capital and labor in ships than in other things, while the reverse is true with us. It should be borne in mind, also, that large amounts of American capital are invested in foreign-built ships, the earnings of which go into American pockets, although in the statistics that Commissioner Chamberlain hurls at us they figure on the other side. The great and growing Atlantic Transport Company is one of this kind. It figures against us in Mr. Chamberlain's tables, but its net earnings mostly go to Baltimore. If it is so desirable that its tonnage statistics should be on our side, that change can be accomplished in a twinkling by passing a law admitting its ships to American registry. Such a law would cost nothing. It would not alter any existing facts, but it would marvellously change the looks of things. If the revival of our merchant marine is something to be prayed for, this is the cheapest and surest way to begin.

ENGLISH IN THE UNIVERSITIES.

The better organization of that part of our higher education which has to do with the study of our language and literature, is a task whose successful accomplishment is a matter of such immediate and practical importance that it cannot be long put off. There seems to be a growing conviction that this work should be the next step toward perfecting our educational system. In most other branches of learning which have a practical bearing on every-day life, education has availed itself of the results of modern science: yet here is one whose practical importance is unquestioned, but whose organization has stubbornly resisted all attempts to put it on a scientific basis. In the last twenty years the scientific study of English has furnished us with a standpoint which is as different from that of a few generations ago as is our modern notion of biology different from that of the seventeenth century; and scientific research has also contributed a great mass of organized knowledge that is now available for purposes of practical teaching. It is high time that these things were getting into our elementary education even. But various obstacles stand in the way, chief among which is the notion that the scientific study of English, being the study of a "modern language," must first dispossess classical study in order to win its place in educational curricula. President Hadley voiced this the other day in the following expression:

> "The marvellous grammatical system of Latin and Greek, coming to us in a foreign language, arrests our attention and makes teachers and scholars feel that it is something to be seriously studied. When we have a body of instructors who are ready to teach English with equal seriousness, and are able to suppress that vastly greater body who handle it mechanically or carelessly, then—and not till then—shall we be able to talk of superseding the classics in our educational system."

These sentences form the conclusion to a very one-sided statement of the practical importance of English in higher education—one-sided because it considers language merely as a means of communication, and therefore important only as a vehicle of expression.

But is it at all a question of the supersession of Latin and Greek? Either English is vital or it is not vital in our education. If vital, ought it not to be taught in the very best way we know how, regardless of other disciplines, whether effective or ineffective? Are we to admit that a vital discipline is to be taught in a way that is not serious, not scientific? Suppose that President Hadley had been speaking of economics, and had made the point that economics was of great significance to the proper conduct of our national life; and had then gone on to the conclusion that when a body of instructors arose who should be able to teach economic facts with seriousness and earnestness, we could talk about superseding history? Should we not have the right to answer: "It is not a question of superseding anything, it is a question of teaching a vital subject in a serious way; if the teachers of economics in institutions of higher learning cannot teach the subject with due seriousness, it is your duty and the duty of other university presidents to make your instructors teach the subject seriously, and to see that their teaching is effective in your university discipline, quite regardless of the side-issue as to whether economics will or will not supersede some other kindred discipline in your university curriculum"? In like manner have we not a right to ask our universities to teach English effectively, quite regardless of the question as to whether English will supersede Latin and Greek, or not?

This common notion that the question of studying English "seriously" is primarily one of superseding Latin and Greek, rests upon a wrong conception of English and its relation to our national life. The misapprehension is an easy one; for when our present methods are called in question, their most significant weakness lies in the fact that we study this living, constantly developing speech of ours as if it were a classical language whose standards of idiom were to be fixed by ultimate prescription and authority, and whose standards of literature were to be permanently established by a comparison with classic models. It is easy to pass on to the unwarranted conclusion that scientific English study is naturally antagonistic to classical study. Classical study is even now rapidly escaping from mediæval method, and very soon it will come about that the mediæval notions of the classics will be represented solely in our study of English. Latin and Greek are themselves not only permanent factors of culture which cannot be superseded in higher education, but they bear such intimate relations to English study that it would be inexpedient to supersede them if supersession were possible, and this proposed supersession should be resisted tooth and nail by the English student himself.

It would be unfair to overlook the value of President Hadley's frank and practical paper in the New York *Independent*, simply because there is contained in it this common misapprehension of the relation of English to other studies in our higher education. It would be equally unfair to place upon Yale in particular the onus of the admission that English is not seriously and effectively taught in our institutions of higher learning. But we certainly have the right to ask where are those serious-minded instructors of English that President Hadley speaks of to come from, if they do not come from the universities? We can not expect them to fall upon us like beneficent rain from heaven. They must be trained, and be trained by just such universities as the one that President Hadley is the head of, under the strong and effective guiding hand of liberal-minded, far-seeing men like President Hadley himself. And if English is once seriously and effectively taught as a general and necessary discipline in our best universities, the "marvellous" characteristics of its language and literature—characteristics whose "marvellousness" has already been frankly admitted by great Continental scholars—will not be long in striking the minds of earnest students; for these marvels of English belong in a far higher category than the marvels of classical inflection. We cannot afford to wait for revelation to unfold these things to us, when their perception depends only upon intelligent familiarity with the phenomena of English.

It is an unfortunate circumstance that none of the effective administrators of our American universities have made themselves distinguished primarily by their scientific knowledge of their native idiom and their native literature. Chemistry and the physical sciences have been represented by some of the most effective organizers in our educational history; theology and philosophy have likewise numbered between them some of our best college presidents; modern economics and modern classical studies can claim two of the youngest and most promising heads of universities; law and commerce likewise have had their share; but where is the American university that is directed by a president who has had a thorough and first-hand scientific knowledge of English? Each of these other subjects has at one time or another got its proper organization from the first-hand knowledge of the university president himself; modern English study, however, has so far had to depend for its proper place and organization in university curricula upon second-hand executive information and indirect executive sympathy. It may be that here lies the explanation of the presence of that body of incompetent English instructors which President Hadley laments—teachers who handle English mechanically or carelessly, teachers who teach English language and English literature off-hand and without previous preparation, teachers whose work for one reason or another makes no impression, or but feeble impression, upon university life. For surely the removal of such teaching is a question of university administration and executive action, and not a question of the development of higher popular ideals of English education. College presidents cannot expect inefficient and incompetent teachers to remove themselves, nor can they expect that English education will organize itself. Neither can they afford idly to wait for a supposedly possible supersession of Latin and Greek before "talking about" organizing the teaching of English so that this vital subject shall be presented with seriousness and effectiveness.

The whole problem is one of organization, and only awaits the coming of a man of strength and power who can gather together the scattered forces of scientific effort and make them practically effective to higher culture.

PERSISTENCE IN REFORM.

On reading the newspaper report of the proceedings of the Civil-Service Reform Association the other day, in which the Committee speak of the cause being still "in a dangerous condition," I could not help asking myself why, after thirty years of apparently successful agitation, "the cause," as it is called, has not achieved a complete triumph. One of the great difficulties, it seems to me, is that it has received little or no hearty adhesion from American public men. There are a good many in public life who refrain from open opposition to it, but how many active politicians give it a sincere support? Not one dozen, I think. Take as an illustration the case of Gov. Roosevelt. The Governor used to be himself an active and earnest civil-service reformer, but no temptations to be anything else had as yet been offered to him. As soon as he found that political promotion depended upon open alliance with the most truculent enemies of civil-service reform, he began to wabble. I might add several other names of men who were civil-service reformers only until they had something to gain or to lose by continuing their championship of the cause, when they lost their interest in it. Although this may not stop the advance of civil-service reform, it certainly makes its progress slow and hesitating.

Now what is the reason of all this? The reason is that the mass of the people do not learn from the action of the leading public men that the reform of the civil service is of any serious public importance. The reform, in fact, has made considerable progress, but mainly through the exertions of a very small class. Take the case of the revered McKinley. He was supposed to be, if not a civil-service reformer, a man who would not let the cause suffer harm. As a matter of fact, he has done it more injury than all of his predecessors since Gen. Grant. He has during his term diminished the number of officers subject to the rules by ten thousand. His use of the appointing power has been in many cases most scandalous. But has this affected his popularity with the country? Not in the least. He has received as many honors and rewards as any other President, and as much flattery. His disappointing conduct with regard to the civil service has not damaged him at all.

Take the case of Gov. Roosevelt. His adhesion to the civil-service cause was received with great delight by civil-service reformers, but as soon as he found that there was political profit in making friends and allies with its worst enemies, he did so unhesitatingly. The same thing is true, with some modifications, of President Low. Although an advocate of civil-service reform, he has publicly eulogized and acted with its enemies. Senator Lodge, also, although he has never taken the stump in opposition to civil-service reform, has taken a thousand occasions to show that he did not rate its importance very highly.

To invite men of this sort to the annual banquet of the Association will be naturally taken by the mass of plain people as a proof that even the reformers themselves do not consider steady adhesion to reform of much consequence. Suppose a similar thing had been done by the anti-slavery men, or by the anti-corn-law men, or by any sect of religious reformers. What impression would it have made? Why, that the reformers were neither cold nor hot; were, in fact, amusing themselves, and need not be listened to carefully. If Platt can be an estimable public man, in spite of twenty-five years of hostility and contempt for everything connected with reform, what is the use of making such a fuss about it? Why cannot these gentlemen dine about anything else that amuses them—woman suffrage, the liquor traffic, or popular education?

The reason why the work of the abolitionists was so effective was that they allowed nothing to stand in its way or to divert attention from it. This is the important matter in every agitation which has to succeed through strong popular support. If you wish "to make men weep," as the poet says, you must weep yourself; you must not go round the country preaching that everybody who differs from you on some other matter is an ass or a "hoodoo." I used to be a good deal impressed in listening to Wendell Phillips. What he said was often wanting in good taste, and sometimes in fairness, but there was no mistaking what he considered "the main question" of the day. Instead of inviting a pro-slavery man or a "doughface" to dinner, and listening to his blatherskite apologies for his own position, he held him up to the scorn of gods and men.

But the evil of our day is general want of seriousness about any political matter. As long as you are covered by the name "Republican" or "Democrat," especially "Republican," you may burn a "nigger," or attack peaceable "niggers" with State militia, or make fraudulent secret interpolations in a bill, or steal the public funds, or open private letters, or hold fraudulent primaries, or vote for a man whose unfitness for office you have just exposed, or ridicule and violate the Constitution under which you hold office, or pay no attention to the platform of your party. I do not mean to say that similar things might not occur if the Democrats were in power, but the fact is that ever since the Republicans have ceased to be concerned about the rights of the negro, these offences of party workers have made the party platform rather ridiculous reading. But a party can no more allow its name for an indefinite period to cover criminality than can a church. It must, sooner or later, find better work to do than to apologize for rascality or tergiversation. A free government cannot be maintained indefinitely by such means. E. L. G.

STÉPHANIE DE BEAUHARNAIS.

PARIS, December 4, 1900.

'An Adopted Daughter of Napoleon,' such is the title given by M. Joseph Turquan to a biography of Stéphanie de Beauharnais, Grand Duchess of Baden—a biography which has no literary merit, but which is nevertheless interesting, as Stéphanie de Beauharnais belongs to the Napoleonic Olympus and was for a long time an ornament of the Imperial Court and a favorite of the Emperor. She was a niece of Josephine; a cousin, therefore, of Queen Hortense and of Prince Eugene, the Viceroy of Italy. Her father was Claude de Beauharnais. Her grandmother, well known in the second half of the eighteenth century, under the name of Fanny de Beauharnais, had great literary pretensions and published various books, which are prized now only on account of their illustrations. She was a friend of Dorat. The Goncourts say of her that "she knew how to listen, and seemed to hear when she really paid no attention. She had made one or two pretty bons-mots and repeated them from time to time."

Stéphanie was born on the 28th of August, 1789, her mother dying when she was still a child. She was put to school at Montauban. Josephine mentioned her existence to Bonaparte. The First Consul, who had Corsican and clannish views, took an interest in the child, who had been much neglected by her father and her grandmother; he ordered the Prefect to have the girl taken out of school and sent to Paris. On her arrival the Consul kissed her on both cheeks; her aunt Josephine found her, says Mme. de Rémusat, "pretty and refined in all her ways." She was sent to the fashionable pension of Mme. Campan, who had been maid to Marie Antoinette and had opened her school after the 9th Thermidor for the children of the aristocracy. All the congregations had been turned out during the Terror, and Mme. Campan had a sort of monopoly. Young Stéphanie found herself at St. Germain with Caroline Bonaparte, the youngest sister of the First Consul. Speaking of her pupil in a letter, Mme. Campan said:

> "She is an odd mixture of faculty for learning, of vanity, of emulation, of laziness, of amiability, of youthfulness of mind, of levity, of pride, of piety. Here are many elements to be combined; according as they are well placed or ill placed, they will produce very different results for her happiness or her misfortune. You must take care not to people the court with young, inconsiderate creatures, whom their husbands will find difficult to keep in hand."

An inconsiderate creature—that was a true definition of Stéphanie during the greater part of her life. She was pretty and very coquettish; she quitted the *pension* for the Tuileries, and her head was turned by the splendors of the Court and the exceptional favor which Napoleon showed her. Napoleon entered into a negotiation with the Court of Baden. Prince Charles of Baden, son of the Margrave, was engaged to a Princess of Bavaria; the engagement had to be broken off, and, partly in order to win over the Margravine of Baden, Napoleon declared that he adopted Stéphanie, and she would thus become an Imperial Princess. Prince Eugene also became an adopted son of the Emperor. On the 20th of December, 1805, it was officially announced that Prince Eugene was made Viceroy of Italy and would marry the Princess Auguste of Bavaria, while Stéphanie would marry the young Prince Charles of Baden. The same day was signed the Treaty of Presburg, which erected the Electorate of Bavaria into a kingdom and the Electorate of Baden into a grand duchy. The young Stéphanie was the price of the aggrandizement of Baden. Prince Charles was twenty-three years old. "Without being exactly ugly," says Mademoiselle Avrillon, Josephine's maid, in her Memoirs, "he had not a prepossessing appearance; his white and pink complexion, joined to a fatness uncommon at his age, gave him a little the look of a baby. As he was extremely timid, he was thought a little backward." Madame de Rémusat says that "he was young, but very fat, with a common face, devoid of expression. He spoke little, seemed embarrassed in all his ways, and dozed a little everywhere."

The first impression made by the young Prince of Baden at the Tuileries was not favorable. Stéphanie, after she had been adopted by Napoleon, had her apartment there. She amused Napoleon, and he allowed himself, much more than was proper, to flirt with her. Josephine almost became jealous of her niece, and had to remind her that she ought to reserve all her attentions for her fiancé. The ceremony of the betrothal was celebrated with great pomp in the Diana Gallery. The marriage was the first ceremony which took place after the fall of the monarchy. It was celebrated in the chapel of the Tuileries. Josephine and all the Bonaparte princesses wore all their jewels, and showed themselves with those long trains which have been popularized by the paintings of David. The Princess of Baden had been married, almost by force, to a young Prince whom she almost despised, as she very clearly showed him. The Prince, on his part, had fallen in love with her, and her indifference made him very unhappy. The Emperor had to interfere, and to give Stéphanie counsels which, in his mouth, were orders.

The war of 1806 began. Napoleon and Josephine went to Mayence; Josephine kept court there, and was joined by the Princess of Baden, on the Prince's departure for the war. Baden had entered into the so-called Confederation of the Rhine, together with Bavaria, Wirtemberg, and Hesse-Darmstadt. The act of confederation was a great blow to Austria. Prussia did not join the Confederation, and alone resisted the Emperor Napoleon. The Prince of Baden asked for a place in the army which was going to make war on Prussia. "My son," wrote Napoleon to him, "I have received your letter of the 27th. I approve the desire which you have to participate in the war, and shall be pleased to have you near me. I will see you at Bamberg." Napoleon hoped that Stéphanie would treat her husband with more favor on his return from the war. On the 7th of October he wrote to Josephine: "Stéphanie must be with you. Her husband wishes to see war; he is with me."

Mayence had for a while the amusement of a court. The Empress Josephine, her daughter Hortense, her niece Stéphanie, thought of nothing but of amusing themselves, while great battles were being fought. Madame de Rémusat says that Stéphanie "occupied her days with amusements a little too infantine for her position and her rank." Napoleon wrote from Wittenberg, on the 23d of October, to Josephine: "I write only a word. My affairs are going well. I shall be to-morrow at Potsdam, and on the 25th at Berlin. I am in very good health; fatigue suits me. I am glad to know you are with Hortense and Stéphanie in great company. The weather so far has been fine. Much love to Stéphanie and everybody. Adieu, my friend, wholly yours." This is truly "imperatoria brevitas."

The Prince of Baden remained with the Emperor during the long winter campaign in Poland, which followed the short and brilliant campaign in Prussia. He was afterwards sent to Baden to organize recruiting. After the peace of Tilsit, Stéphanie returned to Carlsruhe. Prince Charles did not find much change in her feelings toward him; they both had to go to Fontainebleau, where Napoleon kept his court, and there Stéphanie allowed Prince Jerome Bonaparte to pay her attentions which were an offence to her husband. Madame de Rémusat remonstrated with her: "She listened attentively when I represented to her that she was compromising her whole future, that her duty as well as her interest engaged her to live well with the Prince of Baden, that she was destined to inhabit other places than France, that it was very likely that Germany would be more severe than Paris upon levities which were tolerated in Paris." The conversations with Madame de Rémusat seemed to have some effect; from this time Stéphanie changed somewhat her manner towards her husband. The reconciliation became definitive after a time, and on the 11th of July, 1811, the Princess of Baden had a child, Louise Amélie Stéphanie (who was married in 1834 to Prince Gustave of Vasa). The harmony was now complete; Stéphanie had another child, a boy, who unfortunately died soon after his birth. In 1813, she had another girl, Joséphine Frédérique Louise (who was married, in 1831, to Prince Charles von Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen.

Bad days were approaching for her. The Court of Baden was becoming every day more anti-French; all Germany was rising against Napoleon. Though Stéphanie had become a German Princess, her heart was still French. The Grand Duke of Baden was one of the last to declare himself openly against Napoleon after the battle of Leipzig; but he could not resist the current, and his troops joined in the campaign against France in 1814. Stéphanie's enemies at Carlsruhe openly tried to make the Duke divorce his wife, saying that she had been forced upon him by a tyrant, but Prince Charles behaved like a man of honor. He loved his wife, the mother of his children, who had been sobered by adversity; he made no change in his behavior towards her. The return from Elba and the Hundred Days gave to Stéphanie hopes which came to an end after Waterloo. The Grand Duke was confirmed at the Congress of Vienna in all the possessions which Baden owed to Napoleon. During the campaign of 1815, he had sent 15,000 men into France; they arrived at the time when Waterloo was fought.

Stéphanie could no longer hope to see Napoleon. Circumstances reduced her to the position of a secondary German Princess; she filled it with dignity, trying to help the French exiles, to be of some service to Queen Hortense. Her husband died of a sudden and mysterious disease on the 8th of December, 1818. Though still young, Stéphanie became a dowager, and shut herself up in her castle of Mannheim. People would not believe that the son of Prince Charles was dead; Caspar Hauser was supposed to be this son, who had been carried away and concealed. I have no space here to analyze the legend of Caspar Hauser. Princess Stéphanie, in her retreat, was agitated by the noise made for a moment about the enigmatic Caspar. He died, and the enigma was never quite solved. Stéphanie spent the remainder of her life in great seclusion. She was much elated by the accession of Prince Napoleon to the throne, and went several times to Paris to see him; the splendors of the Second Empire reminded her of the splendors of the first. She was so fortunate as not to witness the tragical end of the Second Empire, as she died at Nice on the 29th of January, 1860.

SAMARKAND.

SAMARKAND, October 6, 1900.

From Tashkend to Samarkand is 175 miles over the Central Railroad of Asia. Until two years ago this was purely a military affair, with passenger trains only once a week. Now a daily train each way is well patronized, while two or three freight trains are run daily in each direction. But it attracts no such attention as the Siberian railway does. In Siberia every station is crowded with peasants on the arrival of trains. This is partly to sell their bread and milk and eggs to the third-class passengers, who depend much upon them for food, but also it proceeds largely from curiosity. No such throngs greet the trains in Turkestan. About sixty miles from Tashkend the railroad crosses the Syr Daria River, and is joined by a branch coming down from Andezahn, 170 miles through the fertile province of Fergana, which is the present limit of the Russian domain in that direction. This is one of the richest and most populous of all the Russian possessions in Turkestan, and is the gateway to the Pamir, which extends southward to Afghanistan and India, over the highest plateau in the world. It is buttressed on its four corners by the Ala-tau, the Thian-Shan, the Hindu-Kush, and the Himalaya Mountains, and is appropriately called the "Roof of the World." Nowhere is this plateau less than 10,000 feet above sea level, and much of it is 14,000 feet.

Fergana itself is a well-watered valley of more than 40,000 square miles, between lofty mountain ranges. It has five cities with more than 35,000 inhabitants each, Kokand, its capital, having 82,000. The entire province tributary to this branch of the railroad has a population of 1,560,411, while the population of Zarefshan, the province of which Samarkand is the capital, amounts to 857,847. But these statistics give only a faint idea of the vast human interests represented in this desert-encircled area rendered fertile by streams descending from these inaccessible snow-clad mountain peaks. In both these provinces the interests are predominantly agricultural, and those of the nomad population secondary. Manufacturing is also of more varied forms, and on a larger scale. For ages the inhabitants have maintained a pretty high degree of civilization independent of the outside world. But there are nomad Kirghiz Tartars enough in the provinces to give variety to the scene. I believe it is that veracious observer, Mark Twain, who speaks of having seen the natives in Australia ploughing with a team of kangaroos. I have not seen anything so wonderful as that, but I have seen a team of camels drawing a plough, and in one case a camel and a horse hitched together to do the same service. Nor is it any uncommon thing to see a man or a woman riding a lusty steer and leading a long string of camels. It will be a great while before the railroad and Russian civilization will banish all such incongruous sights.

The city of Samarkand has a present population of 56,000, of whom 16,000 are Russians, and the rest mostly Sarts. It was taken by the Russians in 1868, and the growth of their colony gives some idea of the rapidity with which they are exerting their power in this direction, and of the firmness of their grasp. As in all the other larger centres, however, so here, the Russian element lives apart from the native, and constitutes a city by itself, fashioned in every respect after the best models of European towns. The well-dressed women and the fine equipages one meets on the street would make him forget that he was so far away from the great centres of civilization, were it not for the constant presence everywhere of the military uniform. The present government is a military government. The Russians do not yet trust the native population. It is not taken into the army. Farther west the Turkomans of the Trans-Caspian province have, to some extent, been drawn upon to fill depleted regiments; but the Sarts and Kirghiz Tartars of this region have not as yet been thus honored. The general interest in army affairs was exhibited in Samarkand last Sunday evening in a fair held by the Red Cross Society for the benefit of the suffering soldiers in China. The fair was in the well-shaded park of the Russian city, which was brilliantly illuminated. An admittance of twenty-five cents was charged, but the fair was crowded by natives as well as by Russians. I believe that the admission was less for the natives, and it must be added that one of the attractions was a lottery, at which the daughter of one of the high officials presided.

Samarkand is in every respect the most interesting city of Turkestan. Surrounded on three sides by snow-covered mountains, but itself in a verdure-clad valley of great productiveness, it has from ancient times been called the Eye of the World. About the close of the fourteenth and the beginning of the fifteenth century, Timur the Tartar, more commonly known as Tamerlane, established his capital here, and from it well nigh ruled the world, extending his dominion from Russia to the Persian Gulf, and from Constantinople to the Ganges. Timur likewise made Samarkand a great centre of learning, and he and his successors adorned it with buildings whose proportions and beauty challenge, even in their ruins, the admiration of the world. Four hundred years of neglect and an earthquake two years ago have well nigh destroyed two or three of these splendid edifices, but they all now rear their domes and arches and campaniles high above the mud dwellings of the present wretched city, and look down upon the Babel of an Eastern marketplace where everything is sold, from cotton, and wool, and silk, to perishable fruit, old clothes, and scrap-iron. The best preserved of these is known as the Rigistan. This is a square of 250 feet, open to the street on the south side, but enclosed on the other three sides by lofty, well-proportioned buildings, brilliant in harmonious colors of enamelled brick. Beautiful shaped campaniles adorn the corners, and noble archways lead into interior courts surrounded by cloisters for Mohammedan mollahs. During the Middle Ages the tenants of these cloisters carried the study of mathematics and astronomy to a high degree of perfection, and made their city renowned for learning as well as for war. But now these tenants are a miserable set, only waiting for another earthquake to put an end to their whole business. The campaniles are already far out of plumb, and the noise of the market in the square drowns the devotions of the faithful Mohammedans in the crumbling chapels still in use.

A few hundred yards to the northeast of the Rigistan are the still more extensive ruins of the Bibi Khan, the archway and towers of whose façade were pronounced by Vámbéry a model for such buildings. This, too, was richly colored with enamelled brick. At one time it is said to have sheltered as many as a thousand students, but the earthquake of two years ago has nearly completed its ruin. One of its domes and two of its lofty arches still stand, though ready to fall. Still farther east are the graves of Timur's wives and sisters. These consist of a series of domes, with interior decorations of marvellous beauty, crowning successive terraces reached by forty marble steps. They are still in a fair state of preservation, though birds find a welcome home on all the cornices, and the dust-laden winds have free course everywhere. Still, they continue to stand as noble monuments, all the more conspicuous by reason of the repellent character of everything else in the neglected Mohammedan cemetery to which they form an entrance.

A quarter of a mile to the southwest of the Rigistan is the grave of Timur himself. Here, too, the recent earthquake has wrought the ruin of a portion of the noble pile, but has left uninjured the chapel and lofty dome above the grave itself. This is covered with a large piece of rare jade, and the chapel and whole interior of the dome are adorned with elegant arabesques and inscriptions of gold. Everything about it, both outside and in, is most impressive and appropriate. Indeed, in its time, the splendor of this city was unexcelled anywhere in the world. And it was not barbaric splendor, but that of the highest art of the Saracens. Those who would view it, however, even in ruins, must make haste, for time has already nearly completed its destructive work.

G. FREDERICK WRIGHT.

Correspondence.

THE ARMY CANTEEN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you kindly permit me to state a few facts in regard to the army canteen, and to point out some errors which have apparently led you into a disapproval of the institution incomprehensible to those acquainted with its origin, objects, and working? It is conceded on all hands that the one thing which, above all others, shakes the discipline and paralyzes the effectiveness of any military organization, is drunkenness. Officers whose professional reputation depends upon the sobriety of their men, *i. e.*, chiefs of companies and higher units, have, therefore, the strongest possible motive for putting down this vice, more or less prevalent in all armies. During the existence of the sutler and post-trader systems, our military service especially was noted for payday orgies, which, as regards the extent to which on occasions they affected entire companies and even larger bodies, beggar all description. Both the trader's establishment within the post, vicious in the extreme on account of its debauching effects in various ways, as was abundantly demonstrated by the Belknap impeachment trial, and the vile haunts outside of the post limits, defied the efforts of company and higher commanders to prevent their soldiers from indulging in gross excesses. Exposed, as the soldiers were, to the hardships incident to frontier service, and subsisting on a monotonous and at times insufficient diet, nearly all felt the occasional need of relaxation, which, in the lack of a resort affording rational and innocent recreation, they sought in the barroom of the trader-store or the low dives grouped about the post. The introduction of the canteen, which in foreign (notably the Swedish and German) armies had proved a potent instrumentality for promoting temperance and discipline, appeared to be the only remedy for this most serious evil. After thorough inquiry into the subject, this was the conclusion, early in 1889, of Secretary of War Endicott, and a few months later of his successor, Secretary (now Senator) Proctor; and particularly the latter, once convinced by experiments at a few posts that the canteen, while adding to the comforts and the contentment of the enlisted man, made him a more temperate, reliable, and efficient soldier, became its champion, and took the necessary steps for bringing about the gradual extinction of the post-trader system, now happily accomplished.

As in the case of every contemplated reform, violent opposition to the change arose, not only from the post-trader and liquor interests on the one hand, and from well-intentioned but badly informed temperance people on the other, but also from a part of the army itself, some of the older officers of which, always slow to approve innovations, honestly thought the canteen would prove ruinous instead of beneficial to the service. The War Department, however, remained firm in its support of the canteen, in the face of the clamor against it from all sides. And it speaks volumes for the institution that now, after the lapse of twelve years, during which it has been tested under war as well as peace conditions, the army is practically unanimous in testifying to its great merits, and in the declaration that it is even more indispensable in the colonies than in the United States. The declared purpose of the canteen, officially known as the "post exchange," which combines the features of reading and recreation rooms, a coöperative store, and a restaurant, "is to supply the troops at reasonable prices with the articles of ordinary use, wear, and consumption, not supplied by the Government, and to afford them means of rational recreation and amusement." The sale or use of ardent spirits in any branch of the exchange, and in any encampment or fort or on any premises used for military purposes, is strictly prohibited; but, on the recommendation of the exchange council, the commanding officer may permit beer and light wines to be sold at the canteen by the drink whenever he is satisfied that giving to the troops the opportunity of obtaining such beverages within the post limits will prevent them from resorting for strong intoxicants to places without such limits, and tend to promote temperance and discipline among them.

Your remarks on the canteen in the *Nation* of December 13 seem to indicate that you have an incorrect understanding of the subject. You speak of the soldiers drinking "Government" beer; intimate that army officers who are unfavorably disposed towards the canteen hesitate to express their opinion, owing to the obvious bias of their superiors and the fear of having their communications pigeon-holed; point out that the trend in navies the world over is to discontinue the grog ration; and suggest that indulgence in light beer, to which the canteen ever tempts the soldier, stimulates his desire for stronger drink.

An entirely different view of the matter is taken by army men of all ranks, the exceptions being so few as to be an almost negligible quantity. They know that the beer dispensed in canteens is not provided by the Government, but by an association of the companies comprising garrison, whose members are the sole beneficiaries of profits realized on beer-sales; they contend that, unless a person in civil life may be properly restrained by law from drinking a glass of beer at his home or club, the same privilege cannot rightly or consistently be denied the soldier, whose only home is his post of duty; they point to the large decrease, since the advent of the canteen, in the number of desertions as well as of all military offences traceable, directly or indirectly, to drunkenness, also to the marked reduction in the sick rate, as proofs positive that the canteen makes for sobriety, good morals, and good discipline; they show that, admitting, for argument's sake, the injurious effects of beer-drinking, even in moderate quantities (the excessive use of beer in canteens is forbidden), soldiers on land cannot be prevented from taking intoxicants, as may be the crews of war-vessels while at sea or even in port.

Whatever sins may be laid at the door of the War Department, it cannot in justice be charged with undue bias towards or the suppression of official criticisms concerning the canteen. From 1889 to the present time it has been at constant pains to keep itself informed of the details of canteen operations; and its refusal to sacrifice so beneficent an institution to selfish interests and blind prejudice entitles it to the gratitude of the army and country. Of course, "the law is supreme"; and should Congress in its wisdom decide to put an end to the canteen, neither the War Department nor the army will seek to evade the decision, however deplorable may be its consequences.

THEO. SCHWAN.

ST. PAUL, MINN., December 17, 1900.

LYNCHING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It would have added to the interest of Mr. Lawton's letter (*Nation*, December 20) if he had cited some case of real lynching in the Far West "after the war of the rebellion." His remark that, "for protection, people took the law into their own hands," suggests that his allusion is to some procedure very different from lynching. Lynchers do not take the law into their hands. The extemporized courts that administered "frontier" justice gave every accused man a fair trial, and such were never molested if acquitted. But lynchers hold no trial, and they trample on any legal verdict that stands in the way of their mad-dog passions. An enraged mob wants somebody to kill, and cares not whether it has the guilty man or not. Apologetic reporters usually add: "The man confessed his crime," presuming, with too much reason, on popular ignorance and unreason. Usually the reports of confession are false, but in no case would a confession under such circumstances be of legal value unless legally proved to have been freely given, in unmistakable terms, and without any suggestion of possible clemency to be gained thereby.

Lynching will not cease until educated and conscientious people recognize in the lynchers mere vulgar murderers, particularly mean and cowardly murderers, who would fly like hounds if they knew their proposed victim was well enough armed to lay low his first assailants. MONCURE D. CONWAY.

NEW YORK, December 22, 1900.

THE SUCCESS OF THE PARIS EXPOSITION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *Nation* of October 11, page 281, you speak of the failure of the Exposition. Is not your explanation of the expression somewhat misleading?

You do not mean that the Exposition has not been " an artistic and industrial success," but "rather that the multitudinous holders of bonds secured by tickets to the Exposition will never get their money back. . . . The failure to pay the bonds will consequently bring disappointment to thousands of thrifty families which imagined that they were combining a conservative investment with a gambler's chance."

By the terms of the bond, the price was to be refunded only if the Exposition did not take place. The purchaser acquired the right to twenty entrance tickets; a reduction of 25 per cent. in the entrance fee of every private exhibit, or a round-trip railway ticket at a reduction of one-third; and the "gambler's chance." All of these contracts were fulfilled.

Of the sixty-five million tickets issued, about eighteen millions remained unused. Had the Exposition been wholly ready when it was opened, on the 15th of April, more tickets would have been used, in which case the holder of a bond might have resold his twenty tickets for an amount more nearly approaching the twenty francs which they may be said to have cost.

Was not this also, however, a "gambler's chance"? Of the thirty million tickets issued in 1889, more than 5 per cent. were left uncancelled, and their price fell from twenty to ten cents, although the twenty-five-franc bond of that year is to be repaid in 1964, the year in which the last drawing takes place. Is there not a confusion between the two issues?

A writer in *La Nature* of the 7th of April predicted that the number of entrances to the Exposition would be about fifty millions, basing his calculation upon a discovery that, since 1855, the entrances at the succeeding Expositions had increased in a geometrical progression, of which the ratio was 1.78. The following table explains his system:

	Number of entrances observed.	Number calculated.
In 1855..............	5 millions.	5
In 1867..............	8.8 "	$5x1.78 = 8.9$
In 1878..............	16 "	$5x1.78^2 = 15.8$
In 1889..............	28 "	$5x1.78^3 = 28.2$

His conclusion was that the number in 1900 would not vary much from 5×1.78^4, or 50.2. At his request, B. Picard, Commissioner-General of the Exposition, has just given him the final total, from April 15 to November 12 of this year, as 50,860,893. This approximates very closely to 50.2 millions.

A READER FOR MANY YEARS.

FRANCE, December 10, 1900.

Notes.

The colored plates to illustrate the account of the Harriman expedition to Alaska have delayed the appearance of this book, which will now be one of the spring publications of Doubleday, Page & Co. This firm has begun to issue 'The Furniture of Our Forefathers,' by Esther Singleton, with critical descriptions of the plates by Russell Sturgis. The initial section of seventy-five pages is occupied with seventeenth-century furniture, and contains about fifty illustrations—a score full-page—of beds, chests, tables, chairs, and the rest. The text, clearly and openly printed, contains abundant information about household conditions in the seventeenth century, particularly inventories of furniture, artisans' bills, contracts, etc.—in all, an abundance of entertainment and information for the collector and antiquarian. The work will be complete in eight parts, forming a handsome volume of large octavo size.

Julia Cartwright's 'Madame,' a life of Henrietta, daughter of Charles I. and Duchess of Orleans, is to be published in this country by E. P. Dutton & Co.

We are disposed to congratulate Prof. William R. Ware on the goodness of his memory, on the flattering assumption that he has for seventeen years borne in mind almost our only criticism on his 'Modern Perspective,' namely, in deprecation of his use of *trace* for *horizon* "for the perspective of the horizon of a plane." He singles out his substitution of the former term for the latter, in a note to the original preface of 1882 in the revised edition now brought out, with its portfolio of plates, by Macmillan Co. Some other changes have been made, and an appendix added, and the work is still better calculated than before to furnish solid instruction in its field.

We must all be grateful that Macmillan's 'Library of English Classics' has included an edition of Shelton's translation of 'Don Quixote.' There can be no question that Shelton, in a certain rough-and-ready way and with the advantage of contemporary and colloquial knowledge, struck the Cervantic tone. His rendering of the verses, both the high-stepping and stately and the intentionally "scurvy" (to use his own most happy word), are closer than any other to the spirit and tone of the original. Somehow, our modern bards become self-conscious when they have to mouth it thus largely. So, whatever translations of 'Don Quixote' the Cervantist may have, Shelton should not fail among them, and our only regret, in face of this beautiful three-volume reprint, is that in it the virtue of editorial self-restraint should have been carried so far. It is a cardinal virtue in its way, yet, without going into casuistry, it can be overdone. Some further information, and, especially, references on the earlier editions, would surely have been in place. Such would be to Watts's translation of 'Don Quixote' (vol. i., pp. xvii., ff. of the octavo edition) and Watts's 'Life of Cervantes' (p. 272); to Ormsby's translation (vol. i., pp. v., ff. and vol. ii, p. 552), and to the *Athenæum* (Nos. 2698, ff). Nor is it quite correct to say that the discovery of the edition from which Shelton translated was due to Mr. Fitzmaurice Kelly. Both Duffield and Watts had part of it. Shelton's notes, again, have been reprinted in a most puzzling way, and they sometimes contain page references which are absolutely blind. To balance this, the glossary might be omitted. Its place will be occupied partly by a dictionary and partly by the modern translation—or the original Spanish—which every user of this version will have. Which means that this is a book for Cervantists, and hardly for the multitude, whose 'Don Quixote' must be one and undivided.

It is long since a fresh breeze of fact blew in upon the tangled dreams and superior platitudes of the Omarians. Mrs. Cadell's translation lacked the introduction and commentary which she, too early lost, could have given it, and the biography especially of Omar still dwelt in the midst of darkness and the many inventions which men had sought out. At last Prof. E. D. Ross has lifted the veil in an introduction to an edition of FitzGerald's version which has just been published by G. P. Putnam's Sons, and non-Orientalists (and, for that matter, Orientalists also) are given a view of the true Omar and his life and times such as they never had before. The discussion is scholarly and admirable, though it is evident that Professor Ross could have entered on further details and explanations, if his space had not been limited. We would suggest that the name of the work of Omar's called, on pp. 42 and 66, "Al-kawn wat-taklif," should be "al-kawn wat-takwin." A meaning is hardly thinkable for the first; but, with the second, the book would be on the vexed question between Ash'arite and Mataridite theologians as to whether God had a quality called *Takwin*. The point is of interest as showing Omar's acquaintance with one of the details of scholastic theology. The rest of this edition, except the thirty-two pages left to FitzGerald, is taken up with a commentary of the most exuberant verbosity by H. M. Batson. Mr. Batson has apparently no knowledge of the original, but has made diligent use of all the translations and helps he could find. His work will doubtless delight the Omarians; that of Professor Ross is a genuine contribution.

'The Story of Grettir the Strong,' translated from the Icelandic by Eirikr Magnusson and William Morris (Longmans, Green & Co.), is a new edition, after many years (the preface is dated 1869), of one of the most interesting of the Icelandic sagas. It enjoys the considerable distinction of being the first of the long series of translations made in collaboration by Magnusson and Morris, which have had a recognizedly important influence upon the spread of a knowledge of the Saga literature in England and America. The 'Story of Grettir' is one of the most intelligible of the sagas to us of the present day and generation, because of the world-wide human characteristics of the principal personages and the ready comprehension of their motives of action—conditions that are not shared in equal measure by all the stories of the North. It is, too, as admirable a picture of the culture and superstitions of the old Norsemen as has been preserved in the whole saga literature, and as unmistakable in the fidelity of its outlines to actual fact. Its well-known connection with the Beowulf legend gives it an additional interest to English readers. Like all of these translations by Magnusson and Morris, this is an exceptionally well-made book, with a map, various indices, and explanatory notes. In taking up any of them, however, we cannot help a feeling of regret at the Morrisese—or is it, after all, Magnussonese?—in which it is written.

Like the 'Story of Grettir,' Mr. Hamilton Mabie's 'Norse Stories Retold from the Eddas' (Dodd, Mead & Co.) is a new edition. Under the author's facile pen, these old tales of the days when the earth was young are retold in a way well worthy of them, and that is very high praise. The unfailing characteristic of the Edda tales in the original is a simple directness in thought and expression, which it is as difficult to catch and to keep when it concerns the childhood of a nation as when it has to do with the childhood of an individual; so wide, in either case, is the distance back to it of the grown-up mind. Mr. Mabie in the present book has admirably retained both the inherent simplicity and the perennial springtime freshness of these world-old stories, and, what is quite as important as leaving little out, he has brought but little in that is not to be found in the original sources. There are some few incidental statements of which the books are guiltless, but they are not disturbing. Mr. Mabie's 'Norse Stories' come very near to being for the Northern myths what Hawthorne's 'Tanglewood Tales' are for classical mythology, and deserve to be as widely known.

The fascination of mystery finds no better example than in the dear, delightful, horrid dragon which nobody ever saw, and the present season produces a whole 'Book of Dragons,' by E. Nesbit (Harpers), providing a rich feast of shuddering enjoyment. Here we have them, wild as ever, swooping in their ancient fury to devastate a city or to demand a princess for breakfast; and, again, tamed by the clever wiles of a knowing child to become useful domestic creatures, meekly devoted to their bread and milk, and savage only towards bad giants. Purple dragons and green dragons, ice dragons, and dragons of rusty iron, and more kinds than one ever heard of before, parade through these pages, winding their portentous length over land and sea, and lashing through the air the scaly horror of their tails, while children well protected from their claws and awful teeth may watch and wonder at their dreadful antics from the safe nursery castle.

In 'Nigger Baby and Nine Beasts' (Ess Ess Publishing Co.), Alma Florence Porter tells nine animal stories of unusual originality. They may be "founded on truth," as the title-page announces, but fancy has generously built and decorated the superstructure. The little motherless wild Western girl wins sympathetic interest for her-

and for the various animal friends so tionately pictured. And if these lat- seem to show more than the degree of use commonly allotted to them, we are illing to believe that our stupidity may ave more to do than theirs in fixing the accepted limit of animal intelligence.

The intention of the author of 'America, Picturesque and Descriptive,' Mr. Joel Cook (Philadelphia: H. T. Coates & Co.), has been to make not only a work of reference, but a summary, in an acceptable and interesting form, of geographical and historical facts, picturesque attractions, peculiarities, productions, and other most salient features of the country; to gather these into an artistic and interesting whole not too heavily burdened with statistics, nor too prolix in description. The work has been mainly prepared from notes taken by the author during many years of travel in North America, extending from the Atlantic to the Pacific and from Alaska to Mexico. Following the method of a similar work on England, the text has been arranged in twenty-one tours, each beginning at one of the older settlements on the eastern coast, and following much such a route as the sight-seer is apt to adopt with a tour in view. In this manner the book partakes of the nature of a guidebook, or rather of a cicerone who, familiar with the scenes through which a traveller is passing, enlivens the journey with instructive and agreeable conversation. Having in view the possibilities of becoming flippant or tiresome, on the one hand, or of falling into the ways of an advertising agent or courier, on the other, it must be confessed that the author has trimmed his sails very successfully, and produced a work which is much more interesting than the bare statement of the plan would lead one to expect. We have found the text both entertaining, instructive, and well-written, the illustrations unusually good, and the get-up of the book, including a very full index, all that could reasonably be asked.

The compilation of the annals of criminal justice which Mr. J. B. Atlay offers under the title, 'Famous Trials of the Century' (New York: Herbert S. Stone & Co.), requires little notice. With the exception of the Tichborne case, which involved important questions, the trials here reported were of no great consequence, and the once fetid particulars arouse scarcely more feeling now than the sins of Sodom and Gomorrah. The general public, which Mr. Atlay hopes to interest, would be better employed than in reading his book. The only justification for preparing it would be to impart instruction in the law; a purpose which the compiler expressly disclaims. Nevertheless, we must recognize a deftness of touch, particularly in the opening sentences of each case, that softens our repugnancy, and leads us to wish Mr. Atlay success in literary ventures of a higher order.

The Vanderbilt Oriental Series, edited by Tolman and Stevenson, deserves a as an American undertak- us nor so important amed Har- rd

is "nom. sg. m. ways liable to be of us pears to be complete. Under forms might have been noticed the fact there is no case of subjunctive in the Upanishad other than the imperatively used first persons; and under *ākāça* should have been given 'air' as Böhtlingk's latest definition of the fifth element. Major Jacob's index to all the principal Upanishads might gracefully have been referred to by the author of this index to one of them, though this is on different lines. The plan as conceived is well executed.

The little manual by M. Yve-Plessis (Paris: H. Baragou; New York: Lemcke & Buechner) entitled 'Essai de Biblio-thérapeutique' is preëminently practical. It treats, first, of the hygiene of books, or how to preserve them from the injuries of damp, dust, worms, noxious germs, etc.; and, secondly, of the therapeutics of books, or how to repair their damages—the latter section being divided into *medicine*, or the treatment by remedies, chemical or other, and *surgery*, where instruments, apparatus, or fire is required. An idea of the practical character of the book may be gathered from the subjects treated in the second section, viz., spots (of mud, grease, ink, etc.), "foxing," washing (with formulæ for bleaching-baths, and even the best method of detaching a single damaged page); the reparation of rents and restoration of missing parts; the art of filling up worm-holes in paper or leather; reparations to binding, from simple refurbishing to the restoration in facsimile of portions entirely lost. Recipes for pastes, glues, varnishes, artificial leather, and *mastic de peau* are given, and all the processes minutely explained. A full bibliography of the subject lends additional value to this little book, which should be known to every librarian, bookbinder, and bibliophile.

MM. Garnier Frères send us, in the convenient selections from Italian classics comprised in the "Collection Dejob," 'Boccace.' Here one will find copious extracts, with narrative links in prose, from Boccaccio's poem, 'Il Ninfale Fiesolano,' twelve extracts from the introduction and tales of the 'Decameron,' and one each from the Commentary on the Life of Dante and the 'Corbaccio'—in all enough to represent fairly Boccaccio's various literary activities. The well-known specialist M. Henri Hauvette of the University of Grenoble supplies a compendious introduction and notes. The selections are made *virginibus puerisque*, and the book is obviously attractive for reading collateral to Dante, whether for class or private use.

In the *National Geographic Magazine* for December, Mr. F. F. Hilder summarizes the present information in regard to the gold-bearing districts of the Philippines. These are to be found in nearly every province of Luzon in veins in the mountains, in river sands, and in alluvial deposits. In regard to the island of Mindanao, he quotes Sir John Bowring's statement that in the interior "gold dust is the instrument of exchange . . . and is carried about in bags for the ordinary purposes of life." Other articles upon the teaching of physical geography ry schools, by Prof. R. E. Dodge, fossil-fields expedition of visit to the little It is about across th driftwood on the the floods the river rises feet. Some interesting picture the article.

Emperor William has, by an edict to the Prussian Minister of Education, Dr. Studt, given his consent to further reforms of secondary schools in the spirit of those instituted eight or nine years ago. The claims of the three classes of higher secondary schools are to be settled on the principle of their general educational equivalency. The consequent extension of the privileges of the Realschulen, it is hoped, will prove the best means of raising these institutions in the favor of the people, and of increasing their attendance. The so-called Reformgymnasien (at Altona, Frankfort, and a score of other places), with a common substructure of four years, are pronounced a success, and the plan is to be continued and extended. Aside from these general provisions, the Emperor desires that more prominence be given to the study of English in the gymnasia, even at the expense of French, and he has no objection to the strengthening of Latin in the gymnasium and Realgymnasium, considering that, the equal value of the three types of higher secondary schools once recognized, each may advantageously emphasize its own peculiarities. On the whole, the royal educationalist indulges the hope that the antagonism between the humanistic and the realistic tendencies in higher education will be lessened in consequence of the new regulations. The introduction of the Russian language in some of the Berlin gymnasia, which was not long ago mentioned in these columns, has led to the adoption of the same measure in one or two of the schools of the Bavarian capital.

—The distinguished physicist, Dr. Olive Lodge, who has been taken from his chair Liverpool to become the first Principal the new University of Birmingham, has nalized his entry upon office by ma what will seem to most American tea a very revolutionary proposal with r to examinations. The passage in his which deals with this topic is thus re

"His proposal in essence amounted this—that examinations should not i ly follow teaching; that a vacatio should intervene for private study ar quiet thought, assimilation, and dig dents should not be taken straight ture-room into an examination-r they might tell the examiner wh sor had said before they had tim Real education was not an affa ory only; the mind was a live t only received and incorporate ing and experience enlarged store of facts and recognize which connected them with process of education was clothes into a portmante be extracted again at the by an examiner. Even if securely fastened and fr it had not to run the ga officers, this process w quate analogy of wh would liken examina but to fishing, not t portmanteau, but fi teaching he would with perch.

dust-heaps of the grammarians, the metrists and rhetoricians, from Athenæus and Stobæus and the Scholiasts, this brilliant edifice of the imagination, with its manifold beauties, has vanished as completely as the temple of its great patron and deity at Delphi. Pindar alone was transmitted to us with some adequateness and completeness; it is only within a few years that some satisfactory relics of Bacchylides were patched together by Mr. Kenyon and his coadjutors. With this exception, there is hardly, in Dr. Smyth's selections of 160 pages, a single complete poem to be found which can be ascribed to the earlier and greater masters; only one of the two odes from Sappho being preserved entire. And yet, among these writers, there were two, at least, of the first rank, worthy to be placed beside Pindar, and appealing in some directions to the modern mind more effectively than Pindar. These two were Sappho and Simonides. Besides these, there were others sufficiently rare and unique in style and individuality to have left a strong impress on the most admired Latin poets—on Catullus, for example, and on Horace. Such artists sat at the feet of Sappho and Alcæus and Anacreon; they echoed and imitated their verses and their metrical forms; we see more, perhaps, of their originals in the mirror of these imitations than in the poor fragments which survive to us of the Greek. Even a minor lyrist, Bacchylides, could impress the memory and influence the expression of so great a craftsman as Sophocles.

There is no reason to doubt, therefore, that the body of Greek lyric poetry would compare in genius, in power, and in human interest with the remains, so fortunately preserved to us, of the great tragedians. Springing directly from the life and manners of the people, it always continued in touch with their daily life; and, under this constant influence, it assumed a rich and varied development which cannot be paralleled exactly in our modern literature. The folk-songs, which grew spontaneously from every occasion and ceremony, became glorified and transformed in the hands of the great poets, but they never strayed far from the vital sources of their inspiration. They branched out into a bewildering variety of forms, adapted to their several occasions, and demanding each its special treatment and rhythms and musical modes. There were hymns for gods and men—for supplication and invocation and thanksgiving—for weddings and funerals, for triumphs and festivities. They were classified according to a minute scientific nomenclature; the list reaches nearly a score of titles of subdivisions, which have descended from the Alexandrian littérateurs, and which, though a trifle pedantic, correspond fairly to the types that were actually developed. We have nothing to match this profusion, either in Italian or in French, or in our own literature. Our own lyric development, in its highest forms, has been almost exclusively literary. We had our period of the minstrels and the ballad-makers, it is true, and that period left its strong but rude mark upon our anthologies. But the march of the greatest Greek lyric poetry was step by step with Greek life. In the greatest period of their history, it was always composed directly and immediately for musical and choral performances, whether public or private. It [illegible] in a closet, to be hidden in a book, and to be read again in the silence of a room. It was designed to be the crowning grace of some splendid religious function or procession; or it was flung out "to live again upon the lips of men," and in the ear of some susceptible audience of banqueters garlanded with flowers. That was the way in which Pindar and Anacreon and Alcæus "published"; this was the sort of occasion and public to which even Sappho and all the song-writers came, in time, to appeal. The Attic symposium became a sort of centre of culture, a literary exchange where each guest contributed not merely what he recalled from the lyric poets, but lyric bits from tragedy or comedy, favorite selections from the wit and wisdom of Menander and his school. It was at such a gathering that Solon first heard one of Sappho's songs, and prayed "that he might learn it before he died." "There was practically no limit," says Dr. Smyth, "to the choice of the singer. The symposium was a school for strengthening an Athenian gentleman's acquaintance with the masterpieces of Greek song. . . . Books of selections for Sympotic singing came into existence with choice ῥήσεις; and the earliest anthologies may have grown up in a society whose chief social delight consisted in the banquet graced by song." No better Academy could be imagined than such groups of critics, keen, enthusiastic, and responsive, where a Solon might make one of the company, and a Pindar might find fit mark for his winged shafts of wisdom.

If we inquire what themes inspired these songs, what topics dominated the imagination and the minds of this nimble-witted race, we shall find, in glancing over this selection, the same commonplaces which are as fresh and as ancient as the sunrise and the morning dew. War and wine and women; prayers to the gods and their praises; the round of seasons and of man's life—the mutability of things, the certainty of death and fate—such are the highroads over which the poet travels, and on which Dr. Smyth has set his little sign-posts of quotations so aptly and so tastefully to catch the eye of the passionate pilgrim. Last of all—and least of all, we might almost add—comes the motive of love; and this is a strange thing to report of any lyric anthology. You may take a hundred English songs, from Chaucer to Milton, and you will find that, with great variety in quality, in sincerity, and in genius, not one in ten—hardly one in twenty—deals with any other theme. They deal, of course, with all the commonplaces we have mentioned, but all paths end in this goal and lead to it; the poets' thoughts cluster about this motive, their conceits and fancies hover about it, they invest it with a hundred rainbow hues; if they describe nature, it is nature as seen through the lover's eyes. At Athens, however, our masculine academy of boon companions was not so fortunate in cultivating this particular flower. They had their love-songs, as might be expected; volumes of love-songs were written before the time of Demosthenes. They have been almost totally lost; and from what we hear of their character, they were well lost. We might perhaps say the same, judging from the fragments which survive. With all their sparkle and grace of fancy and expression, they emerged from a topsy-turvy state of society. No genius can evolve love-poetry that deserves to last from a social world that is exclusively masculine, or diversified only by the charms and companionship of courtesans. The highest tone which we can expect from such intercourse would be that sprightly manner and trifling grace which Horace borrowed so successfully from Ibycus and Anacreon. Sappho strikes a higher note because it is ennobled by the sincerity of passion. Yet her two famous odes are simply a frank pursuit of passion, or a still franker and very accurate description of its symptoms. It is worth while to compare the latter poem with Drayton's sonnet, "Since there's no help, come, let us kiss and part," and again with Lovelace's farewell to Althea, if we wish to trace some grades of transition toward the complexity and sublimation of our modern sentiment. Even as it is, the stage represented in the Sapphic ode is a long step beyond the Anacreontic—a long step upward on the rounds of that ladder which, resting on earth and the earthy instinct, climbs to the skies in Dante's Beatrice and his

"Amor che move il sole e l'altre stelle."

It is a curious reflection that Plato should have divined more of Dante's gospel than Sappho—a gospel which was indeed "to the Greeks foolishness," until they were approaching their decadence. One would have liked to question this feminine wonder of the world; this accident of her race; this accident of artistic perfection never repeated in her sex; this unsolved riddle—one would have liked to ask this sphinx to solve another riddle, why it is that her sex, which is capable of living like a poem, is incapable of writing the highest poetry; why it should be left to men to interpret in words ideals which woman best interprets in life. Above all, why should we depend on men for the best and highest love poetry? These would be fair questions to put, at some Elysian symposium, to the most original genius and the greatest artist among women that history has ever reported.

Sappho is a personality always interesting, [illegible], and the latest news of her is what we should all like to believe. This is contained in a little poem, coming from Egypt, in an exceedingly mutilated condition, and restored with reasonable probability. It reveals a glimpse of her attitude toward her brother Charaxus, and the escapade which is referred to by Herodotus. Charaxus had become infatuated with a beautiful slave, Doricha or Rhodopis, whom he met at Naucratis, and had ransomed her and carried her off in his ship. It is well known that Sappho had reproached him for this; yet it was not certain just why she had reproached him. Whether her own famous ode appealing to Aphrodite was addressed to a man or to a woman, was long a moot question, hanging for its decision upon a single letter of the alphabet. The latest manuscript evidence decides that it was addressed to a woman, and therefore upsets a conjecture of Welcker's by which he was desirous to support his gallant defence of her character. However perplexing this may be, this little poem, so far as we can divine its meaning, gives just the impression we should desire. In it she prays for the safe return of her brother from beyond the sea, and his delivery from the reproach of his citizens; she prays also that he may utterly forget the differences and the estrangement which were breaking her heart. The sensitiveness which she displays for her brother's reputation lends no color to the inferences that might be drawn from the passionate tone of her best preserved odes, nor to the gossip of the later Attic comedy. What sort of a picture should we draw of Socrates from the "Clouds" of Aristophanes?

There is another point in which these songs offer resemblances as well as contrasts to the modern spirit, and that is the sentiment for Nature which they display. This is a large matter, fitter for a dissertation than for an *obitcr dictum*. It is easy to see that the Greeks had a real love for Nature, a nice observation, and a hearty enjoyment of its aspects. They could hardly be children of the soil without absorbing that sentiment in every breath and every glance of the eye. The sites of their temples and their theatres, commanding prospects of unrivalled beauty, were certainly not chosen by accident or on principles of pure convenience and economy. The feeling for Nature, the consciousness of the life and beauty of Nature, break out in every page almost of this selection. Sappho, perhaps, leads the way in this feeling and its expression; from her we have a succession of picturesque hints and similes—the delicious sentiment of Hesper bringing home what Dawn has scattered—the grotto where sleep descends amid murmuring waters and the rustling leaves—the sole apple left by the pickers on the topmost bough. One would think that this little string of gems had been carefully beaded together by some judicious collector, instead of being a little random treasure, gravely rescued, in many cases, by Hephæstion as samples of metre! Such as they are, they differ from their fellows only in a certain exquisite appositeness and truthful felicity. Pindar has the same gift of hinting in a few phrases some delicate harmony of light and color, of golden rays sifted on pansies through dim forest recesses. On the whole, Nature is in these verses simply as a part of man's life and environment—a portion as inevitable and spontaneous as the water he drinks and the air he breathes. It is reflected in the stream of song, gliding melodiously towards its goal, as casually as the river catches gleams and glints of the sky and clouds and trees because they are above it and around. But Nature in itself, we may say, was never the goal. It was felt and expressed simply and frankly, as one enjoys breathing fresh air without thinking much about the process. It was felt with the pleasure of our own ballad-writer, with his

> "In summer, when the shawes be sheen,
> And the leaves be large and long."

With just such contentment does Alcman picture the "sleep of the mountain peaks and glens and jutting headlands, and all the tribes of creeping things that the dark earth doth nourish." But description for its own sake we encounter seldom—perhaps never. Sophocles suggests merely the landscape of Colonus where his nightingales sing; Euripides merely sketches in the outlines of that scene on Cithæron where Pentheus is to meet his doom, and, having once placed his actors, hastens swiftly to the close of his dramatic narrative. But he was a student of the sea from his grotto at Salamis; and he was quite capable of imaginative lyrics that were filled with vague echoes of its mystery, and the fascination of far-off lands, to which its watery highways lead. There are odes in his "Hippolytus" and his "Iphigenia among the Taurians" which beget the mood of Keats's—

> "The voice that ofttimes hath
> Charmed magic casements opening on the foam
> Of perilous seas in faery lands forlorn."

Still rarer is the attempt to make Nature serve as a contrast, or as a harmony with the mood of the actor. In our ballad, "The Twa Corbies," for instance, the figure of the abandoned knight and the barren landscape are keyed together absolutely in a monotone of gloomy desolation. Nothing has come down to us to match this powerful bit of imagination; but the same device is used by Theocritus with great beauty and effect in that incantation scene where the forsaken damsel, as she invokes the "Queen-moon, and the Stars that follow at her chariot wheels," contrasts the hush and calm of the Sicilian Sea with the tempest of despair and passion that possesses her own soul. In lighter vein, and with consummate art, Ibycus compares the springtide with the perpetual spring of love that reigns in his heart.

Still less did Nature *possess* the spirit of the Greek poet, play upon it, and "make him her lyre," as Shelley says. No such conscious myth-maker as Shelley ever arose among that race of myth-makers. Such passion for Nature as his, such possession by it; such sympathy with the processes of her eternal workshop as is shown in "The Cloud," or the "Ode to the West Wind," was reserved exclusively for the modern mind as it broods and watches

> "That subtler Sphinx renew
> Riddles of death Thebes never knew."

When we reach Wordsworth, with his mystical interpretations and beliefs, his sense of the oneness of himself with Nature and its Creator, we encounter a note pitched, perhaps, beyond the hearing of the ancients, and a doctrine which, though quite as Platonic as Christian, never found its chosen *vates sacer* among the Greeks. The Greek enjoyed Nature, but never submitted to its inspiration; it was his minister, not his master.

There is another species of lyric poetry which, by accident, is adequately represented in our collections, and which, nevertheless, is furthest removed from our sympathies and understanding. This is the type illustrated with great splendor and genius by Pindar, and preserved to us largely by the superlative merit of his poetry—the so-called *epinicia*, written to celebrate victory and victorious in races and athletic contests in the great national games. These, as every one knows, were pursued with intense ardor, under religious auspices, with the most brilliant and imposing ceremonies, amid scenes of beauty heightened by all the adornments of art. The victor was rewarded by his countrymen with public honors and adoration, such as can be paralleled only in our own country at the present day. We, at least, ought to be able to understand such ardor and abandon. We have it ourselves—we have the same passion for athletic sports—we make a religion of it, as they did, and with us it is a cult, mainly, of the three goddesses of greed, knavery, and vulgarity. The Greek athlete worshipped the Graces; he was so simple as to be satisfied with a wreath of bay or parsley, instead of a share of "gate-money"; instead of the process-photographs in the daily *Cosmos*, he demanded a statue by a Scopas or a Praxiteles; instead of a column of eulogy and slang for Sunday reading, he was honored by a banquet at his home-coming, and heard his praises chanted in an ode, written by some poet of the order of a Milton or a Shelley. This was a mad world, certainly, where the prize-ring was reconciled with æsthetics; it was not our world, and hence we investigate it painfully from afar with erudite telescopic vision. This, however, was the domain of Pindar and Bacchylides.

The lately discovered papyrus fragments of Bacchylides increase our specimens of this *genre*, and give us a number of almost complete poems which, perhaps, we would willingly have exchanged for a book of Sappho or some dirges by Simonides. In saying this, however, we by no means intend to underrate the interest of the latest flotsam from Egypt. Dr. Smyth is fortunate in being the first to include in a general collection all of these odes which offer a sufficiently clear meaning and continuity. The most striking feature which they present is the resemblance of their plan to that of Pindar. An ode of Bacchylides is laid out on exactly the same lines as one of Pindar, it follows the same architectural design—it is composed, one might say, after the same recipe. It has the same turns and transitions. Its invocation and vestibule, its wise saws and maxims, its myth nicely hinged and jointed to the exordium and the conclusion, its pattern and mechanism, are as like Pindar's as two peas. The very trick of introducing the myth by some sententious turn of thought and phrase is here repeated. It is necessary, of course, to qualify this statement a little. The general resmblance, which is surprising at first sight, is not fully borne out on minuter examination. Bacchylides is probably the imitator, if there is imitation; his craft is not so cunning, his process is not so inevitable as Pindar's; the structure is not so organic, so welded together by the heat of imagination. It is the clever, deliberate effort of an artist working after a stereotyped form. This form, it is generally assumed, was struck out, in its main outlines, by the genius of his uncle Simonides. The *manner* of Bacchylides resembles that of his great kinsman much more than Pindar's; and this was to be expected. Bacchylides expresses himself with great simplicity, directness, and lucidity, in a limpid stream of diction which imposes no harsh compulsion on syntactical rules, and demands no effort from the reader or the listener. If Hiero preferred his poetry to Pindar's, it may have been for this plain and sufficient reason. He draws from the great "Homeric banquet," as others did, and he sometimes does this even *verbatim*. His style makes this possible and natural, for it has affinities with the epic directness and flow. Grace, sweetness, fondness for color, a gift for fluent, picturesque narrative, studded by ornate epithets—these qualities combined entitle him fairly to the epithets of the "clear-voiced island bee" and λάλος Σειρήν—a compliment which is truly untranslatable, but which recalls "Lalagen dulce loquentem."

This volume of selections was much needed. In addition to the specimens of Bacchylides and the new poem of Sappho, it includes the Delphic pæan to Dionysus, the pæan of Aristonous, the two hymns to Apollo, with music and musical notation, discovered in the Treasury of the Athenians, as well as the pæan of Isyllus of Epidaurus. The appendix contains a convenient selection from the Anacreonteia, and certain "Scolia" attributed to the Sages. Dr. Smyth has thus added the discoveries of the last decade or two, and has made his anthology the completest of its kind accessible to the student. Dr. Smyth's editorial labor, moreover, is of rare and permanent value; it has made his work a delight to both students and scholars. The text has received the benefit of his special study and great learning in dialectic forms. The annotations evince everywhere the most exact and copious scholarship. The literary illustrations remind one of Prof. Shorey's Horace, and constitute a unique atraction—a storehouse of pleasure for the man of taste and leisure. Under a certain line of Sappho we find parallels quoted from Alcman, Pindar, Theognis, Theocritus, Virgil, Ovid, Shakspere, Dante, Johnson, Manzoni, and Keats. We note these names to show the range of reading which they imply. The illustrations are as apposite and pertinent as they are abundant; and this opulence of quotation is not a piece of ostentation, but part of the author's plan. The general introduction, treating of the varieties of melic poetry, is a luminous and condensed treatise, summing up the result of much independent research; while the special sketches, characterizing the style and traits of individual poets, are better done than anything of the kind which can be found in the same compass. They have the delicacy, clearness of cut, and sureness of so many cameos. Dr. Smyth's former work on the Ionic Dialect was a sufficient testimony to his erudition and exact scholarship; the present volume proves him to be also a man of letters and a critic of rare taste, insight, and literary equipment.

ELEANOR, AND OTHER FICTION.

Eleanor. By Mrs. Humphry Ward. Harper & Brothers.

Domestic Dramas. By Paul Bourget. Translated by William Marchand. Charles Scribner's Sons.

An Eagle Flight: A Filipino Novel, adapted from 'Noli me Tangere,' by Dr. José Rizal. McClure, Phillips & Co.

A Breaker of Laws. By W. Pett Ridge. The Macmillan Co.

The prominent people of Mrs. Ward's 'Eleanor' are more natural than those of her former novels; they are deeply interested in themselves, and feel a personal emotion more acutely than any world-pain. If the best novels are those that discuss human relations, combining with narration an intimate view of the interests, passions, and thoughts of several individuals, showing how and why they come closely together or go far apart, then 'Eleanor' is, in this respect at least, one of the best. To those who expect from Mrs. Ward an important utterance about public affairs, something authoritative, like the Queen's speech, and assuring, like the President's message, the book must be disappointing and not worth favorable comparison with 'Robert Elsmere' or 'Marcella.' For the problem that engages her is not one that an ecclesiastical congress would debate, or foreign secretaries officially consider, or councils or boards resolve upon; it is a problem that would never come up for wide public discussion, if it were not for the abandoned indiscretion of imaginative writers. When an uncommonly nice woman is very much in love with a man who (if carefully watched) will eventually respond to her passion, and when a young girl not *en rapport* with the situation charges defences, batters down guards, and captures the man, ordinary good-feeling commands us to analyze and criticise the disappointed woman only beneath our breath, confidentially, *in camera*. Nevertheless, poets and novelists have always, so to speak, battened on the torn sensibilities of this unfortunate woman, and Mrs. Ward flaunts them through two long volumes. Incidentally and at length, she notices other things—the political and social state of Italy, for instance, and the tradition of Catholicism; but the theme is the passion of Eleanor Burgoyne for her cousin, Manisty, including her jealousy of the American intruder, Lucy Foster, while the emotional spectacle is the desperation, humiliation, and final abject submission of a proud spirit and a refined and tender heart. Though the spectacle is managed with delicate consideration for Eleanor, it is a little barbarous, and, moreover, there is not intrinsic intensity to supply the book with a very strong motive. Eleanor's plight is exquisitely pitiful, but it is never tragic.

Another element of weakness is the author's constant challenge to criticism by her glorification of Manisty. An author may say that all his people had the radiant beauty of angels, and, though no one may believe him, if he has escaped the illustrator, he has also escaped reasoned disproof. But if he asserts that they have phenomenal mental gifts, he is at once called upon to make the assertion good. While admitting Manisty's inadequacy to satisfy the dull demands of domestic virtue, and dwelling on his faults of temper and manner, Mrs. Ward places against such defects a potential greatness, an actual grandeur, glitter, fascination; and she believes that she shows all these wonderful qualities in operation, overcoming Eleanor's intellectual criticism, and discomfiting Lucy's loyal affection for Eleanor and her moral scruples. As a matter of fact, though Manisty is far from commonplace, though he is interesting, with a varied and amusing mind and some charm, he just never fills the stage so completely as Mrs. Ward says he does. It is not the first time that Mrs. Ward has conceived a character superlatively splendid in one way or another; and her failure to realize this splendor, to impress it on the reader, seems to supply a measure both for her ambition and her power. To Robert Elsmere she attributed a scholarship and controversial acuteness not discernible within quotation marks, while the supposed potency of Marcella in the great world was most conspicuously shown in the successful seduction from political loyalty of a young man who was not persuaded by her dazzling intellect, but distracted by her beauty. It is not, however, unlikely that, in real life, a Mrs. Burgoyne's imagination would, from the given material, create a glorified Manisty, and thus all that follows for her would be natural and probable.

In her characterization of Eleanor Mrs. Ward gets well outside of herself, conquers her own strongest tendencies, and displays a large share of sympathetic intuition and constructive imagination. To delineate a Lucy Foster, she need not exert imagination. She knows these perfect women nobly planned for all the serious purposes of existence, and contrives not to excite either envy or incredulity of their perfection. The famous New England conscience has its most agreeable illustration in such maidens as Lucy, and if they are really (as Mrs. Ward says) becoming rare, New England should begin to protect her bachelors against foreign competition. No doubt Lucy could easily have got a far better bargain than Manisty at home, and it is a little cold-blooded in Mrs. Ward to hand her over for life to "one of the temperaments to which other lives minister without much return."

The minor figures contribute to the development of the emotional drama, and appropriately relieve tension without diverting interest unduly to themselves. Incidents serve to test character as well as advance the action, and the descriptions of Italy, the talk about the religion, politics, and social condition of Italy, fill in and round out the novel to artistic and satisfactory completeness. Technically, the book is a triumph of study in novel-making, of skill perfected by care and patience. The opening chapters place the scene and the chief characters clearly and indicate the situation. Excepting, perhaps, the visit to Manisty's villa of his mad sister, there is no incident without a result that justifies its introduction. Miss Manisty is a figure for sombre tragedy, and her accidental transient appearance emphasizes by contrast the feebler passion of the principal theme. In every chapter one recognizes intelligence, observation; sympathy, and a clear conception of right to be defended, of wrong to be overcome—all cultivated and trained to a point where expression must be just and full—just and full, but not compelling, captivating, magnetic. It is easy and pleasant to say what Mrs. Ward is, yet difficult to say what she is not; and perhaps neither grateful nor necessary to try. She has made so much of her talents that to reflect on what she has not been given seems gratuitous injury. But to compare 'Eleanor' with Mr. Barrie's 'Sentimental Tommy,' for instance, is to know (though absolutely ignorant of technicalities) what Nature has withheld from Mrs. Ward. Proverbs, and axioms, and all the list of tiresome things taken for granted, make proper matter for scorn of liberal minds, but occasionally they confront us, inexplicable, yet indisputable. As between Mrs. Ward and Mr. Barrie there is nothing to say except that the poet is born, not made.

In his study of a typical figure in modern society, a lady known to Paris as "the beautiful Mme. Le Prieux," M. Bourget says:

> "She was not a monster, although her prolonged exploitation of her husband's labor in the interest of a vain passion for luxury was very nearly ferocious; and very much like ferocity also was her present procedure in forcing her daughter to a cruelly utilitarian marriage. It was simply that her conscience had been vitiated by the germs of corruption with which the social atmosphere is filled—a corruption which current morality, solely concerning itself with breaches of the seventh commandment, scarcely at all notices."

Such comment as this, taken with the subjects discussed in his latest translated volume, prompt the hopeful inference that M. Bourget, who in the past has considered "breaches of the seventh commandment" from several points of view, means in future to ignore them as completely as a

Frenchman can, and to permit his talent for the criticism of society a wider field of observation. The form of corruption directly attacked in the "domestic drama" entitled "Other People's Luxury" is, speaking for all the world, and for power to wreck human happiness, a more common and more serious crime than adultery. In every class of society, domestic disaster is brought about more frequently by a woman's coveting of her fellow-woman's material goods, of anything and everything purchasable that is her neighbors, than by an irresistible passion for her neighbor's husband. If any particular curse may be specified as the curse of democracy, it is the inevitable prevalence of the wish, often assuming the intensity of a mania, to appear as good—that is, as rich and imposing—as one's neighbor, who, of course, is not by birth, by any grace or strength of nature, or for any reason on earth except the accident of superior wealth, any better than one's self. This corrupting desire is not exclusively feminine, but it attacks women more generally than men, rages more fiercely among women, and is more destructive of feminine morality. M. Bourget's Mme. Le Prieux is not an exceptional instance of that "fever of worldly egoism which compels one for ever to compare herself with her richer neighbor, and to go on increasing expenses, complicating life, foolishly (sometimes tragically) sacrificing the reality to the appearance." Under other names she intrudes herself on the contracted social scene of American country towns, and she dominates the big world's stage.

M. Bourget has drawn the lady broadly and also in delicate detail. Ostensibly, he is persistently tendering assurance of his highest consideration, making the best he can of her without violating a felt obligation to practise "the noble virtue of uncompromising veracity." A distinctly French faculty for converting social observations into literature, and for exciting a feeling for morality without appearing didactic or purposeful, has perhaps never been more cleverly expressed. The more violent tragedy of "The Day of Reckoning" is the consequence of a crime committed by devoted and aspiring parents in order to assure the worldly success of their son. In this drama, as in "Other People's Luxury," the family bond is compelling; no member of a family can shirk participation in a common interest, and the conduct and character of one inevitably affect all. The Corbières, plain honest people, yielding to a terrible temptation, appropriated trust funds. This ill-gotten money was so well expended on the education of Eugène, their son, that when, established in the world, and famous in his profession, he discovered his parents' crime, he then took the burden of sorrow and shame upon himself, and gave his life to repair a hideous wrong for which he was not responsible, but by which he alone had benefited. The character of Eugène, tested by a sequence of most trying incidents, and subjected to incentive to ignoble action, preserves a balance between passion and reason, a firmness tempered by gentleness and sympathy, which one false touch would have reduced to the absurd. But M. Bourget has seen his man clearly, so there is no false touch, no sentimentalizing, only a very sincere presentation of a good man. The remaining dramas are psychological studies of children, and are narrower in view, more characteristically French. We others may believe that such children may exist, but we don't like them or wish to hear about them; and to analyze precocious or morbid little wretches seems to us a waste of talent, if not a wickedness.

From the biographical sketch introducing 'An Eagle Flight,' it appears that the author, Dr. José Rizal, was of almost pure Tagalo race. Deeply impressed in his youth by the wretchedness of the Filipinos, most of them in a condition a little worse than literal slavery, believing in their capacity to rise to better things and to enjoy them, his short life was dedicated in one way or another to their cause. Though he was shot for treason, the charge appears to have been trumped up by his enemies, for he did not think his people ready for independence, but, on the contrary, believed that their political safety lay in continued union with Spain. The tyranny he hated and fought against was not that of a king or of the Spanish Government, but the tyranny of a multitude of friars, brown, white, and gray, who for two centuries had had their sandalled feet pressed on the neck of a helpless race. The friars owned the land, owned the ear of Spanish officials, owned the soul of the ignorant and superstitious native. Against this irresponsible omnipotence every Filipino revolt has been directly aimed, and in order to show it up, to make it plain and detestable to Europe, Rizal wrote fervently poems, pamphlets, and novels. 'The Eagle Flight' in an adaptation of his first novel, entitled 'Noli me tangere,' and it is probable that many incidents of his own life, much of his own aspiration, are described and expressed in the principal figure of the tale, Crisóstomo Ibarra. The book is extraordinarily interesting, showing the poet's feeling and far vision in unusual combination with power of unprejudiced observation and force to do—to do always the most and best for a purpose on which the heart is set. Rizal did not concern himself deeply with the technicalities of novel-writing (though the original is probably more coherent than the adaptation), so the book is a series of episodes, scenes, situations loosely connected, yet all helping to express his absorbing passion and to impart it with intensity.

The strain, however, is not of unenlivened melancholy, for the sketches of social life in towns are, to the foreigner at all events, exceedingly funny. It is very amusing to know that society people in Manila have ambitions and arts so much like those of society people at home. Rizal's attitude towards the more prosperous of his countrymen is of contempt more bitter, perhaps, than they deserve, seeing that they are human as well as Filipino, and that they, even as the poorer classes, come under the scourge of the friars. But while his feeling for the masses is intensely sympathetic, he never looks at them with the eye of uncritical partisanship. My people, he says, are ignorant, idle, not sternly virtuous; on the other hand, not predisposed to coarse, destructive vice. What strength of nature they have is crushed by an infamous oppression, and my conviction is that, once having obtained freedom, they will learn to use freedom well. This argument is not yet closed, so there is still time for Rizal's plea to be taken into consideration.

The author of 'A Breaker of Laws' revives the romance of that sort of crime which Dickens exploited in 'Oliver Twist.' Mr. Ridge's burglars are not quite so depraved and dirty as Bill Sykes and the Artful Dodger, but, on the other hand, they are never thrilling, and their best efforts to be comic fall flat. Alfred Bateson's struggle to assume respectability with matrimony is not picturesque, nor are his relapses very touching. The self-sacrifices of his friend, the excellent but uninteresting Mr. Finnis, must have been their own reward; otherwise, they point no moral. The tale is not entertaining, and can hardly have been written with the immoral intention of exciting sympathy with burglars, as the author does not appear to be an enemy of society.

The Story of Nineteenth Century Science. By Henry Smith Williams, M.D. With illustrations. Harper & Bros. 1900. 8vo, pp. 475.

A brief and extremely popular account of the general progress during the nineteenth century of the physical and natural sciences was wanted at this time, and Dr. Williams has drawn it up quite as successfully as could be expected. He does not cover the whole field of those sciences, but deals with all the most significant parts, and adds, besides, a chapter upon modern psychology. To call what is here dealt with "Nineteenth Century Science," ignoring mathematics, linguistics, archæology, economics, is to do injustice to the nineteenth century, but it is an injustice that we are accustomed to. The word "Story" in the title may serve as a hint to the prospective purchaser of the volume that he may expect a style which strains a little, and rather uncomfortably, after effect and sensation. Still, while there is some truth in that, especially in the earlier part of the book, it would be a great mistake to suppose that this is one of those publications which assume that science consists in producing startling novelties and thrilling marvels. On the contrary, it is a serious work, written by a man who, if he does not everywhere show himself a master of the particular branch of science of which he is treating, which would be almost inconceivable, yet does show that he knows what science really is better than a good many men who go by the name of scientists. He seizes upon the great and fruitful ideas which have been developed in each of the branches of which he treats, and shows how it has been evolved, in a way to make his work worthy of being called, not a mere "Story," but a History of the Nineteenth Century in respect to ten, at least, of the eleven sciences which he considers. To do this in such a way as to be readable without fatigue by everybody who ever reads anything but a newspaper or a novel, is a veritable feat. That it is easy enough to be entertaining about science we know, but it is not easy to write lightly and yet picture science as it appears to scientific men.

We must not be understood as meaning that the book wraps up any profound insight into the nature and methods of science, as Whewell's immortal history did. It can teach nothing to scientific men, because it looks upon science precisely as they do; but it will be highly instructive for the great public for which it is intended. Bad proofreading, with which we are becoming sadly familiar of late, must be responsible for Lagrange being named as the author of the 'Mécanique Céleste,' for Agassiz's work on glaciers being dated twenty years too late, and a number of such misleading statements, in spite of which a great deal of pains has evidently been taken to insure accuracy in details. The book is not a mere compilation. The writer has looked into the memoirs, and has otherwise sought information at first hand. The volume also contains upwards of a hundred illustrations, almost all of which are positively interesting. Three-quarters of them are portraits. The writer of this notice was acquainted with the originals of nearly half of them, and can testify that those are characteristically portrayed, while most of the others carry conviction.

Nobody can dream that it is humanly possible to write a work like this which is not open to much criticism. The writer must have a weak side, and Dr. Williams shows his, the more exact is the branch of science with which he deals. This is unfortunate, for that is just where mastery would be most desirable. For example, Dr. Williams plainly shows his aversion to the idea of action at a distance, to which he has no doubt been encouraged by Kelvin and his followers. Now there are just three reasons which render the opinion of those physicists a tenable one. The first is purely logical: it is that as long as we are forced to admit an all-pervading ether, we have no need of any action at a distance, nor, indeed, of any other matter at all, and all our notions of rigid mechanics can be replaced, or be regarded as replaceable, by an amplified hydrodynamics. The second reason appeals to the lessons of the history of science. Because Faraday had no mathematical training, and was consequently unable to think clearly about action at a distance, he was led to develop another way of thinking about the forces of electricity which not only is extremely attractive to a mathematical mind, but also gave rise to Maxwell's theory of electricity, and thence to all the conceptions of Hertz (with the Marconi telegraph to testify to their value), and to the vortical theory of matter, with the applications that J. J. Thompson is making of it. The third reason is more positive, although even this is not conclusive: it is that the properties of elastic solids cannot be accounted for by attractions and repulsions between pairs of particles. But Dr. Williams does not touch upon any of these things as causes of the opinion he seems to espouse. He does not tell us that action at a distance was universally accepted by all whose opinions were of any account through the first half of the century, nor how the contrary belief has gradually become respectable. He leaves the reader to imagine, as the popular reader will be sure to do, that the objection to action at a distance is no more than might have weight with a philosopher of Newton's century—its inconceivability. Now there can be no manner of doubt, in the mind of a psychologist, that this "inconceivability" of action at a distance is due to the circumstance that the great mass of every-day experience in regard to the communication of forces is of one solid body pushing another. Yet, whatever theory we may entertain about action at a distance, it is an indisputable fact that in such ordinary experience there is really no contact at all between the atoms of the different solids. For if two pieces of iron or glass are brought into actual contact, they will stick together so that *they can only* be torn apart. In short, the "inconceivability" of action at a distance is of the same kind as the inconceivability of any occult phenomenon, such as the mixture of two liquids making a solid, two colorless liquids making a black mixture, red and green lights making yellow, etc. An inconceivability which does not prevent an hypothesis from being perfectly exact and consistent is no good reason for rejecting it. Although Dr. Williams is so averse to the admission of action at a distance, he seems almost equally so to the only possible escape from it, that of the ether. He even suggests that empty space may fulfil its functions. He does not point out that if light, during the eight minutes after it leaves the sun before it impinges on the earth, is in empty space, the doctrine of the conservation of energy is false.

Passing from physical conceptions to his statement about the state of opinion among physicists, we also find inaccuracies which, though perhaps of no particular importance in so very popular a history, nevertheless show that exact science is not the author's element. Certainly, there is no more important page of the history of physics than that which relates to the development of ideas concerning heat, energy, and gases from 1824 to 1875. But we do not find that the account here given of this movement of thought is all that might be desired. The author asserts that Sadi-Carnot, in 1824, explicitly stated that a definite quantity of heat could be transformed into a definite quantity of work. But, on the contrary, though it is said that Carnot's posthumous papers show that he subsequently entertained this idea, yet in his celebrated book his doctrine is that heat is a fluid, that its quantity remains unchanged, and that it does work in falling from a higher to a lower temperature just as water does in passing from a higher to a lower level. Nothing is said in this "Story" about the second law of thermodynamics. The reader will get the idea that, Joule's results being admitted, or we may even say Rumford's, there was no further difficulty with the theory of the steam-engine; and no adequate recognition is given to the work of Clausius. In regard to the kinetical theory of gases, the names of Krönig, Boltzmann, Van der Waals do not appear. Regnault, Amagat, Willard Gibbs are never mentioned.

In chemistry, we find such assertions as that hydrogen being univalent while oxygen is bivalent, "makes it plain that we must expect to find no more than three compounds of those elements." It did not make the matter plain to those who held to the strict univalence of chlorine; and Dr. Williams says nothing about variable valencies, but rather implies their fixity. The history of opinion concerning Mendeléef's law is inexcusably inaccurate after the admirable history of the matter by Venable. The importance of Newland's octaves is much exaggerated, since ideas upon the subject, about as nearly correct as his, were generally rife among advanced chemical thinkers of that day. Such comments might be continued to great length. It must suffice to say briefly that the chapter on psychology, although possessed of some merit, is less good than the others.

The Story of the Chinese Crisis. By Alexis Krausse. Cassell & Co.

In this handy volume of 200 pages we have a spirited narrative in brief of China and her modern experiences, together with the stock picture of the Chinaman as painted by the average Occidental. The writer evidently has knowledge at first hand of much of what he has written, and probably no other book gives a more vivid and accurate account of events in China during this past year. He pictures in lively style the universal habit of "squeezing," which means theft and corruption. It pervades every class, from the viceroy to the boy who carries your letters to the post-office, destroying one or two so as to save from the money given to buy stamps. Like a true Briton, Mr. Krausse believes in opium for the Chinese, declaring (p. 13) that "in the case of the overwhelming majority no ill effects are produced." He is a stalwart for trade and British interests, and believes in thoroughly humbling the Chinese. He would abandon the vacillating policy of the past three years, and "revert to the manly method by which we asserted our dominion in the Far East."

The author shows clearly the part which the various predatory nations have played in the dismemberment of China, as already accomplished. Great Britain has nearly 6,000 subjects in China, shipping in the treaty ports amounting to "upwards of 25,000 tons," (*sic*, p. 147), in reality over eight millions or about sixty per cent., while her commerce in 1899 reached a total of $200,000,000. Yet the amount of Chinese territory owned by Great Britain is under 550 square miles. Russia, on the contrary, has in China, including those in her colonies at Newchang and Port Arthur, but 1,600 subjects and no shipping worth speaking of, but has seized 888,830 square miles of territory which, with Mantchuria, practically hers, will amount to over 1,200,000 square miles. France, whose commercial interests in China are the smallest of any first-class Power's, has robbed China of an area of 315,250 square miles. It is hard for the Chinaman to understand the wealth and resources of Great Britain. Notwithstanding that 60 per cent. of the total foreign trade is British, England's effective influence is as nothing compared with that of Russia. The author traces the failure of diplomacy to the fact that no European has yet learned the workings of the Chinese mind. He believes that with such a people no ordinary measures will serve.

The various wars which China has suffered "have failed either to inculcate respect for the superior power of other nations, or to moderate the intense self-complacency which is inherent in the Celestial character." Yet the impression one gets as he reads this book is that, from the standard of absolute morals, the Occidental man must seem to the Chinaman as abnormal, as proud, as subtle, and as malignant as the Westerner is sure the Chinaman is. Surely, if there is ever to be a union or reconciliation of the Orient and the Occident, it must be not only by moral betterment, but by mutual moral betterment. The Chinaman of Mr. Krausse, and of so many other writers whose God is "trade" or "interests"—British or otherwise—is largely the phantasm of myth or distorted vision. Nor shall we ever be able to see clearly until we get the beam out of our own eye. Actual experience shows that the Chinaman, when treated as a human being, responds to such treatment very much as humanity all over the world does, though it is also true that this response is the more prompt and thorough according as the light cure into the notio[illegible] he has met with a treatise that is ab[illegible]nd him on the trail of original ga[illegible] discovery. He does not venture [illegible] before he stumbles upon all [illegible] who advance to greet hi[illegible] familiarity—from that hoary profligate, "Lobster *à la* Newburg," to that old Boston brigand, "Pork and beans," who has robbed digestions on every highway and byway of the land. The latest example is found in 'I-Go-a-Marketing.' It assumes a jocular air. The author greets us in a spirit of comradeship; a hearty, robust companion, who slaps us on the back and flings at us a formula for the making of sausages with the dash of a professional player of baseball. The author endeavors to conceal the lack of originality of her recipes through the use of catching phrases and words. She says, for example, "Look here, now, you know me well enough by this time," "for a flyer," "Say!" and other slang terms calculated to confuse the unsophisticated. This flippant manner of treating classical culinary recipes elaborated by masters of the craft will not do. It destroys the aspect of seriousness which should attach to what is intended to be a book of instruction.

The author tells us that the mission of her compilation—she confesses it to be such—"is a supplementary one. It is for those dark and dreary days when the housekeeper 'wants something good.' It suggests." From this point of view it fulfils its intentions. It differs in arrangement of matter from other cook-books in so far as every month of the year, commencing with January, is attacked in succession, and the comestibles peculiar to each month are treated of without consecutiveness. Soups, fish, entrées, etc., are not disposed of in formal progression, as is usually the case. The book contains many admirable and helpful suggestions; but if amateurs take too seriously one of the author's statements, they may find themselves in the clutches of the law. For the month of August, in speaking of quail, she says: "And now that the 'law's off,' probably, hereabouts, on quail, you will find them in pretty good condition." "Hereabouts" is rather an elastic term. If the author refers to Boston, the amateur will be safe if he hunts quail in cold storage; but if she alludes to quail of the fields, it will not be wise to put her precepts into practice until a couple of months later.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Aitken, Thomas. Road Making and Maintenance. London: Charles Griffin & Co.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

Breasted, J. H. A New Chapter in the Life of Thutmose III. Leipzig: J. C. Hinrichs'sche Buchhandlung. 5.40 marks.

Carter, C. F. The Missions of Nueva California. San Francisco: The Whitaker & Ray Co. $1.50.

Hartman, L. B. The Republic of America. New ed. The Abbey Press. 25 cents.

Lark Classics: (1) Swinburne. Laus Veneris, and Other Poems; (2) Shakespeare's Sonnets. Doxey. 25 cents.

Little, G. O. The Royal Houses of Israel and Judah. Funk & Wagnalls Co. $3.

Mill, H. R. New Lands: Their Resources and Prospective Advantages. London: Charles Griffin & Co.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

Newton, R. H., Gottheil, Gustav, and Slicer, T. R. A Book of Common Worship. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Official Catalogue of the Exhibition of the German Empire, at the Paris Exposition. Berlin: By Imperial Commission.

Parker, B. S., and Heiney, E. B. Poets and Poetry of Indiana. Silver, Burdett & Co.

Parsons, W. B. An American Engineer in China. McClure, Phillips & Co. $1.50.

Roberts, Josephine L. The Rose of Joy. The Neely Co.

Robins, Edward. With Washington in Braddock's Campaign. Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co. $1.25.

Sachse, J. F. The German Sectarians of Pennsylvania, 1742-1800. Vol. 2: A Critical and Legendary History of the Ephrata Cloister and the Dunkers. Philadelphia: J. F. Sachse.

Tsao, Lady. Instruction for Chinese Women and Girls. (Translated by Mrs. S. L. Baldwin.) Eaton & Mains. 75 cents.

Vasari, Giorgio. The Lives of the Painters, Sculptors, and Architects, vols. 4 and 5. (Temple Classics.) London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 50 cents each.

Walford, L. B. One of Ourselves. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.

Walton, Joseph S. Conrad Weiser and the Indian Policy of Colonial Pennsylvania. Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co. $2.50.

Wardrop, Marjory and J. O. Life of St. Nino. Part I., vol. 5 of Studia Biblica et Ecclesiastica. Henry Frowde. 90 cents.

Young, J. W. A. The Teaching of Mathematics in the Higher Schools of Prussia. Longmans, Green & Co. 80 cents.

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ERRATA.

Page 12, col. i., line 5. For "adopting" read "adapting."

Page 253, col. iii., line 46. For "supreme being" read "supreme king."

Page 350, col. i., line 10 from bottom. For "the direct" read "indirect."

Page 381, col. i., line 27 from bottom. For "commander" read "chief of staff."

Page 494, col. iii., line 39. For "Directory" read "Convention."

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